SATARA DISTRICT GAZETTEER

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MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

सत्यमेव जयते

Government of Maharashtra

SATARA DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

(Revised edition of Volume XIX of the original Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency relating to Satara)

BOMBAY
DIRECTORATE OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE
1963

GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

SATARA DISTRICT

FIRST EDITION : 1885

SECOND EDITION (REVISED) : 1963

PRINTED IN INDIA BY THE MANAGER, GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS, BOMBAY AND PUBLISHED BY THE DIRECTOR, GOVERNMENT PRINTING, STATIONERY AND PUBLICATIONS, MAHARASHTRA STATE, BOMBAY-4

CONTENTS

PREFACE

The Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency was originally compiled between 1874 and 1884, though the actual publication of the volumes was spread over a period of 27 years. The Satara District Gazetteer was published in 1885. The core of the district was supplied by the Satara principality after its lapse in the year 1848. Several boundary and sub-divisional adjustments were later on made with the neighbouring districts and with the lands of the neighbouring Indian Princes. With the merger of the Princes' territories in 1947, the district was enlarged and divided into North Satara and South Satara. In 1960, the North Satara reverted to its original name Satara, and South Satara was designated as Sangli district. This Volume deals with the present Satara district.

This revised edition has been prepared under the orders of the Government of Maharashtra by an Editorial Board, specially created for that purpose in 1949. The following are the present members of the Editorial Board :--

Chief Secretary to Government (Shri N. T. Mone, I.C.S.).

Dr. S. G. Panandikar, retired Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay.

Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. V. Mirashi, Nagpur.

Dr. S. M. Katre, Director, Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute, Poona.

Shri S. L. Karandikar, Poona.

Director of Archives, Bombay (Dr. P. M. Joshi).

Executive Editor and Secretary (Shri P. Setu Madhava Rao, M.A., I.A.S.).

The Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, enacted with the object of decentralization of democracy and administration, came into effect in the district, as in all the districts of Maharashtra, from 1st May 1962. As the manuscript of this volume was already in the press the salient features and the changes that have emerged with the introduction of the Act have been given at the end of the volume as an appendix.

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2—History, Chapter 3—People and Chapter 19—Places of Interest and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at page—939.

This office has published so far (1) Poona, (2) Dharwar, (3) Kolhapur, (4) Jalgaon, and (5) Ratnagiri District Gazetteers. Of these, the press copy of Poona Volume was prepared under the direction of Prof. D. G. Karve, the first Executive Editor and Secretary (1949-52), Dharwar Volume was published by Prof. M. R. Palande (1952-1960), who succeeded Prof. Karve as Executive Editor and Secretary. Much of the compilation of Kolhapur, Jalgaon and

Ratnagiri Volumes was done under the direction of Prof. Palande. However the volumes were published by the present Executive Editor and Secretary who took charge on 1st May 1960.

My thanks are due to Dr. B. G. Kunte, M.A., Ph.D., Assistant Editor, Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A., LL.B., Superintendent, Prof. A. N. Weling, M.A., Sarvashri D. C. Deo, M.A., and K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Research Assistants and other members of the staff for their valuable assistance in the preparation of this volume.

My thanks are also due to the Director, Government Printing, Stationery and Publications, Bombay, and the Manager, Government Central Press, Bombay, for the execution of printing work of this Volume.

BOMBAY :
May 1963.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts of the Bombay Presidency. The following extract* will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled :—

"Government called on the Revenue Commissioner to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts.........Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes, they possessed advantages which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country, the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, and their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and diet, and can observe the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education, particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end, and may be made available for self-government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes.

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad. Broach, Kaira, Thana and Khandesh. Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1843."

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organizational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Campbell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication. however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index volume was published.

Though a Gezetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social. political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part 1 (History of Gujarat). pp. iii and iv.

Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871. He said—

"My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration. But a succinct and well conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collector's personal enquiries............But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of civil Government."*

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting its administration.

The Gazetteer had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three Parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the Volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with history and was split up into two Parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Dekhan and Southern Maratha Country; Volume IX was devoted to the Population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Mussalmans and Parsis, but there was no corresponding Volume devoted to the population of Maharashtra or Karnatak; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the District Volumes had two or three parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined volume for some districts, as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the District Volumes though the accounts of particular items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government offices and, in respect of social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subjects.

This Gazetteer compiled over eighty years ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, and scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteer should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This new edition has been prepared under the direction of that Editorial

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), p. vii.

Board. In view of the reorganization of States in 1956 and the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteer had previously been compiled will be taken up and new District Gazetteers will be compiled in accordance with the common pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over 80 years after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments, whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteer bearing on archaeology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their case, however, some restatement is occasionally, necessary in view of later investigations and new archaeological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition, the results of such subsequent research. The revision of old Volumes has, in fact, meant an entire rewriting of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information was obtained from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialised subjects were obtained from competent scholars.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values. Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half a century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteers have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena. For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the main sections of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district map given in this edition is also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteers are published in two series :—

1. *The General Series.*—This comprises Volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, People and Their Culture, History, Language and Literature, Botany, and Public Administration.

2. *The District Series.*—This contains one Volume for every district the Maharashtra State. The information given in all Volumes will follo the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the san for all districts.

It was originally thought feasible to number the district volumes in th alphabetical order in the District Series and accordingly the Poona Volum which was the first revised District Gazetteer to be compiled and publishe by the Board (in 1954), was numbered as Volume XX. However, th arrangement was not found to be suitable and it was, therefore, subsequentl decided not to give any number to any volume.

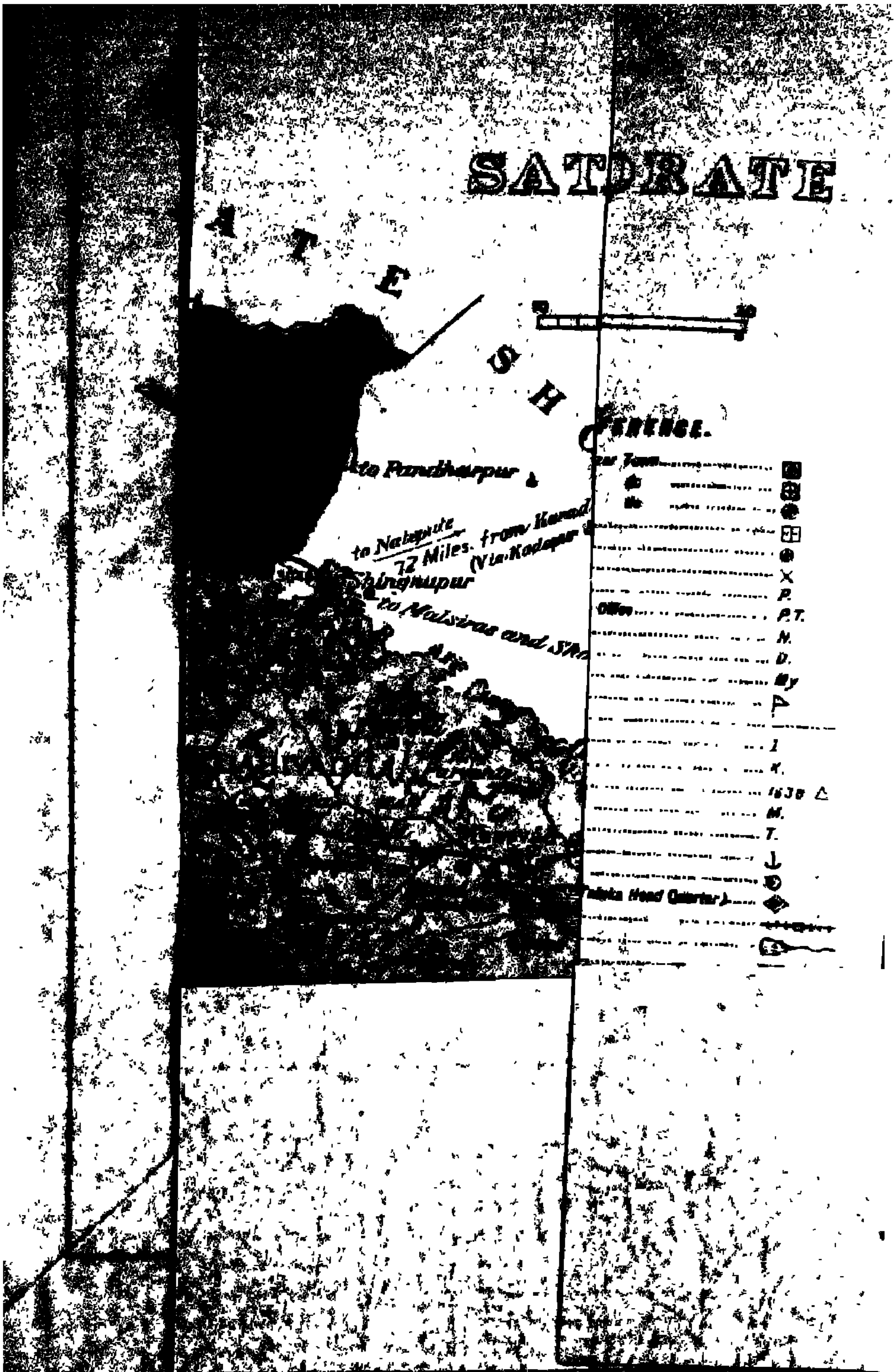
In the preparation of this volume, the Board has received every assistanc from the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs Government of India. A draft copy of this volume was sent to the Gazetteer Unit and was returned with valuable suggestions which have bee incorporated in the volume. The Government of India gives a grant-in-ai of Rs. 6,000 per volume towards the cost of compilation and 40 per cent. o the actual printing charges.

BOMBAY :

May 1963.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,

Executive Editor and Secretary.



... 4,022.6 1,152 ... 11,75,509

*The sections from p. 1 to p. 13 and from p. 29 to p. 35 were contributed by Dr. C. D. Deshpande, Chairman, S. S. C. Examination Board, Maharashtra State, Poona.

SATARA

CHAPTER I—GENERAL.*

CHAPTER I.

General.

SITUATION.

SATARA AT THE WESTERN LIMIT OF THE DECCAN TABLE LAND, lies between 16° 50′ and 18° 10′ North, and 73° 45′ and 15° 00′ East. It has an area of 4,022·6 square miles, a population of 11,75,309, according to 1951 census, with 15 towns and 1,152 villages. The following table brings out the salient features of the administrative aspects of the district :—

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

TABLE No. I.

Division	Name of Taluka or Peta.	Area in Sq. miles.	Number of villages.	Number of towns, including cities.	Population.
Satara ..	(*i*) Satara ..	353.4	151	2	1,62,529
	(*ii*) Koregaon ..	364.6	73	3	1,15,689
	(*iii*) Jaoli ..	344.7	196	..	71,086
Mahabaleshwar	(*i*) Wai ..	229.1	88	1	88,239
	(*ii*) Mahabaleshwar	87.3	53	2	20,448
Patan ..	(*i*) Patan ..	513.5	203	.	1,46,691
	(*ii*) Karad ..	405.8	111	3	2,07,913
Phaltan ..	(*i*) Phaltan ..	455.8	78	1	99,781
	(*ii*) Khatav ..	509.1	84	2	1,31,360
	(*iii*) Man ..	556.0	70	1	83,478
	(*iv*) Khandala ..	203.3	45	.	48,095
	Total ..	4,022 6	1,152	15	11,75,309

*The sections from p. 1 to p. 13 and from p. 29 to p. 35 were contributed by Dr C. D. Deshpande, Chairman, S. S. C. Examination Board, Maharashtra State, Poona.

CHAPTER 1.
—
General.
THE PRESENT DISTRICT.

The present district of Satara owes its administrative evolution to the several changes that took place, first during the British rule, and subsequently during the post-independence period till as late as the year 1960. The core of the district was supplied by the Satara Principality after its lapse in the year 1848. Several boundary and sub-divisional adjustments were later on made with the neighbouring districts and with the lands of the neighbouring Indian princes. With the merger of the Princes' territories in 1947, the district was enlarged and divided into North Satara and South Satara. In 1960, the North Satara reverted to its original name Satara, South Satara being designated as Sangli district. The district, accordingly, has eleven talukas and petas.

BOUNDARIES.

The district has a compact shape, with an east-west stretch of about 90 miles and north-south about 75 miles. Administratively it is bordered by the Poona district on the whole of the northern side, by the Sholapur district on the east, by the Sangli district on the south-east and south, and by the Ratnagiri district on the west; only over a length of about 15 miles the Kolaba district borders on the north-west. Although the boundaries of the district are mainly administrative, along several lines these coincide with physical features, in that the Nira river practically forms a border over the entire north, the main Sahyadrian range on the west and south-west, and the Shikhar Shingnapur section of the Mahadeo hills on the east to demarcate to some extent the lands of the Sholapur district.

MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Relief and drainage.

Residual hill ranges and the intermediate valleys, all well-developed on a tableland surface, form the main element of landscape in the Satara district. On the west, it has the Sahyadrian scarp with its major peaks, usually flat topped, and intervening saddles. The Mahadeo Range, which is the next major well developed range, begins as an off-shoot of the Sahyadries, in the north-western part of the district. Eastwards, it runs as a main range and sends off several minor ranges south-eastwards and southwards. The Sahyadrian range and its minor hill chains on the plateau surface, and the Mahadeo range and its minor ranges, enclose between them the major river systems of Satara.

From the point of view of the peninsular drainage, the entire land of the district belongs to the larger drainage system of the Krishna river. In this district there are four distinct river basins : the Krishna draining the major portion to the south, the Yerla also draining to the south the mid-east portions, the Man draining the eastern parts to join the Bhima river outside the limits of the district, and the Nira draining the northern belt of the district.

Hills.
The Sahyadries.

The two major ranges, the Sahyadries and the Mahadeo, form, as mentioned above, the major hill complex of the district, and these and their several transverse members together with many isolated hill features and knolls give Satara its dominant relief forms.

The Sahyadrian system includes the main range of the Sahyadries which through its entire length of about sixty miles from north to south

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
The Sahyadris.

forms the western boundary of the district. Within Satara limits, the main range of Sahyadris from about eight miles north of Pratapgad, passes south in an irregular line till it reaches the boundary of the Sangli district about fifteen miles south-west of Patan. In the range sixty miles within Satara limits the crest of the Sahyadries is crowned by several peaks of which two are the major forts of Pratapgad (3,543 ft.) and Makarandgad (4,054 ft.). Similarly, the main line of the Sahyadris, within Satara limits, develops several cols and saddles of which the more accessible ones have become major Ghat routes. Beginning from the north, these are the Fitz Gerald or the Ambinali pass in the north-west of the district; the Par pass about three miles south-west of the Fitz Gerald pass; the Hatlot pass about six miles south of the Par pass; the Amboli pass, about ten miles south of the Hatlot pass; The North Tivra pass about ten miles south of the Amboli pass; the Kumbharli pass about fifteen miles south of the North Tivra pass; and the Mala pass about eight miles south of the Kumbharli pass. Of these passes the Fitz Gerald and the Kumbharli allow major routes from the plateau to the Konkan while the Amboli, North Tivra, and Mala are minor routes, and the rest are footpaths.

Several leading spurs pass east and south-east from the Sahyadris. Beginning from the north, these spurs may be named the Kamalgad, Vairatgad, Hatgegad-Arle, Bamnoli-Gheradategad, and Bhairavgad-Kandur; the last two are large ranges each with three minor spurs. Kamalgad is a short spur which starts about five miles north of Mahableshwar and passes about ten miles east ending in the hill-fort of Kamalgad. It forms the water-parting between the Valki on the left or north and the Krishna on the right or south. The second is the Vairatgad spur up a branch of which the Wai-Mahableshwar main road climbs. It leaves the Sahyadris in the region of the Mahabaleshwar plateau and stretches south-east about 20 miles ending a little beyond the hill-fort of Vairatgad. This spur forms the water-parting between the Krishna on the left or north-east and the Kudali, a feeder of the Krishna, on the right or south-west. It has one fort Vairatgad about six miles south-east of Wai. The third or Hatgegad-Arle spur starts like the Vairatgad spur from the Mahabaleshwar complex, and stretches south-east nearly parallel to the Vairatgad range to the north of Medha about thirty miles to Arle near the meeting of the Krishna and Vena or Yenna. It is the water-parting between the Kudali, a feeder of the Krishna, on the left or north-east, and the Yenna on the right or south-west. This spur has no hill-fort. The fourth, the Bamnoli-Gheradategad, is the chief of the Sahyadri spurs It starts from Malcolmpeth on the Mahabaleshwar plateau and for a distance of about forty miles runs south nearly parallel to the main line of the Sahyadries. It forms the water-parting between the Vena, a feeder of the Krishna, on the left or north-east and the Koyna. The range is as high and massive as the main crest of the Sahyadris. Besides by several small passes it is crossed by a good road from Medha and Bamnoli. In the extreme south is the fortified peak of Gheradategad. From the eastern slopes of the Bamnoli-Gheradategad range, three chief spurs stretch east and south-east across the plain. The first of

CHAPTER 1.
General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
The Sahyadris.

these, the Satara spur, starts at Kelghar about three miles north-east of Bamnoli and about fifteen miles south-east of Malcolmpeth, and stretches about fourteen miles to Satara, and, from Satara about twelve miles south-east to Varna and Phatyapur near the meeting of the Urmodi and the Krishna. It forms the water-parting between the Vena on the left or north-east and the Urmodi on the right or south-west, both feeders of the Krishna. Its only fortified hill is Satara about the middle of the range. The second spur, the Kelvali-Sonapur spur, is short scattered and of irregular shape. It leaves the main range near Kelvali about eight miles south of Bamnoli, and, with many short side shoots, stretches about twelve miles south-east to Nagthana. It forms the water-parting between the Urmodi river on the left or north-east and the Tarli, also a feeder of the Krishna, on the south-west. Its only fort is Sajjangad or Parli on an outlying branch to the north of the main spur. The third or Jalu-Vasantgad spur starts from the Bamnoli-Gheradategad range about nine miles south of Kelvali and with several off-shoots passes about twelve miles south to near Patan; about two miles north-east of Patan it turns south-east, and stretches about fourteen miles to Vasantgad about four miles north-west of the confluence of the Koyna and the Krishna at Karad. During its twelve miles south the Jalu-Vasantgad spur forms the water-parting between the Tarli stream on the left or east, and the Kera, a feeder of the Koyna on the right or west. In its fourteen miles to the south-east the spur forms the water-parting between the Krishna and its feeder, the Mand on the left or north-east, and the Koyna on the right or south-west The only fort on the spur is Vasantgad near its extreme south-east end. From the Bhairavgad-Kandur range which mostly belongs to the Sangli district, several spurs run north-east and east, and fill the south-west corner of the district with hills. Of these spurs there are three chief lines, Gunvantagad about five miles south-west of Patan, the water-parting between the Koyna on the left or north and the Morna on the right or south: the Kahir-Kirpa spur running east and separating the Morna on the left or north from the Kole or Vang river on the right or south; and the Kalgaon-Jakhinvadi spur running north-east to near Kapil about three miles south of Karad and separating the Kole river on the left or north-west from the Nandgaon stream on the right or south-east.

The Mahadeo.

The second chain of Satara hills is the Mahadeo range. In the north of the district the range emanates from the Sahyadrian complex from about ten miles north of Mahabaleshwar and stretches east and south-east across the whole breadth of the district. The trend of the range for the first thirty miles, to a little beyond the Khambatki pass through which runs the Satara-Poona road, is towards the east. About Vela, four miles east of the Khambatki pass, it turns south-east. Beyond Tadvala, the hills again stretch in an irregular line east-wards to the extreme east of the district at Kothla about twelve miles north-east of Dahivadi. Though its south-running spurs have many forts, the main crest of the Mahadeo range has only three forts, Ghera or

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
The Mahadeo.

Kelanja in the north-west about fourteen miles north-east of Mahabaleshwar, Tathvada or Santoshgad about twenty miles north-west of Dahivadi, and Varugad in the north-east about eleven miles north of Dahivadi. Besides many small saddles, the Mahadeo range is crossed by three important passes, the Khambatki pass on the Poona-Satara road about twenty-eight miles north of Satara, and the two breaks near Tadvala, about twelve miles south-east of Khambatki, through which the Wai-Adarki and the old Satara-Poona roads run.

From the main range of the Mahadeo hills three principal spurs stretch south, the Chandan-Vandan spur in the west which runs about half across the district, and the Vardhangad and the Mahimangad spurs further east which stretch right across the district. The Chandan Vandan spur is the water-parting between the Krishna valley on the west and the Vasna valley on the east. The spur starts from the Mahadeo hill at Harli about a mile and a half east of the Khambatki pass and about twelve miles north-east of Wai. It stretches south about twelve miles to the twin forts of Chandan and Vandan, and from then, about ten miles further, to near the meeting of the Vasna and Krishna about three miles south-east of Sangam-Mahuli. The Vardhangad spur begins from Mol in Khatav about 16 miles east of the starting point of the Chandan-Vandan spur and passes south through the whole length of the district about fifty miles to the Krishna near the town of Kundal in Sangli district. It forms the water parting between the Vasna, Vangna, and other direct feeders of the Krishna on the west and the streams that drain into the Yerla, a large tributary of the Krishna, on the east. The spur has two fortified hills Vardhangad in the north about eight miles east of Koregaon, and Sadashivgad near Karad, about thirty miles south of Vardhangad The third or Mahimangad spur begins from the Mahadeo hills about nine miles east of the starting point of the Vardhangad range and extends south-east to Khanapur in the Sangli district. It forms the water-parting between the valley of the Yerla, a tributary of the Krishna on the right or south-west, and the valley of the Man, a tributary of the Bhima on the left or north-east. It has the major fortified hill of Mahimangad about ten miles south of where the spur starts from the Mahadeo hills.

The tops both of the main Sahyadris and of the Mahadeo hills, especially in the north-western tracts of Wai, Jaoli, and Patan, look like a succession of fortresses raised on a series of plateaus piled one over the other, the whole surmounted by a wall of rock. The top of Mahabaleshwar, the highest point in the district, is about 4,710 feet above the sea. From the high Deccan table-land on the east, the Sahyadris seem somewhat low and tame. But from the western edge of their crest great forms stand out from the Konkan with bold wild outlines and cliffs which in places have a sheer drop of over 3,000 feet. For about thirty miles after leaving the Sahyadris, the Mahadeo hills keep a height of about 4,000 feet above the sea and about 2,000 feet above the plain. The north face of the Mahadeo range falls sharply into the Nira valley, the distance from the crest

CHAPTER 1.
—
General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
Hill Forts.

of the range to the river being not more than ten or twelve miles. To the south the hills fall much more gently to the valley of the Krishna.

Within Satara limits there are several notable hills and hill-forts. The names of the major hills in the Khandala-Wai tract are, Baleghar, Dhamna, Harli, Kamalgad, Kenjalgad, Mandhardev, Panchgani, Pandavgad, Pipli, Sonjai, Vagdera, Vandan, Vairatgad and Eruli. Of these hills Sonjai, the lowest is 3,287 feet and Eruli, the highest, is 4,531 feet above the sea. One of them Panchgani is a health resort, and five of them Kamalgad, Pandavgad, Vairatgad, Vandan, and Kenjalgad are hill forts; Kamalgad, 4,511 feet above the sea, stands alone, ten miles west of Wai, and has an ascent of about three miles. The sides are covered with shrubs and trees, and the top is flat, and is fifty acres in area. It is approached by unfrequented foot-paths from Asgaon to the east, from Vasole to the north, and from Partavdi to the south. Inside is a hole which is said to be the remains of a deep well sunk right through the rocky layer constituting the scarp and penetrating to the soil below which seems still to be full of water. Pandavgad,
to the soil below which seems still to be full of water. Pandavgad,
about 4,177 feet above the sea and three miles north of Wai, has an ascent of about a mile and a half, and is thinly covered with scrub. Its flat top has an area of only thirty acres, surrounded by an almost ruined wall with two gates. Inside, at a small ruined temple of Pandujai, a yearly fair or *yatra* is held. On the side are two or three water cisterns and a cave, and at the bottom of the hill are two more caves called Pandavkritya or the Pandavs' work. Vairatgad, 3,939 feet above the sea and six miles south-east of Wai, has an ascent of about a mile. The top has an area of about thirty acres. Inside the fort are five stone ponds, none of them more than forty feet in diameter, and outside is one cave pond. It is surrounded by a wall with two gates, one of which is approached by steps. Vandan, about 3,851 feet above the sea and ten miles south-east of Wai, is a flat-topped hill with an area of about seventy acres, and an ascent of a mile and a half The top, which has a mosque still in fair preservation, and a considerable Musalman bathing place with two roofed and walled tombs, is strengthened at the crests of ravines with two gates. There is an inscription in Persian characters over the gateway and within are several rooms for the accommodation of the guard. Kenjalgad, 4,268 feet above the sea and eleven miles north-west of Wai, is a flat-topped hill with an area of about fifty acres and an ascent of about two miles. The top, which has three large water tanks of about forty feet square and six small ones and one or two ruined temples, is surrounded by a ruined wall with a gate approached by a flight of about a hundred steps. The village of Ghera-Kenjala on the top has about 100 people.

Jaoli.

The principal heights in Jaoli—Mahabaleshwar tract are Mahabaleshwar, Makrandgad, Pratapgad, and Vasota. Of these, Mahabaleshwar, 4,710 feet above the sea, is a health resort and the other three are hill forts. Makrandgad, about 4,054 feet above the sea and seven miles south-west of Malcolmpeth, the Mahabaleshwar Market,

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
Jauli.

is commonly known as the Saddleback. The top is small and uneven. A few shrine-servants and husbandmen live on the top, which has a pond, a spring, and a temple of Mallikarjun. Pratapgad hill, as the crow flies is four or five miles west of Malcolmpeth. It is 3,543 feet above the sea and stands prominently with steep grass and scrub-covered sides, and is a place of great natural strength. It can be climbed either from Vada or Peth Par, but has only one gate. A motorable road is now constructed to cover the major part of the ascent. The top plateau which is about half a mile long, is flat and is surrounded by an inner and an outer line of walls each with one gate. The fort, having glorious association with the founder of the Maratha Empire is still in fair repair. The citadel has an area of 300 by 400 yards. About seventy people, chiefly *pujaris* or shrine servants, live on the hill top which has some reservoirs and two large temples, one dedicated to Bhavani and the other to Kedareshvar. With the recent installation of a fine equestrian statue of Shivaji Maharaj which offers a landmark on the skyline, the fort has become a place of pilgrimage to the people of Maharashtra. The tomb of the Bijapur general, Afzal Khan who died at the hands of Shivaji in 1659, is also shown at the base of the main hill top. Vasota is a flat-topped hill on the main range of the Sahyadries, about 16 miles south of Malcolmpeth. It is climbed by a steep foot-path about a mile and a half long with steps at the top. The top, which is surrounded by a wall, contains the remains of a mansion, a small temple, and two reservoirs.

Satara.

The main hill features in the Satara tract are Satara fort or Ajinkyatara Yavteshvar, Parli fort or Sajjangad, Petova, Ghatai, Kateshvar and Shulpani, varying from 3,000 feet to 4,000 feet above the sea Satara and Parli are fortified. The Satara hill, about 3,307 feet above the sea and 1,200 feet above the plain, stands immediately over the town of Satara. The hill is climbed by a path about one mile long. The fort includes a flat hill-top about 1,200 yards by 400. It is surrounded by a wall with an entrance in the north-west, and a second blocked entrance in the south-east. The only buildings on the top are two bungalows and a few temples and small reservoirs. Two low necks join it to the spur. The sides are steep and bare with a little scrub, and, except at the main gate, the top is surrounded by an unbroken wall of rock. The Parli or Sajjan Fort, about 3,000 feet above the sea, stands alone about seven miles south-west of Satara. It is steep and may be climbed by three footpaths, all of which lead to the same point of entrance. The flat top, which is about 600 yards by 250, is surrounded by a wall in fair order with an inner and an outer gate both bearing inscriptions. The fort is famous for the foot-prints of Ramdas Swami, the spiritual guide of Shivaji Maharaj. The foot-prints are visited every Thursday by a number of pilgrims, and a great fair or *yatra* is held in honour of Ramdas Swami on the ninth of the dark half of Magh in January-February. Besides the foot-prints, the top contains several temples, two mosques with Persian inscriptions, five water reservoirs, and a sizable population

CHAPTER 1.
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General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
Koregaon.

The five Koregaon hills, Harneshvar, Chavaneshvar, Jaranda, Nandgiri, and Chandan, vary from 3,500 to 4,000 feet above the sea. Three are hill forts of little importance, Nandgiri about twelve miles north-east, Chandan about fifteen miles north, and Jaranda about eight miles east of Satara. All are surrounded by walls, each with one entrance. Nandgiri has a plateau about 500 yards long and 300 broad, and the top of Chandan is 1,000 feet by 800. These have no special temples or buildings but have one or more reservoirs. The slopes are bare and steep and are climbed by difficult footpaths.

Patan.

Of the five Patan hills, Chandli, Dategad, Gunvantgad, Bhairavgad, and Jangli-Jaygad, all except the first are fortified. Chandli, about six miles south of Patan, is of an irregular sugar-loaf shape and is half-cut from the rest of the ridge by a depression or pass. Except for a few teak trees the hill sides are bare. Dategad is a flat-topped eminence at the southern end of a range of hills in the west of Patan. The sides are bare and rocky. The ascent, which is some three miles from Patan, though steep is fairly easy. Gunvantgad or Morgiri, a striking hill from many points on the Sahyadris, looks like a lion crouching with its head to the south-east. The ascent is easy, not more than half a mile from the village of Morgiri. The top has an area of about 200 yards by 50. The fort of Jangli-Jaygad about six miles north-west of Helvak, lies on a spur projecting from the main Sahyadrian chain into Konkan.

Karad.

The four Karad hills are, Agashiv, Pal, Sadashivgad, and Vasantgad, of which the Sadashivgad and Vasantgad are fortified. Agashiv, standing about 1,200 feet above the plain, has a pointed top, and is a prominent object about four miles south-west of Karad. The sides are steep and scantily covered with scrub. On the south-east of the hill is a group of Buddhist caves. Pal stands alone about two miles south-east of the village of that name. It is round-topped and rises about 100 feet from the plain. On the top is a small temple. The sides are not steep and in many parts are under tillage. Sadashivgad, a hill fort built by Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj stands about three miles east of Karad. It is a round-topped hill at the western wall of a spur which juts out from the Vardhangad range on the east. The sides are bare and rocky, easily climbed by a path about a mile long. The top which is about 400 yards by 200, is surrounded by a ruined wall. Vasantgad, about four miles north-west of Karad, a prominent object from both the Karad-Satara and the Karad-Kumbharli roads, is a place of great strength. A footpath leads from Talbid to the east of the fort, and the old gun road from Khodshi about two miles to the south-east. On the top are two gateways and some temples and other buildings.

Man.

Of the major Man hills, Varugad, Khokada, Shikhar-Shingnapur, Tathvada, Jire-Padhar, Kulakjai, and Mahimangad, three, Varugad, Tathvada and Mahimangad are fortified. Varugad, about twelve miles north-west of Dahivadi, rises cone-shaped from the main spur. From the north the ascent is difficult and about a mile long; from the south the plateau leads to the base of the cone and the ascent is

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Hills.
Man.

not more than 250 feet. It has a grassy top which is about a mile long by a mile broad and is fortified along the crests of the ravines by a ruined wall with five gateways. On the top stands the village of Varugad with an old temple of Bahiroba and with five hamlets. Khokada, fifteen miles north-west of Dahivadi, is flat-topped, rugged, and bare, and has one spring. On the top is the village of Khokada mostly of Kunbi husbandmen who raise crop of millets, wheat, and gram. Shikhar-Shingnapur, 13 miles north-east of Dahivadi and 3,049 feet above the sea is flat-topped, rugged, and partly covered with grass and trees. On the top are the village of Shingnapur, and a temple of Mahadeo. Tathvada, about, twenty miles north-west of Dahivadi, is rugged and partly covered with shrub and grass. The top, which is about a quarter of a mile long and broad, is fortified along the crests of ravines by a partly ruined wall with one gateway. On the top are a paved apartment, a reservoir, a well, and a temple Jire-Padhar, ten miles south-east of Dahivadi and 3,138 feet above the sea, is flat-topped, rugged, and covered with shrub and grass. On the hill top are two hamlets of Kunbis and shepherds. Kulakjai, eleven miles north-west of Dahivadi, is flat-topped, rugged, and covered with shrubs and grass. It has two springs, and the village of Kulakjai and two hamlets of husbandmen and shepherds. The Tita, Bel, and Vakjai passes go close by the hill. Mahimangad hill, 3,219 feet above the sea and five miles west of Dahivadi, is bare and flat-topped with rocky sides. It has an easy ascent and is joined to a spur of the Mahadeo range. The top is grassy and about 900 feet long from east to west and 600 feet broad from north to south. It is partly fortified by a ruined wall with one gateway. It contains two dry reservoirs and an old temple of Maruti.

Khatav.

Of the four Khatav hills, Solaknath, Bhapshah, Vardhangad, and Bhushangad, two, Vardhangad and Bhushangad are fortified. Solaknath, eighteen miles north of Vaduj, the source of the Yerla river, rises 2,000 to 2,500 feet above the plain. The top is pointed, and the sides are steep and bare, without trees or tillage. Bhapshah, four miles south-west of Vaduj, is a pointed hill with steep bare sides. Vardhangad, 3,502 feet above the sea and fourteen miles west of Vaduj, is round-topped and easy of ascent, and is a part of a spur of the Mahadeo range. The top, which is about 300 yards long by 200 broad, is surrounded by a stone wall with one entrance. The wall is entire towards the east and south and is ruined towards the north and west. The Satara-Pandharpur road passes by the south of the hill which has a grassy top with four wells, four reservoirs, and an old temple. Bhushangad stands alone, eleven miles south-west of Vaduj, steep, bare, and flat-topped. The top, which is about 200 yards long by 200 yards broad, is surrounded by a ruined stone wall with one entrance. The hill, which has a dry spring and no village either on the top or the sides, has two old temples on the top, one to a goddess and the other to Maruti.

Rivers.

Within Satara limits there are four distinct river drainage areas, the Nira in the entire northern belt, the Man in the south-east and the Yerla and the Krishna in the south. The narrow belt beyond the

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Rivers.
Krishna.

Mahadeo hills is drained north into the Nira which flows east into the Bhima, and the eastern part of the district beyond the Mahimangad range is drained south-east along the Man which afterwards flows east and north-east to join the Bhima.

The Krishna is one of the three great sacred rivers of Southern India. Like the Godavari and Kaveri, it flows across almost the entire breadth of the peninsula from west to east and flows into the Bay of Bengal. In length it is less than the Godavari, but its drainage area, including the drainage of its two great tributaries, the Bhima and Tungbhadra, is larger than that of either the Godavari or the Kaveri. Its length is about 800 miles and its drainage area is about 94,500 square miles. Of its 800 miles, about 110 lie within Satara limits. The Krishna rises on the eastern brow of the Mahabaleshwar plateau four miles west of the village of Jor in the extreme west of Wai. The source of the river is about 4,500 feet above the sea in 18° 1′ north latitude and 73° 41′ east longitude. On the plateau of the Mahabaleshwar hill near the source of the river stands an ancient temple of Mahadeo. Inside the temple is a small reservoir into which a stream pours out of a stone *Gomukh*. This is the traditional source of the river which Hindus lovingly call *Krishnabai* "the Lady Krishna". Number of pilgrims crowd to the spot which is embowered in trees and flowering shrubs. From its source the Krishna runs east for about fifteen miles till it reaches the town of Wai. It receives the Kudali, from the right about two miles south of Panchvad in South Wai. After meeting the Kudali, the river continues to run south through the Satara Sub-Division by Nimb and Vaduth, and after fifteen miles receives the Vena on the right near Mahuli, about three miles east of Satara. As the confluence of the Krishna and Yenna, Mahuli is a sacred spot. A fair is held five times in the year, once in Kartik, October-November, in Chaitra, March-April, and in Ashadh, June-July, and twice in Shravan, July-August. After meeting the Vena, the Krishna curves to the south-east and separates Satara Sub-Division from Koregaon for about ten miles till it reaches the border of Karad. In Koregaon, after a course of forty miles, about a mile east of Mangalpur, the Krishna receives the Vasna from the left, and after a course of about fifty-five miles in the extreme south of the Satara Sub-Division, about two miles south-west of Vanegaon, it receives the Urmodi from the right. In Karad the river runs nearly south. It receives from the right, two tributaries, the Tarli near Umbraj after a course of about sixty-five miles and the Koyna near Karad after a course of about seventy-five miles. Below Karad, it flows for about 30 miles and then enters the limits of the Sangli district. Within Satara limits the Krishna is unfit for navigation. The channel is too rocky and the stream too rapid to allow even of small local craft. The banks are twenty to thirty feet high and generally sloping, earthy and broken. The river bed, though in parts rocky, as a rule is sandy. In Wai and Satara in the north-west, except that melons are grown in its bed, the water of the Krishna is being increasingly used for irrigation. In Karad, crops of sugarcane, groundnut, chillies, and wheat are raised by watering the soil

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Rivers.

from recently made canals. During the fair season the Krishna is everywhere easily forded, but during the rains there is considerable body of water, and a bridge has been thrown over the Krishna at Mahuli, three miles east of Satara, at Dhamner in the South of Koregaon, at Umbraj, in Karad. Within Satara limits the Krishna is bridged at Bhuinj on the Poona-Bangalore road, at Wai on the Poona-Mahabaleshwar road, and at Vaduth on the old Poona road, and at Karad to connect the town with the railway station on the east.

Kudali.

The Kudali, a small feeder of the Krishna in the north, rises near Kedamb in Jaoli, and after a south-easterly course of about sixteen miles through Jaoli and Wai, flanked by the Vairatgad range on the left or north and the Hatgegad-Arle range on the right or south, joins the Krishna from the right about two miles south of Panchvad in Wai.

The Vena or Yenna one of the Krishna's chief feeders, rises on the Mahabaleshwar plateau and falls into the Yenna valley below the Lingmala plantation, on the east point of the Mahabaleshwar hills about three miles east of Malcolmpeth. It flows between the Hatgegad-Arle range on the left or north and the Satara range on the right or south, and after a south-easterly course of about forty miles through Jaoli and Satara, it joins the Krishna at Mahuli about three miles east of Satara. In the hot season the stream thins down and the water stands in pools. It is crossed by no ferries. Besides a foot-bridge at Medha in Jaoli, it has four road bridges, one on the Poona-Bangalore road at Varya, three miles north of Satara, two on the Satara Malcolmpeth road at Kanhera eight miles and at Kelghar twenty miles north-west of Satara, and one on the old Poona road at Vadha Kheda, three miles north-east of Satara.

Urmodi

The Urmodi, a small feeder of the Krishna, rises near Kas in Jaoli. It passes south-east along a valley flanked by the Satara range on the left or north and the Kalvali-Sonapur range on the right or south. After a south-easterly course of about twenty miles, mostly through Satara, it joins the Krishna about two miles south-west of Venegaon in the extreme south of the Satara Sub-Division. The banks of the Urmodi are high and steep. The flow of water ceases in the hot season. There is no ferry, and only one bridge on the Poona-Kolhapur road at Latna, nine miles south of Satara

Tarli.

The Tarli, a small feeder of the Krishna, rises in the north-west of Patan about ten miles above the village of Tarli. It flows south-east along a valley flanked by the Kalvali-Sonapur range on the left or north-east and the Jalu-Vasantgad range on the right or south-west. After a south-easterly course of about twenty-two miles through Patan and Karad, it joins the Krishna from the right at Umbraj in Karad.

Koyna.

The Koyna, the largest of the Satara feeders of the Krishna, rises on the west side of the Mahabaleshwar plateau near Elphinstone Point in 17° 58′ north latitude and 73° 43′ east longitude. Of its

CHAPTER 1.
General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Rivers.
Koyna.

course of eighty miles within Satara limits, during the first forty it runs nearly south, and during the next forty it runs nearly east. During its forty miles to the south the Koyna flows along a beautiful valley with the main line of the Sahyadris on the right and on the left the Bamnoli-Gheradategad branch of the Sahyadris which runs parallel to the main line at an equal height. In Jaoli the river passes by Bamnoli and Tambi and receives the Solshi from the left about three miles north of Bamnoli and the Kandati from the right about two miles south of Bamnoli. At Helvak in Patan, after a course of forty miles, the river suddenly turns east, and, after a further course of forty miles flowing by the town of Patan, where it receives the Kera from the north, and on receiving down stream the waters of Morna and Vang from the south it falls into the Krishna at Karad. In the first forty miles the Koyna is seldom more than 100 feet broad; but in the last forty miles the bed is 300 to 500 feet wide. Especially in the first forty miles the banks are broken and muddy and the bed is of gravel.

To-day however the Koyna has become, probably the most important river in Maharashtra on account of the Hydro-Electricity Project that is being developed near Helvak.

Vasna.

The Vasna, a small left bank feeder of the Krishna, rises in the Mahadeo range near Solshi in the north of Koregaon. It flows south along a valley flanked by the Chandan-Vandan range on the right or west and by the Vardhangad range on the left or east. It runs south for about twenty miles, and from the left, joins the Krishna about a mile east of Mangalpur in Koregaon.

Yerla.

The Yerla, the largest of the left bank or northern feeders of the Krishna, rises in Solaknath hill in the extreme north of Khatav. It flows along a valley flanked by the Vardhangad range on the right or west, and by the Mahimangad range on the left or east. It runs south for about seventy-five miles through Khatav in this district and through Khanapur and Tasgaon. In Khatav it passes by Lalgun, Khatav, Vaduj, and Nimsod. After a south-westerly course of about seventy-five miles the Yerla falls into the Krishna within Sangli limits about six miles south of Bhilavdi. Its bed is sandy, and its banks are sloping, earthy and muddy. The stream holds water throughout the year and crops of sugarcane, groundnut, wheat, potatoes, and onions are raised by *bhudkis* or wells sunk near the banks.

Nira.

Of the Bhima drainage, the two chief Satara representatives are the Nira in the north and the Man in the north-east. The Nira which separates Satara from Poona in the north, rises on the Sahyadri range within the lands of the Bhor taluka of the Poona district. From its sources in Bhor the river runs east to the north of the talukas of Wai and Khandala and Phaltan. After leaving Phaltan, it runs north of Malsiras in Sholapur and falls into the Bhima about five miles east of Tambve in the extreme north-east of Malsiras. The Nira is bridged on the Poona-Kolhapur highway at Shirwal in the

CHAPTER 1.

General.
MAIN PHYSICAL FEATURES.
Rivers.

Khandala taluka. The river has acquired great economic importance on account of the Bhatgar dam (Poona district) and the newly constructed Vir dam, both of which support an extensive net-work of canals for irrigation.

Manganga.

The Manganga, a tributary of the Bhima, rises in the Tita hill in the north-east of Man. Of a total length of about 100 miles, about forty lie in Man within Satara limits. In Man the river runs south-east by Malvadi, Andhli, Dahivadi, and Mhasvad. Beyond Satara limits the Manganga continues to run south-east through Atpadi, and from Atpadi it turns north-east through Sangola and Pandharpur in Sholapur, and falls into the Bhima at Sarkoli about ten miles south-east of Pandharpur. During the rains within the Man sub-division the water of the Manganga runs two to six feet deep. In the fair season it is about two feet deep in some places and almost dry in others. The bed is sandy and the banks highly eroded. In some parts near the river banks crops of sugarcane, groundnut, wheat, sweet potatoes, and onions are raised by *pats* or fair-weather channels.

GEOLOGY*

By far the greater portion of the district is covered by the basaltic and amygdular lavas which have come to the surface and spread over very vast areas of the then Central India configuration of land at the commencement of the Tertiary or Cenozoic Era, nearly 60 to 100 million years ago. These lavas are spread in the form of horizontal sheets or beds. Because of their tendency to form plateaux and their dominantly basic composition, the lava flows are generally called "Plateau basalts." As these basaltic lava flows cover almost the entire Deccan region and frequently present a step-like or terraced feature on the hills, they are termed as "Deccan basalts" or more commonly the "Deccan traps."

The Deccan traps, as mentioned earlier, cover almost the whole of the district and constitute the innumerable rugged and bold, flat-topped hills, forming extensive plateaux of the entire Western *Ghats*. They also constitute the small hill ranges in the eastern and central parts of the district. Besides, lava flows also blanket the plains with a soil covering of varied thickness.

A remarkable feature of the traps is their horizontal disposition and considerable lateral extension over a wide area; sometimes a single flow covering nearly 300-400 square miles or even more. In places it also shows slight dip. The traps attain their maximum thickness near Mahabaleshwar and around Helvak amounting nearly 3000 to 3,500 feet. The individual flows vary greatly in thickness from a few feet to as much as 120 feet although the average thickness is about 40 feet. The hills consist of several lava flows of different thinckness. In a single hill a number of lava flows, sometimes as many as 12 to 15 or even more, are seen resting nearly horizontally one above the other and these can be distinguished from

* This section on Geology was contributed by Shri V. R. Venkoba Rao of the Geological Survey of India, Poona.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
GEOLOGY.

a distance by the flow lines. At places these successive lava beds have thin inter-calations of a red ferruginous clay bed called "red bole." Characteristic vertical, prismatic and columnar jointings are commonly observed in the hard and compact basalts. The traps weather in concentric layers giving rise to a soft, greenish grey, friable *murum* leaving a hard, rounded bouldery core in the centre, known as spheroidal weathering.

Although no sedimentary inter-trappean beds have so far been reported from the district it is likely that such beds will be encountered during future detailed geological investigations. These inter-trappean beds represent the lacustrine or fresh water formations deposited during the interval of time between the outpouring of two successive lava flows and are usually represented by clay or limestone beds and occasionally, sandstones.

Petrologically, the Deccan traps are mainly basalts which are generally uniform in composition and texture. They vary from dark grey to dark greenish grey and brownish to purple in colour, and are hard, compact, tough and medium to fine grained in texture with an average specific gravity of 2·9. This type generally forms the hill and plateau tops. The vesicular and amygdular varieties occupying the lower regions are comparatively soft, like quartz, calcite, varieties of zeolites and amorphous quartz as cavity fillings. Scoreaceous, tuffaceous and breccia beds and volcanic ash are not uncommon among this type of lavas. Porphyritic trap with phenocrysts of felspars is also noticed at places.

The chief mineral constituents of the basalts are labradorite and augite, the two forming the bulk of the rock. Volcanic glass which invariably alters to palagonite, chlorophaeite, etc., and magnetite and titaniferous iron occur in minor proportions. Olivine is present in certain varieties of trap.

Laterite occurs extensively covering almost all the plateaux of the Western *Ghats* and also in the north and central portions of the district. Although laterite is noticed at different elevations there are a few notable exceptions. For instance, north of Helvak the laterite is found at 3,400 feet above sea level while the 4,177 feet high plateau of the Pandavgad fort does not exhibit any laterite formation. Malcolm Peth plateau is no less than 4,710 feet above sea level and is completely capped by laterite.

Laterite rock is ferruginous, hard, massive and generally varies in colour from dark red to yellowish and dark brown to dirty brown. A typical laterite invariably shows a red and yellow mottled appearance exhibiting a vesicular and tubular structure with a dark brown limonitic coating. A freshly cut surface of the laterite bed is usually soft but becomes very hard and tough, on exposure to atmosphere. Most of the laterite beds in the district are categorised as ferruginous laterite or a very low-grade aluminous laterite. These are considered to have been formed by the chemical alteration of the underlying

traps by a process of concentration of iron, alumina and titanium oxides with the leaching out of silica and manganese. At places, as in the Panchgani plateau, the laterite is seen to pass downwards through a zone of lithomarge into an altered trap. The laterite deposits are considered to be sub-recent in geological age.

The laterite covered plateaux which hardly support any vegetation present a very desolate and dreary appearance in the summer months. The slopes or scarps generally support some vegetation. Accumulation of big massive, dislodged masses and blocks of laterite along the slopes and foot of the hills and ridges is a common feature in the *Ghat* section and at other places. The laterite, ultimately yields a red to reddish-brown ferruginous soil.

Kankar is noticed at different localities in the district, especially, in the areas covered by highly decomposed traps. It usually occurs in dry streams and *nala* sections or in the soil mantle covering the traps. Such *kankar* deposits are formed by concentration of the leached out calcareous solutions from the decomposed traps in the form of tabular and rounded nodules, concretions and lumps.

The trappean country is usually characterised by a rich and fertile black soil, generally called as *Regur*. It is highly argillaceous and somewhat calcareous in composition and very fine grained in texture. The soil is highly plastic when wet and develops numerous deep polygonal cracks on drying. At places, the soil is also loamy. A gradual transition from a highly weathered and decomposed, greyish-green, friable *murum* to reddish-brown and black soil is frequently seen in the field

Economic Geology.
Bauxite.

Bauxite, the chief ore of alluminium metal occurs associated with laterite at a few places in the district, e.g. the Yeruli plateau north of Panchgani. The deposits, however, are small. The laterite occurring at (1) the Plateau north of Krishna river west of Wai; (2) the ridges to the south of the Krishna river west of Wai; (3) the strip of land along the scarp from Mahabaleshwar to Helvak west of the Koyna river; (4) the group of spurs and flat-topped hills between the Koyna and Vena rivers from Mahabaleshwar to Patan; and (5) the plateau extending from the Koyna Valley below Helvak upto the boundary of the Kolhapur district may on detailed prospecting yield deposits of bauxite.

The ranges north of the Krishna comprise three main plateaux namely Haireshwar, Koleshwar and the Yeruli of which the last named plateau has yielded some deposits of bauxite. The samples from the eastern-most capping of laterite towards the north-east of the ridge on analysis gave Al_2O_3 varying between 46·32 and 57·48 per cent. with Fe_2O_3 and SiO_2 ranging from 4·61 to 19·36 and 1·10 to 2·63 per cent, respectively. The SO_2 and P_2O_5 contents, were low. The deposits, however, are not very large.

The other ridge that is konwn to contain aluminous laterite is the Mahabaleshwar-Panchgani ridge. This is divisible into three sections,

CHAPTER 1.
General.
GEOLOGY.

namely the Malcolm Peth, Bhilar and the Panchgani plateau. A sample from the Malcolm Peth section analysed $SiO_2 : 7{\cdot}2$, $TiO_2 : 4{\cdot}2$, $Al_2O_3 : 50{\cdot}46$, $Fe_2O_3 : 23{\cdot}41$ and $H_2O : 24{\cdot}99$ per cent. but the deposit is not large.

Most of the laterite capped hills in the district have not been examined in detail and it is likely that detailed prospecting may yield workable deposits of bauxite in the district.

Building Materials.

Fine to medium grained, hard and compact massive traps are quite durable as building stones and are considered most suitable for construction works. The Deccan trap is also widely used as railway ballast and as an aggregate for concrete mixtures for which purposes it is best suited. These almost inexhaustible amount of traps suitable for the above purposes are available especially in the numerous hills and ridges of the district.

Zeolites and calcite derived from cavities in the weathered amygdular lava flows are hand-picked and powdered for use as *Rangoli* in decorating the houses and their precincts.

Limestone.

A small deposit of limestone has been recorded in the district in a small hillock near Wakhi village, five miles south-west of Phaltan. It occurs as a lenticular body resting on Deccan trap. The rock is massive and pinkish grey in colour with small pockets of earthy material as inclusions. The reserves are of an order of about 50,000 tons. The material is being profitably used for the manufacture of lime. Sporadic occurrences of dull to greyish-white, nodular *kankar* deposits found at a number of places in the district are locally used for the manufacture of lime for use in constructional purposes.

Manganese-Ore.

Manganese-ore occurs in the district as concretionary noduless in the lateritic country. These concretions are formed by the chemical alteration and decomposition of the traps by which the silica and manganese contents are leached out and subsequently concentrated as concretions and nodules. The remaining constituents of trap, namely, iron, aluminium and titanium oxides together form the laterites of the area.

Small and minor concentrations of manganese-ore are found in association with laterite fragments in a number of localities near Mahabaleshwar and in the vicinity of Savitri Pass, Lingmala, Chikhli, Met-Gutad, Awnkali, Bhekawli, Shindole and Takwali. The ore in all these places is of secondary origin and residual in nature and generally of low grade for any economic exploitation.

CLIMATE.*
Seasons.

The climate of this district is on the whole agreeable. The year may be divided broadly into four seasons. The cold season is from December to about the middle of February. The hot season, which follows lasts till the end of May. June to September is the south-west monsoon season and the two months October and November form the post-monsoon or the retreating monsoon season.

* This section on 'Climate' was contributed by the Meteorological Department of the Government of India, Poona.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Rainfall.

The district has a good network of 15 rainguage stations for most of which records are available for more than 80 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district excluding the hilly portions along the western border are given in the tables No. 2 and 3. The rainfall in the belt roughly 15 to 20 miles wide, parallel to the crests of the Sahyadrian Range, is considerably higher than in the rest of the district. While Mahableshwar at an elevation of 1,372 metres (4,500 ft.) gets an average annual rainfall of 6,226 mm. (245·13") other stations in this belt get annual rainfall ranging between 1,723 and 1865 mm. (67·85" and 73·43"). The rainfall generally decreases first rapidly and then gradually from the Western Ghats towards the eastern boundary of the district. Some rainfall in the form of thundershowers occurs in May, but the main rainy season is from June to September. The rainfall in the south-west monsoon months is about 71 per cent. of the annual total. July is the month with the heaviest rainfall. About 18 per cent. of the annual rainfall is received in the post-monsoon months of October and November. The annual rainfall at individual stations shows considerable variations from year to year. It will be seen from table No. 2 that at some stations the rainfall has been as much as double the normal in some years while in some others rainfall has been less than half the normal. Considering the district as a whole excluding the narrow strip along the western border which generally gets heavier rainfall, the variations in the annual rainfall have been large. In the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the annual rainfall was the highest in 1932 and amounted to 150 per cent. of the normal. The year 1918 with the annual rainfall of 52 per cent. of the normal was the year with the lowest rainfall. In the same fifty-year period the annual rainfall was less than 80 per cent. of the normal in ten years. There were three occasions when two or three consecutive years had low rainfall. It will be seen from table No. 3 that in 34 years out of fifty, the rainfall in the district excluding the strip along the western boundary was between 500 and 800 mm. (19·69" and 31·50").

On an average there are 43 rainy days (i.e. days with rainfall of 2·5 mm.—10 cents or more) in the district excluding the western hilly region. As in the case of the amount of rainfall, the number of rainy days are highest in the *Ghat* region and least in the eastern border region. While Mahabaleshwar on the western *ghats* has on an average 119 rainy days in a year, Mhaswad near the eastern border has only 30 rainy days in a year.

At Mahabaleshwar the highest rainfall in 24 hours ever recorded was 158·5 mm. (18·05") on June 3, 1882 and July 30, 1896. In the plains of the district, the highest rainfall in 24 hours at any station was 206·5 mm. (8·13") at Mhaswad on September 17, 1902.

Temperature.

The only meteorological observatory in the district is at Mahabaleshwar, for which meteorological records are available for a number of years. The meteorological conditions at this station represent only those on the Western Ghats. However, some meteorological data are available for Panchgani and Satara for about five years.

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

Temperature.

The data for the latter station may well be taken as representative of the conditions over the plains of the district. The cold weather starts by about the end of November and continues to about the middle of February, December being the coldest month. In this season the mean daily maximum temperature in the plains is 28·4°C (83·1°F) while the mean daily minimum temperature is 14·4°C (57·9°F). At Mahabaleshwar the mean daily maximum temperature in December is only 23·1°C (73·6°F) and the mean daily minimum is 13·8°C (56·9°F). The period from the middle of February to the end of May is one of continuous increase in temperatures. The rise in temperatures is more marked in the plains than on the hills. In May, the hottest month in the year, the mean daily maximum temperature in the plains is 36·8°C (98·3°F). The heat is sometimes relieved by afternoon thunder-showers. The onset of the south-west monsoon in the first or second week of June brings down the day temperatures appreciably. The day temperatures in the south-west monsoon months are even lower than in the cold season. After the withdrawal of the south-west monsoon, day temperatures show an increase in October. Thereafter, both day and night temperatures begin to drop. Except during the south-west monsoon season the daily range of temperature is large and is about 8 to 11°C at Mahabaleshwar and 12 to 15°C at Satara.

At Mahabaleshwar the highest maximum temperature ever recorded was 36·1° C (97 0° F) on April 3, 1934 and the lowest minimum was 3·9° C (39·0° F) on February 1, 1942. As the data for the station in the plains (Satara) is available only for a short period extreme values of the temperature have not been given.

Humidity.

In the south-west monsoon months the air is highly humid but in the summer and the cold seasons the air is dry particularly in the afternoons. In the plains, the dryness is more marked than in the hills.

Cloudiness.

During the south-west monsoon season skies are heavily clouded to overcast being markedly so on the hills. After the withdrawal of the monsoon cloudiness rapidly decreases and skies are clear or lightly clouded in the winter and the summer months. Clear skies are most common in March and April.

Winds.

Winds are strong particularly on the hills in the south-west monsoon season. In the rest of the year they are light to moderate. South-westerly or westerly winds prevail in the south-west monsoon months. In the post monsoon months, they are predominently north-easterly or easterly, but in the afternoons northerly winds blow on some days. During the cold season, winds are from directions between north-east and south-east in the mornings and between south-west and north-west in the afternoons. Northerly or north-easterly winds are common in the mornings during the hot season, while in the afternoons winds are mainly north-westerly and sometimes westerly.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
CLIMATE.
Special Weather Phenomena.

Thunderstorms occur in the hot season and in the post-monsoon months. The rainfall in the south-west monsoon months is also sometimes accompanied with thunder. The hills are generally covered with clouds during the south-west monsoon season. Fogs occur occasionally in the valleys in the cold season.

Tables No. 4, 5 and 6 give the temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of weather phenomena, respectively, for Mahabaleshwar. The temperature and humidity data of Panchgani and Satara are given in tables 4 (*a*) and 4 (*b*), respectively, while the mean wind speeds at the two sations are given in tables 5 (*a*) and 5 (*b*).

No earthquakes and tremors were recorded in Satara district during the last 75 years.

TABLE No. 2.

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF RAINFALL IN SATARA DISTRICT, DURING 1901-1950.

Station		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.
Satara	(a)	3·1	1·3	3·3	18·3	34·8	134·4	370·3	196·9	125·0
	(b)	0·3	0·1	0·4	1·6	2·4	9·5	19·9	15·7	7·8
Koregaon	(a)	4·1	1·3	4·6	16·8	37·6	98·3	198·6	108·2	122·2
	(b)	0·2	0·1	0·4	1·4	2·4	7·5	14·7	10·1	7·3
Wai	(a)	2·5	1·0	3·6	15·5	27·7	112·5	209·3	105·2	114·5
	(b)	0·2	0·1	0·4	1·3	2·2	7·3	14·1	8·7	6·6
Karad	(a)	4·3	1·0	5·3	16·5	41·1	96·3	195·8	117·3	99·1
	(b)	0·3	0·1	0·4	1·3	2·8	6·8	14·4	11·4	6·9
Dahiwadi	(a)	5·8	0·8	3·1	15·7	30·5	70·6	54·1	46·2	122·9
	(b)	0·4	0·1	0·3	1·3	2·2	5·6	4·8	3·6	7·0
Mhaswad	(a)	5·8	0·5	4·1	15·7	25·1	73·1	46·5	45·2	135·1
	(b)	0·4	0·1	0·4	1·0	2·0	5·0	3·7	3·5	6·8
Vaduj	(a)	6·1	1·0	4·6	14·0	30·5	85·9	74·9	55·1	128·3
	(b)	0·5	0·2	0·3	1·1	2·2	5·7	7·4	4·6	7·1
Pusesavli	(a)	5·6	1·3	4·3	17·5	38·9	84·8	147·8	86·4	122·7
	(b)	0·4	0·2	0·4	1·5	3·0	6·6	11·6	8·4	7·4

(a) Normal rainfall in mm (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

CHAPTER 1.

General.

CLIMATE.

TABLE No. 2—*contd*

Station.		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July	August.	September.
Khandala ..	(*a*) ..	6·3	0·8	2·8	12·2	25·4	78·7	106·4	59·4	103·1
	(*b*) ..	0·4	0·1	0·3	1·1	1·8	5·7	7·7	4·9	5·5
Phaltan ..	(*a*) ..	5·3	1·5	3·6	9·7	24·6	87·9	51·3	50·3	127·0
	(*b*) ..	0·3	0·2	0·4	0·9	1·5	5·5	4·7	3·9	7·3
Aundh ..	(*a*) ..	8·1	0·3	6·1	18·8	36·6	77·5	169·9	72·9	128·8
	(*b*) ..	0·4	0·1	0·4	0·8	2·1	5·9	12·5	8·5	8·1
Satara (District) ..	(*a*) ..	5·2	1·0	4·1	15·5	32·1	90·9	147·7	85·7	120·8
	(*b*) ..	0·3	0·1	0·4	1·2	2·3	6·5	10·5	7·6	7·1
Mahabaleshwar * ..	(*a*) ..	4·6	2·8	4·6	25·1	47·0	939·8	2,546·1	1,764·3	685·8
	(*b*) ..	0·3	0·2	0·4	1·5	2·7	21·2	30·0	29·6	22·3
Panchgani * ...	(*a*) ..	4·1	1·3	4·8	25·9	43·9	261·1	697·2	404·1	221·5
	(*b*) ..	0·2	0·1	0·5	1·8	2·9	12·4	24·6	22·6	12·7
Medha * ..	(*a*) ..	3·6	1·3	3·8	24·9	35·5	260·6	724·1	373·4	158·7
	(*b*) ..	0·2	[illegible]	0·4	1·6	2·7	11·2	23·6	19·5	9·9
Patan * ..	(*a*) ..	2·5	1·0	5·1	17·8	34·3	251·2	813·8	417·8	155·2
	(*b*) ..	0·2	0·1	0·4	1·3	2·3	11·9	24·2	20·5	9·8

(*a*) Normal rainfall in mm. (*b*) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2·5 mm. or more).
* These stations are in the hilly portions of the district.

CHAPTER I.
—
General.
CLIMATE.

TABLE No. 2—contd.

Station.		October.	November.	December.	Annual.	Highest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year**	Lowest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year.**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
								Amount (mm).	Date.
Satara	(a)	81·5	49·3	6·9	1,025·1	177	43	184·1	1914 August 5.
	(b)	5·4	2·6	0·5	66·2	(1946)	(1918)		
Koregaon	(a)	73·9	36·6	4·1	706·3	165	47	133·9	1914, August 5.
	(b)	4·8	2·0	0·5	51·4	(1932)	(1918)		
Wai	(a)	75·2	38·6	4·8	710·4	161	49	160·3	1943, July 10
	(b)	5·3	2·4	0·5	49·1	(1933)	(1918)		
Karad	(a)	90·7	39·9	5·8	713·1	159	44	162·8	1882, June 4.
	(b)	5·5	2·0	0·3	52·2	(1933)	(1918)		
Dahiwadi	(a)	67·8	37·3	8·1	462·9	181	41	167·6	1935, August 28.
	(b)	4·3	2·1	0·5	32·2	(1916)	(1923)		
Mhaswad	(a)	76·5	36·3	8·6	472·5	196	40	206·5	1902, September 17.
	(b)	4·4	2·1	0·4	29·8	(1916)	(1945)		
Vaduj	(a)	70·9	31·5	9·4	512·2	181	47	169·7	1889, October 17.
	(b)	4·6	1·9	0·6	36·2	(1916)	(1945)		
Pusesavli	(a)	84·3	36·6	5·8	636·0	154	55	170·2	1889, October 17.
	(b)	5·2	2·2	0·4	47·3	(1983)	(1945)		

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. (b) Average of rainy days (days with rain of 2·5 mm. or more). *Based on all available data upto 1957.
**Years given in brackets.

TABLE No. 2—*concld.*

Station.		October.	November.	December.	Annual.	Highest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year.**	Lowest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year.**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours*	
								Amount (mm).	Date.
Khandala	(*a*)	69·3	34·3	5·1	503·8	204	43	153·7	1922, November 7.
	(*b*)	4·3	2·0	0·5	34·3	(1944)	(1904)		
Phaltan	(*a*)	65·8	36·3	9·7	473·0	167	45		
	(*b*)	4·3	1·9	0·7	32·0	(1932)	(1918)	143·5	1895, September 7.
Aundh	(*a*)	95·0	52·1	4·3	670·4	163	53	120·7	1946, July 28
	(*b*)	4·7	1·9	0·3	45·7	(1946)	(1945)		
Satara (District)	(*a*)	77·4	39·0	[illegible]	626·0	150	52	....	....
	(*b*)	4·8	2 1	0·5	43·4	(1932)	(1918)		
Mahabaleshwar	(*a*)	154·4	46·5	5·3	6,226·3	136	59	458·5	1896, July 30.
	(*b*)	7·4	2·6	0·5	118·7	(1914)	(1918)		
Panchgani	(*a*)	126·7	66·0	8·4	1 865·0	190	37	248·2	1889, May 31.
	(*b*)	6·9	2·7	0·6	88·0	(1946)	(1918)		
Medha	(*a*)	85·6	46 2	5·6	1,723·4	158	48	233·7	1894, July 21.
	(*b*)	5·5	2·3	0·4	77·4	(1946)	(1918)		
Patan	(*a*)	95·3	32·3	5·3	1,831·6	159	45	297·2	1943, July 11.
	(*b*)	5·9	2·1	0·4	79·1	(1946)	(1918)		

(a) Normal rainfall.
(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2·5 mm. or more).
*Based on all available data upto 1957.
**Years given in brackets.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
CLIMATE.

TABLE No. 3.

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE SATARA DISTRICT, (EXCLUDING THE HILLY REGIONS).

(DATA 1901-1950).

Range in mm.	Number of years.	Range in mm.	Number of years.
301—400 ..	3	701—800 ..	11
401—500 ..	7	801—900 ..	5
501—600 .	12	901—1000 .	1
601—700 ..	11		

TABLE No. 4

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY IN SATARA DISTRICT.

(MAHABALESHWAR).

Month.		Mean Daily Maximum Temperature.	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature.	Highest Maximum ever recorded.			Lowest Minimum ever recorded.			Relative Humidity	
										0830	1730*
		°C	°C	°C	Date.		°C	Date.		Percent.	Percent.
January	..	23·6	13·7	28·9	1938, January 30		6.1	1945, January 6	..	54	52
February	.	25·6	14·6	31·1	1953, February 28	..	3.9	1942, February 1	..	46	41
March	..	28·6	17·4	33·9	1953, March 24	..	9.4	1940, March 20	..	36	42
April	..	29·9	18·9	36·1	1934, April 3	..	11.1	1955, April 15	..	37	53
May	..	28·8	18·2	34·4	1957, May 19	..	13.9	1955, May 4	..	55	65
June	..	21·6	17·0	32·2	1953, June 5	..	12.8	1943 June 5	..	95	96
July	..	18·7	16·8	23·9	1951 July 17	..	13.9	1957, July 6	..	98	100
August	..	18·8	16·4	26·7	1950, August 25	..	13.9	1957, August 30	..	97	100
September	..	19·9	15·8	27·8	1951. September 26	..	12.2	1935, September 27	..	96	98
October	..	24·0	16·3	30·6	1957, October 9	..	11.1	1931, October 26	..	75	75
November	.	23·8	15·1	28·9	1950 November 6	..	10.0	1955. November 10	..	65	60
December	..	23·1	13·8	29·3	1953, December 2	..	8.3	1940, December 23	..	55	51
Annual	..	23·0	16·2							67	69

*Hours I.S.T.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
CLIMATE

TABLE No. 5

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR.

(MAHABALESHWAR).

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
7·4	7·9	9·3	10·8	11·4	14·5	19·8	16·6	11·4	10·1	10·5	9·7	11·6

TABLE No. 6

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA, SHOWING MEAN NUMBER OF DAYS.

(MAHABALESHWAR).

Mean Number of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	Jun.	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
Thunder ..	0·2	0·1	0·6	2·0	3·0	0·7	0·0	0·0	2·1	4·0	1·1	0·5	14·3
Hail ..	0	0	0	0	0·1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0·1
Dust-Storm	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Squall ..	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fog ..	0·4	0·5	0·5	1·3	2·8	26·0	31·0	29·8	24·8	8·4	2·8	0·0	128·3

TABLE No. 4 (*a*).

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY.

(PANCHGANI).

Month.		Mean Daily Maximum Temperature.	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature.	Relative Humidity.	
				0830 IST	1700 IST
		°C	°C	%	%
January	..	23·9	14·2	51	42
February	..	25·1	15·3	41	41
March	..	28·9	18·5	31	33
April	..	31·2	20·6	36	44
May	..	31·3	20·1	47	53
June	..	24·2	17·2	86	83
July	..	20·7	17·1	96	94
August	..	20·8	16·4	96	96
September	..	21·3	16·4	93	92
October	..	24·7	17·3	74	70
November	..	23·2	14·7	61	59
December	..	23·1	13·9	54	52
Annual	..	24·9	16·8	64	63

TABLE No. 5 (*a*).

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR.

(PANCHGANI).

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
10 5	9·3	8 5	10 9	10 8	17·4

July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
24 6	20 3	15·8	11 9	12·2	12·1	13 7

TABLE No. 4 (*b*).

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY.

(SATARA).

Month.		Mean Daily Maximum Temperature.	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature.	Relative Humidity.	
				0830	1700*
		oC	oC	%	%
January	..	29·5	13·9	57	25
February	..	30·8	15·8	47	21
March	..	34·6	19·2	31	17
April	.	36·3	21·7	34	28
May	..	36·8	22·8	39	36
June	..	29·9	21·8	72	66
July	..	25·4	21·1	82	79
August	..	25·7	20·5	82	77
September	..	27·2	20·1	79	72
October	..	30·2	19·7	68	51
November	..	28·6	16·7	64	37
December	..	28·4	14·4	58	11
Annual	..	30·3	19·0	59	45

* Hours I. S. T.

TABLE No. 5 (*b*)

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR.

(SATARA).

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr	May.	June.
2·3	3·1	3·9	5·3	6·4	8·2

July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
9·2	7·2	4·7	1·9	1·6	1·6	4·6

CHAPTER 1.

General, GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.

Sahyadris.

The physical setting of Satara shows a contrast of immense dimensions and reveals a variety of landscapes influenced by relief, climate, vegetation and economic use by man. The variation in relief ranges from the pinnacles and high plateaus of the main Sahyadrian range having height over 4,500 ft. above sea level to the subdued basin of the Nira river in Phaltan Sub-division with an average height of about 1,700 ft. above sea level. The climate ranges from the rainiest in the Mahabaleshwar region which on an average records well over 250 inches per year to the driest in the Man Taluka where the average annual rainfall is about 20 inches. The vegetal cover too varies from the typical monsoon forests in the western parts to scrub and poor grass in the eastern part. Rice economy dominates the western belt while Jowar and Bajri are the principal crops in the east where famines and scarcities have been frequent in the past. Rugged topography of the hills crowned by historic Maratha forts and well-tilled valleys with villages adhering to their higher slopes is a recurrent theme in the Satara landscape. But even then, regionally, there is considerable local variation.

The Sahyadris: (*a*) *The crestline and the high plateaus*.—For the major part the western boundary of the district coincides with the water-shed of the Sahyadris. Here, on the Konkan side the scarp is steep and forbidding in appearance, but on the east the land-scape is mature and mellow. The crestline proper is a succession of high plateaus interrupted by occasional rounded peaks and connected by low saddles. On the north the Raireshwar Plateau dominates the source region of the Krishna river. On the south lies the extensive Mahabaleshwar Plateau capped with several rounded peaks and deeply furrowed by the Savitri in the extreme north and by the Koyna and other tributaries of the Krishna, on the west, south and east. The steeper rock surfaces are void of any vegetation. The narrow ledges of trap layers, however, support luxurious vegetation of monsoonal type which from a distance appears as green bands of vegetal cover against the dark rampart of the main scarp. Vegetation changes to a temperate form in the high plateau of Mahabaleshwar and has many exotic species planted during the period when it was developed as a hill station. Mahabaleshwar has all the facets of a typical hill station with Malcolmpeth as its commercial nucleus. There are extensively developed roads and footpaths, to reach the several points of scenic beauty, and widely spaced bungalows and places for amenities of social life during the season. The old Mahabaleshwar, with the traditional and sacred source of the Krishna river nearby, is situated a little away to the north. To the east across the deep Koyna valley stands the historic fort of Pratapgad where the recently installed equestrian statue of the Shiva Chhatrapati can be seen standing boldly against the skyline. The hill station is swarmed with life during summer and for a short spell during the period of October heat. For the rest of the year heavy rains and mists deny access to the average visitors. But not so with the little satellite town of Panchgani (population 4,538) situated about 12 miles away to the east. Here

CHAPTER 1.
General.
GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.
Sahyadris.

the salubrious climate of a hill station is available though not with that sharpness as in Mahabaleshwar. But rainfall is distinctly low (about 50″ on an average) and that enables the place to have an almost all the year round activity. With several public schools and a population of retired people, Panchgani lives a steady though frugal life. To the south-west of the Mahabaleshwar plateau across the Koyna valley Makrandgad (4,054 ft.) stands prominently on the crest-line. South of this fort the main line continues its sharp form as a water divide, with many peaks of which Jangli Jaygad and Bhairavgad are more important, and sends several offshoots eastwards and thereby separating the small tributary river valleys of the Koyna. In form, the trap rock provides many interesting examples of "Valley-in-the-valley" which has an interesting impact on the land use and human habitation in this region. The top-most plateau surfaces have open forests and scrub the slopes immediately below a dense monsoonal cover, the "Shoulders" of the valleys are plateau surfaces at intermediate levels and these again support only scrub and grass, while the valley floors are rich-cultivated belts on both sides of which hamlets cling to the slightly elevated ground. These valleys allow some access to communications by means of cart tracks and footpaths, and of these the Fitzgerald pass connecting Mahabaleshwar with Mahad in Konkan and the Kumbharli pass connecting Karad with Chiplun *via* Patan are more important.

(*b*) *The Koyna Valley*.—Of the several tributaries of the Krishna river, the Koyna has acquired a new importance and meaning due to the Hydro-electrical development that is taking place near Helvak. The valley from the source waters to this place is almost longitudinal, possibly occupying a geological fracture, and is deep and narrow. Its limited width and the high plateau shoulders afford a most suitable setting for impounding its waters near Helvak and utilising them for generating electricity near Pophali below the ghats. The power generated is calculated to give a generous supply to the new industrial areas of Maharashtra as well as to the old centres like Bombay and Poona through an all over grid system. Below Helvak, the Koyna swings its course due east and on receiving the water of Kara from the north and Morna and Vang from the south, joins the Krishna at the sacred confluence on which is situated the growing town of Karad. Patan (population 3,630) is a route centre in the valley and local market town with a bright future both due to its location and the new power supply.

The main Sahyadris and the adjoining steep valleys thus present a landscape of scenic beauty and human significance. Its forts are a reminder of its glorious past, with its hamlets and cultivation created by the sturdy Maratha race having a fighting tradition, its ghat routes facilitating the much desired contact between the Desh and the Konkan, and the Koyna Hydel scheme reflecting the people's ambitions of the future.

The Krishna Basin.—Sanctity is writ large on the landscape of the Krishna Basin. Almost every important village situated on the bank of the river has temples and bathing ghats. Below its traditional

CHAPTER 1.

General.
GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.
Krishna Basin.

source near old Mahabaleshwar, Wai (population 16,099) is the first place of religious importance. Originally situated on the left bank of the river, Wai has grown into a larger township as the headquarters of the taluka and a route centre for the upper Krishna valley and the Mahabaleshwar-Panchgani hill stations. The town has thrown its urban arm across the river and has a good development along the Poona-Mahabaleshwar road. Educational institutions within the town and good vegetable gardening in the environs add to its urban importance and to its growth.

Below Wai, the valley widens out, and on the right bank, is joined by the leading tributaries Kudali, Vena, Urmodi and Tarli. The valley floors are well-cultivated and well-populated, the streams draining in the valleys have carved out small amphitheatres into the sides of the intermediate ridges. The sides of these ridges are generally bare but carry poor grass and scrub, and are usually given to grazing, and some of the tops carry the ancient fortified sites like Vairatgad. Each of these valleys is connected by good roads to the Poona-Kolhapur highway running along the main Krishna valley and every valley has one or two local market centres like Kudal and Humgaon in the Kudali valley and Medha in the Vena valley. The Medha Ghat route to Mahabaleshwar also passes through the Vena valley. The historic town of Satara (population 41,070) is situated in the Vena valley nestling below the Ajimtara Fort. The old city occupies an amphitheatre of a tributary stream. The old cantonment area spreads out eastwards to healthier open lands, and the intermediate belt is getting filled up by new urban development. Satara ever since the days of the early Chhatrapati rulers has had a changing fortune. Chosen as a capital in the early period of the Maratha rule, it lost its importance to Poona; after the annexation of the State to the Bombay Presidency, it prospered for some time as a cantonment station, but declined when the British troops were shifted from there. It now retains its urban importance as the headquarters of the district and is gradually making progress through educational institutions, banking and small industry.

South of the Ajimtara range lies the Urmodi valley well-cultivated and peopled. The Sajjangad fort is a place of devotional significance The source waters of the Tarli river begin in a deeply entrenched valley. But its lower reaches take the common pattern of the Krishna tributaries. At the confluence of Tarli and Krishna is situated Umbraj (population 4,507) which acts as a local route and commercial centre. Just below Umbraj, the small tributary of Mand joins Krishna in the valley of which is situated Chaphal having associations with Swami Ramdas.

From the left flank, the Krishna has two main tributary basins, the Chandrabhaga and the Vasna. The Chandrabhaga draining the valley between the Dhamni hills and the Chandan-Vandan range supports a variety of crops and garden products. The villages are large and prosperous. The Poona-Kolhapur route leaves the main Krishna valley and passes through this valley to cross the Khambatki

CHAPTER 1.
General.
GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.
Krishna Basin.

ghat via Bhuinj, Surul and Vela. The first two are local market towns and Vela a halting place for carts and heavy trucks negotiating the ghat. The Vasna lying further to the east and draining the land enclosed by the Chandan-Vandan range and the main Mahadeo Range with its southern off-shoots is a much larger valley, but it wears a drier appearance due to the lower annual rainfall. The transition from the wetter western parts to these is sudden and is reflected in almost every aspect of natural and human setting. Water courses are seasonal. Drier crops like Jowar and Bajri gain more space in land use. Villages are medium-sized but nucleated. These geographical characteristics persist in the tributary valleys of Vasna and Tilganga. Only the immediate flanks of the water courses are agriculturally important, but the lines of communications are acquiring now-a-days a much greater importance due to their influence on commerce and industry. It is through this valley end and the Adarki gaps in the Mahadeo range that the Poona-Bangalore railway crosses the region. The old Poona-Tasgaon road follows almost the same route. In the north, Wathar is a route centre. Satara Road (population 6,447), owed its earlier importance as a station to reach the Satara town but it has now developed an industrial bias. Koregaon (population 7,230) is a growing commercial centre.

Below Wai the main river valley of Krishna develops a fertile ribbon, well-cultivated and densely populated. In fact this is the richest tract in the district, and the sacred waters of the rivers find their religious expression in the temples and ghats at Nimb and Sangam Mahuli. Below the confluence of the Krishna and Vasna, the main Krishna valley is closed by a succession of spurs approaching the river almost at right angles. The valley proper is deeply entrenched and meanders, old river terraces, and intense gully erosion introduce considerable local variation in landscape and land use. The large-sized and populated villages are perched on high banks and older high level terraces. The Satara-Rahimatpur road crosses the stream near Dhamner. Rahimatpur (Population 8,055) is a commercial centre. Downstream below Tasgaon, the river is further closed in by the Chaphal and Vasantgad hills on the right and the high spurs of the Vardhangad range on the left. The Poona-Bangalore railway passes through this narrow reach skirting along the base of these spurs avoiding the highly eroded left flank of the river and the high level areas of the spurs. Masur (population 5,814) is a commercial centre, but Karad station is a flourishing township drawing its advantage from the industrial Ogalewadi and the growing town of Karad itself. The town of Karad (population 25,721) practically marks the terminal end of the Krishna valley in Satara District, although the administrative boundary runs about 15 miles south of this town. Situated at the confluence of the Krishna and Koyna, Karad is a place of great antiquity. It was an important commercial centre in the Hindu and Muslim periods connecting the eastern Deccan with the Konkan through Kumbharli pass. During the British rule. its commercial activity was further

strengthened by the improved communications, by its being a taluka headquarters and by the industrial growth of Ogalewadi. The high level bridge across the Krishna river connecting the town with the railway station meant further impetus, and as the gateway to the Koyna-Hydel Project, it has recorded during recent years a considerable all round growth in commerce, education and industry. With the development of the Koyna electricity, Karad well promises to establish a healthy rivalry with Sangli and Kolhapur in the south and Poona in the north.

The Eastern Ranges.—The Mahadeo range branches off from the main Sahyadris in the region of Raireshwar plateau, with major peaks and plateau tops having a height over 4,000 feet. East of the Eruli plateau the range bifurcates with one ridge trending northwards to the Nira river near Bhor; the main Mahadeo range continue eastwards with a lower general level at about 3,000 ft. The Khambatki pass allows the Poona-Kolhapur road to cross the range. East of this pass the range assumes a general south-eastern trend and develops very interesting relief forms. First of all, the range is essentially a plateau presenting a highly eroded appearance on the northern flank and well moulded residual topography on the southern. The rainfall in this region averages about 25" per year, but it is intensely seasonal and very dry conditions prevail during the rest of the year. Accordingly, the northern plateau face oriented towards the Nira valley suffers intense erosion from the monsoonal flooded courses and the area presents a highly uneven topography with fantastic local forms. This can be well seen from the railway line passing through the Adarki gap This and other gaps in the Mahadeo scarp originate in the heavy headward erosion of the streams which have 'eaten' their way well into the plateau surface. Rounded peaks, trap benches skirting all round such peaks, detached knolls and terraced stream courses are common in this area. The region has a vegetation cover of a course kind, and cultivation is limited to only a few and favoured patches along the stream beds. Communication is difficult due to the highly uneven and infertile surface. It is a thinly populated area with people living in small and fragmented hamlets and ekking out their existence on poor agriculture and sheep grazing.

This highly eroded Mahadeo scarp continues eastwards through Awalpathar-Palwan plateaus and Shikhar Shingnapur, and after a stretch continues south-eastwards to provide the district boundary between Satara and Sholapur. Santoshgad (Tathavada) and Varugad are detached knolls. The scarp is crossed by some routes of which the one via Shingnapur and the other connecting Mhaswad and Malsiras (in Sholapur district) are more frequented.

On the southern flank the Mahadeo range being a part of the higher plateau elevation presents a more subdued appearance. The relative heights are lower and the variation in relief appears in the form of low residual ranges and detached hills. Such is the landscape of the Chandan-Vandan, Vardhangad, and Mahiman-

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.

Eastern Ranges.

gad ranges. The Chandan-Vandan being in a wetter tract supports some green landscape, but the other two present a dry and bare appearance. The Vardhangad range extends southwards with a height varying between 3,000 ft. to 2,500 ft. and develops many transverse ridges east and west. The Mahimangad range is its eastern counterpart. The tops occasionally crowned by ancient fort walls and temples, dark and bare scarp faces, poor scrub and grass on terraces and at foot hills and occasional stony wastes, form the typical landscape of these dry hill ranges of the Satara district. Apart from sheep grazing and footpaths linking the fragmented hamlets they hold little that is of economic importance.

The Yerla Valley.—The Vardhangad and Mahimangad ranges enclose between them the fairly wide Yerla valley which drains the land of the district to the Krishna, but the confluence lies in the Sangli district. The Yerla has an intensive monsoonal regime and the nearby semi-arid conditions of climate cause heavy gully erosion. On either side deeply entrenched stream courses notched in the receding trap platforms and meandering courses are a common feature of the landscape. Vegetation consists of scrub and grasses and the cultivation though fairly extensive in area has a poor yield and is confined to crops like Bajri and Jowar. The upper portions of the valley carry a less dense population with people settled in small and detached hamlets. Khatav (population 5,530) and Vaduj (population 6,838), are local markets with Vaduj serving as a nodal centre for routes across the valley. Aundh (population 4,652), the headquarters of a former princely State is situated at the head of the tributary Nandi valley and is enclosed on the north by an arc of residual hills. South of Aundh and Goregaon the Yerla valley opens out to develop a gentler and rolling topography and receives the Chand tributary from the east. Bhushangad stands as an isolated but prominent knoll. Cultivation improves and the population is denser. Pusesavli and Mayni are route centres and local market towns. Mayni is situated on the Umbraj-Pandharpur road which crosses the Mahimangad range through the Tarashkhund ghat; it has also a large tank which affords some local irrigation.

The Man Valley.—Situated between the Mahimangad range and the main Mahadeo range, the Man valley has relief forms similar to those of the Yerla, but the landscape is drier, stonier and more forbidding, especially along the base of the hill range. The source waters of the Man river are gathered from several streams highly entrenched in the plateau surface. Extensive terracing along the courses is quite common. Jhir, Pather Bhojling hill, Tembi hill and Masari hill about four miles east of Dahiwadi, are remnant features of the old Mahimangad plateau level, but now detached by erosion. The vegetation is scrub and poor grass, and cultivation typically of *jirayat* type with great incidence of scarcity.

Canals developed from the Dahiwadi and Mhaswad tanks are designed as protection measures. Dahiwadi (population 4,057) and Mhaswad (population 9,145), are local route centres and market

CHAPTER 1.

General.

GEOGRAPHICAL ASPECTS.

Man Valley.

towns. On the whole, the Man valley is economically a backward and thinly populated region. To the south-west it has the eroded scarp face of the Mahimangad range and northwards the plateau edge, with occasional heights, drops into the lower much eroded 'badland' topography of the Sangola region in the Sholapur district

The Nira Basin.—The northern strip of the district with a varying width between 10 to 15 miles has an orientation to the Nira river which for a good length serves as the district boundary. The Nira valley, as a whole, drains a plateau surface that is at a much lower level than the upper Krishna plateau in the south. This means erosive forces are more rapidly at work in this basin than in the south. This largely explains the formation of the steep northern scarp of the Mahadeo hill range. From this range the level to the Nira river is reached in a succession of steps each becoming broader at the lower level. This is particularly seen in the western portion of the basin between the Endi-Bhor range and the railway line between Adarki and Nira stations. Valleys are deeply entrenched and their floors offer strips of cultivation. Inspite of its having a more western situation nearer the Sahyadrian main range, this belt has a low and erratic rainfall, with the result that irregular features carry scrub, and level surfaces some grass which supports grazing. Population settlements are small-sized and generally follow the valley courses. Only with the approaches of the main Nira river cultivation improves and larger villages decorate the landscape. Khandala is situated at the foot-hill of the Khambatki pass and Shirwal, a centre for Bhor-Phaltan valley route and the Poona-Kolhapur road.

East of the Poona-Bangalore road, the landscape of the Nira basin becomes drier, stony and often bleak, but east of the railway line, the Mahadeo scarp recedes to give way to a more mature topography of the valley floor. Although this semi-arid area was once known for its famines and scarcities, a new vigour has been infused into the economic life of the people with the development of canals drawn from the Bhatghar lake. A further expansion is expected with the construction of the Vir Dam. What was once a purely *dry* cultivation tract with precarious living conditions has now gradually blossomed into an extensive sugar-cane land and fruit gardens. Sugar industry finds a favourable location near Phaltan (population 12,142), a route centre and the headquarters of a former princely State, and with the co-operative movement gathering strength, it promises to show a way out to similarly situated scarcity areas north and south, towards better economic prosperity.

FORESTS.

Out of the total area of the Satara revenue district (4,022·6 square miles), forests occupy 579·07 square miles. Of this, 471·88 square miles are in charge of the Forest Department and 108·19 square miles in charge of the Revenue Department. The forest area in charge of the Forest Deparment is classified into three categories, viz., 425·83 square miles as reserved forests, 21·75 square miles as protected forests and 24·30 square miles as leased forests. The total road length in the Satara forest area is three furlongs.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
FORESTS.
Trees.

the forest types generally met with in this district are :—

(*i*) Evergreen forests;

(*ii*) Dry mixed deciduous forests; and

(*iii*) Wet mixed deciduous forests.

Major Forest Produce.

The chief major forest produce in the district comprises timber, fire-wood and charcoal.

Minor Forest Produce.

The chief minor forest produce in the district comprises grass, *hirda*, *shikekai*, *apta* and *tembhurni* leaves and stones.

The following is the list of trees, shrubs, climbers and grasses found in Satara forests —

TREES.

Vernacular Name.	Botanical name.
Adal ..	.. *Albizzia odoratissima.*
Ain ..	.. *Terminalia tomentosa.*
Al ..	.. *Morinda tinctoria.*
Alu ..	.. *Vanguería spinosa.*
Amba ..	.. *Mangifera indica.*
Anjan ..	.. *Hardwickia binata.*
Anjani ..	.. *Memecylon edule.*
Apta ..	.. *Bauhinia racemosa.*
Arjun Sadada ..	.. *Terminalia Arjuna.*
Asana ..	.. *Bridelia retusa.*
Ashta ..	.. *Ficus Arnottiana.*
Atki or *Yekkadi* ..	.. *Pittosporum floribundum.*
Avala ..	.. *Phyllanthus emblica.*
Babhul ..	.. *Acacia arabica.*
Bel ..	.. *Aegle Marmelos.*
Beheda ..	.. *Terminalia belerica.*
Bahava ..	.. *Cassia fistula.*
Bhokar ..	.. *Cordia Myxa.*
Bhoma ..	.. *Glochidion Lanceolarium.*
Bhoram ..	.. *Amoora Lawii.*
Bhutkes ..	.. *Elexodendron glaucum.*
Bhokada ..	.. *Casearia graveolens.*
Biba or *Bibva* ..	.. *Semecarpus Anacardium.*
Bibla ..	.. *Pterocarpus Marsupium.*
Bohadsa or *Malya*	.. *Diospyros assimilis.*
Bor ..	.. *Zizyphus Jujuba.*
Bondara or *Lendi*	.. *Lagerstroemia parviflora.*
Chandan ..	.. *Santalum album.*
Chindada ..	.. *Macaranga Roxburghii.*
Char or *Charoli* ..	.. *Buchanania latifolia.*
Chichavana or *Phasi*	.. *Dalbergia paniculata.*
Chinch ..	.. *Tamarindus indica.*
Chindar ..	.. *Carinum asiaticum.*
Daka ..	.. *Pygeum Gardneri.*
Dhaman ..	.. *Grewia tiliaefolia.*

CHAPTER 1.

General.
Forests.
Trees.

Dinda ..	.. *Leea microphylla.*
Gel or *Gela* ..	.. *Randia dumetorum.*
Ghathor ..	.. *Zizyphus xylopyra.*
Govinda ..	.. *Diospyros montana.*
Goldara ..	.. *Sterculia guttata.*
Gulumb. ..	.. *Machilus macrantha.*
Hadkya ..	. *Rauwoffia densiflora.*
Heddu ..	.. *Adina cordifolia.*
Hela ..	.. *Terminalia belerica.*
Hirda ..	. *Terminalia chebula.*
Hiwar ..	.. *Acacia leucophlea.*
Hoom ..	.. *Saccopetalum tomentosum.*
Jambu ..	.. *Xylia xylocarpa.*
Jayphal ..	.. *Myristica laurifolia.*
Kadhanimb ..	.. *Murraya Koenigii.*
Kakad ..	.. *Garuga pinnata.*
Kalamb ..	.. *Stephegyne parvifolia.*
Karanj ..	.. *Pongamia glabra.*
Karambel ..	.. *Dillenia pentagyna.*
Kas, *Kasso* or *Kasiphul*	.. *Elæocarpus oblongus*
Kashid ..	.. *Cassia siamea.*
Kaula or *Lodh* ..	.. *Symplocos Beddomii.*
Katak ..	.. *Same as "Asana".*
Kel ..	.. *Ficus Tsjakela.*
Khair ..	.. *Acacia Catechu.*
Kharwat ..	.. *Ficus asperrima.*
Kinhai ..	.. *Albizzia procera.*
Kinjal ..	.. *Terminalia paniculata.*
Kirmira ..	.. *Glycosmis pentaphylla.*
Kokam ..	.. *Garcinia indica.*
Koshimb ..	.. *Schleichera trijuga.*
Kudi ..	.. *Wrightia tinctoria*
Kukai. ..	.. *Mallotus philippinensis.*
Kumbhal ..	.. *Sideroxylon tomentosum.*
Lendi ..	.. See "*Bondara.*".
Lullai ..	.. *Albizzia amara.*
Medsing .	.. *Dolichandrone falcata.*
Malya ..	.. See "*Bondara*".
Medsing ..	.. *Ligustrum neilgherrense.*
Modi ..	.. *Casearia tomentosa*
Moha ..	.. *Bassia latifolia.*
Nana ..	. *Lagerstroemia microcarpa.*
Nekya ..	.. *Premna Nimmoniana.*
Nimb ..	.. *Melia Azadirachta.*
Nimbara ..	.. *Heynea trijuga.*
Pair ..	.. *Ficus Rumphii.*
Pechawa ..	.. *Diospyros spp.*
Palas ..	.. *Butea frondosa.*
Pandhari ..	.. *Murraya exotica.*

CHAPTER 1.

General.
FORESTS.
Trees.

Pangara ..	.. *Erythrina indica.*
Par Jambhul ..	.. *Olea dioica.*
Phanshi ..	.. *Carallia integerrima.*
Phanas ..	.. *Artocarpus integrifolia.*
Phapti ..	.. *Pavetta indica.*
Phasi ..	.. See "*Chinchavana*".
Pimpran ..	.. *Ficus Arnottiana.*
Pipal ..	.. *Ficus religiosa.*
Pisa ..	.. *Actinodaphne Hookeri.*
Pisi ..	.. *Listoea Stocksi* and *Zeylanica.*
Rakat-rohida ..	.. *Maba nigrescens.*
Ramctha ..	.. *Lasiosiphon eriocephalus.*
Ranphanus ..	.. *Artocarpus hirsuta.*
Ritha ..	.. *Sapindus emarginata.*
Rohin ..	.. *Soymida febrifuga.*
Sag or *Sagwan* ..	.. *Tectona grandis.*
Salai ..	.. *Boswellia serrata.*
Satwin ..	.. *Alstonia scholaris.*
Shivari or *Sawar* ..	.. *Bombax malabaricum.*
Shiras ..	.. *Albizzia Lebbek.*
Shisham ..	.. *Dalbergia latifolia.*
Shivan ..	.. *Gmelina arborea.*
Tambat ..	.. *Flacourtia sepiaria.*
Temburni ..	. *Diospyros melanoxylon.*
Tiwas ..	.. *Ougeinia dalbergioides.*
Tupa ..	.. *Canthium umbellatum.*
Umbar ..	. *Ficus glomerata.*
Vad ..	.. *Ficus bengalensis.*
Warang ..	.. *Kydia calycina.*
Waras ..	.. *Heterophragma Roxburghii.*
Wavala. ..	.. *Holoptelea integrifolia.*
Yesar ..	.. *Callicarpa Lanata.*

SHRUBS.

Akra ..	.. *Strobilanthes reticulatus.*
Amoni ..	. *Rhus mysorensis.*
Burambi ..	.. *Blumea amplectens*
Bamani ..	.. *Colebrookia oppositifolia.*
Davna ..	.. *Strobilanthes ciliatus.*
Dhayti ..	. *Woodforidia floribunda.*
Dingla ..	.. *Crotelaria retusa.* .
Dudhi	.. *Euphorbia pothiana.*
Ghaneri ..	. *Lantana Camera.*
Ghaypat ..	.. *Agave sisalana.*
Girnoli ..	.. *Vitis repens.*
Henkal ..	.. *Gymnosporia montana.*
Karmati ..	.. *Grewia villosa.*
Karvand ..	.. *Carissa Carandas.*
Karvi ..	. *Strobilanthes callosus.*
Kavdi ..	.. *Swertia decussata.*

Kolusra	..	.. *Capparis longispina.*
Kutri	..	.. *Solanum giganteum.*
Lokhandi	..	.. *Ixora parviflora.*
Lotal.	..	.. *Osyris arborea.*
Makad Limbu	..	.. *Atalantia monophylla.*
Murudsheng or *Kevani*		.. *Helioteres Isora.*
Nagphani.	..	.. *Opuntia Dillenii.*
Nirgudi	..	.. *Vitex Negundo.*
Nivadung	..	.. *Euphorbia nerifolia.*
Pangli	..	. *Pogostemon parviflorus.*
Phophutki	..	.. Not known.
Pandharphalli		.. *Rhus parvifolia.*
Rantoor	..	.. *Atylosia lineata.*
Rui	..	.. *Calotropis gigantea.*
Tarwad	..	.. *Cassia auriculata.*
Tetoo	..	.. *Oroxylum indicum.*
Tipan	..	.. *Allophylus Cobbe.*
Toran	..	.. *Zizyphus rugosa.*
Wagati	..	.. *Capparis zeylanica.*
Wahandi	..	.. *Gymnema sylvestre.*

CLIMBERS.

Ambgul	..	.. *Elæagnus latifolia.*
Amri	..	.. *Hoya pallida.*
Chilhar	..	.. *Cæsalpinia sepiaria.*
Chimat	..	.. *Scutia indica.*
Chopwel	..	.. *Smilax macrophylla.*
Gunj	..	.. *Abrus precatorius.*
Kuhili	..	.. *Mucuna Pruriens.*
Kurkuri	..	.. *Embelia Ribes.*
Kusar	..	. *Jasminum arborescens.*
Padal	..	.. *Cyclea peltata.*
Romrik	..	.. *Cocculus macrocarpus.*
Shikekai	..	.. *Acacia concinna.*

GRASSES.

Bhongrat	..	.. *Anthistiria ciliata.*
Bhale-kusal	..	.. *Andropogon tricticeus.*
Chirka	..	.. *Eragrostis tremula.*
Ghonya-marvel	..	.. *Andropogon pertusus.*
Gondal	..	.. *Andropogon pumilis.*
Kunda	..	.. *Ischoemum pilosum.*
Kusali	..	.. *Andropogon contortus.*
Marvel	..	.. *Andropogon contortus.*
Pendhari-kusal	..	.. *Aristida Paniculata.*
Pavanya	..	.. *Ischosmum sulcatum.*
Phuli	..	.. *Apluda varia.*
Rosha	..	.. *Andropogon Schœnanthus.*
Sheda	..	.. *Iscœhmum Laxum.*
Shimpi	..	.. *Panicum Isachna.*
Wavashi	..	. *Saccharum procerum.*

CHAPTER 1.

General.

WILD ANIMALS.

The wild life of Satara district, although found in small number, is scattered all over the district. However, the big and the interesting animals are mainly confined to the hilly regions of the Sahyadris and its foot-hills. This district is not known for its game. Only the western part of the district comprising parts of Mahabaleshwar, Satara, Patan and Dhebewadi forest ranges which have good forests, has a large number of animals. With the increase in population, people's demand on forests increased, and so the animal population decreased. The then Government of Bombay fully appreciated this problem and enforced strict control over indiscriminate hunting of wild animals by enacting the Bombay Wild Animals and Wild Birds Protection Act of 1951. Due to celebration of the Wild Life Weeks and propaganda carried out during the last few years, the people have, to some extent, realised the importance of preservation of wild life.

Game of all kinds is now restricted to certain areas where protection either natural or artificial is afforded to various animals. In the Koyna Valley natural protection was afforded so far because of its natural inaccessibility and scanty population. However, due to the construction of Koyna Dam, this protection will no more be available to these denizens of the forests. This valley is likely to be closed entirely for shooting. However, artificial protection can never be as effective as natural protection.

Mahabaleshwar plateau is also closed for shooting. Due to this, it is found that the animal population except that of the tiger has increased to a large extent and the animals down the valley frequent the hill top.

Beasts of Prey.

Prominent among the wild animals are the Tiger (*Panthera tigris* Linn M. *Patait Vagh*), and panther (*Panthera pardus* Linn M. *Biblya Vagh*). At one time, the tiger was a common visitor to Mahabaleshwar, particularly near Arthur Seat and the Koyna Valley. Now they seem to have almost vanished from the area. A tiger is a rare find in the forest near Mala-Kolana towards the south of Helvak and some portions of Dhebewadi range.

Panthers are, however, to be found in numbers all over the district including the scrub forests. They are more particularly seen in Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, the Koyna Valley and the Kas area. During the monsoon they visit the Dare forests, two to three miles from Satara. They are also seen at Deur (near Wathar station) and in the hills near Satara Road station. Human beings are as a rule not molested and no man-eaters (either tiger or panther) have been recorded in the recent past. Besides *sambars*, *cheetals*, *etc*., which form their natural food, panthers also attack cattle, particularly calves. Due to complete protection afforded to the animals on the Mahabaleshwar plateau, the depredations of panthers have increased considerably. Many such complaints have been received of late and free permits had to be issued to kill the panthers which had proved destructive. All these complaints were confined to Mahabaleshwar and Satara ranges.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
WILD ANIMALS.
Beasts of Prey.
Wild Cats.

The wild cat (*Felis Chaus* M. *Ran Manjar*) is found in large numbers. It lives in open forests and scrub jungles and is a serious menace to poultry. The other two varieties of cats live in thick jungles but are comparatively rare viz. *Paradoxerus musanga* M *Ud Manjar* and *Viverricula indica* M. *Javadi Manjar*.

Bears.

The Sloth Bear *Ursus* (*Melursus*) *Labiatus*, M. *Aswal* is restricted to the well-wooded hilly portions of the *Ghat* area. It is particularly found in Bamnoli and Kas areas of Satara range. During the day, it lives in hollows in rocks or in ravines and at night time, comes down to the plains in search of honey combs. It also lives on roots and fruits of forest trees and feeds on ants and insects. It seldom attacks a human being unprovoked and does little injury to cattle.

Of the dog tribe the principal representatives are (1) The stripped Hyaena (*Hyaena striata* M. *Taras*). It is found in Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, some portion of the eastern part of the district and particularly Satara Road and Koregaon area. It generally seeks shelter in the natural holes or caves during day time and moves about during nights in search of carcasses. It is a useful scavenger. (2) The wolf (*Canis pallipes* M. *Landga*) is generally found in the plains of the eastern side of the district. It usually lifts sheep and goats at night. (3) The jackal (*Canis aureus* M. *Kolha*) is found in abundance in the plains. It is a useful scavenger but at the same time it is harmful to poultry, sugarcane and ground-nut. (4) The Indian fox (*Vulpes bengalensis* M. *Kolha*) is common in the open country in the eastern portion of the district. It is a useful animal to the agriculturists as it lives chiefly on the field rats, mice, reptiles and insects.

Of the smaller animals allied to both cat and dog, the common mongoose (*Herpestes edwardsii*) deserves mention. It destroys snakes, both poisonous and non-poisonous, but sometimes becomes a serious threat to poultry because of its mass slaughtering habits.

Bats

Among the bats the flying fox (*Pteropus giganteus* M. *Waghul*) is quite common. It causes great damage to orchards, especially as they raid, usually after sunset in larger numbers.

Rodents

Among the rodents, the Indian Porcupine (*Hystrix leucura*, Gray and Hardwicke M *Salendra* or *Sayal*) is very common. It lives in burrows dug in the ground or rocky hilly sides and is very harmful to agriculture as well as to forest plantation. It eats up all the seeds sown and gnaws and uproots the seedlings to eat the fleshy cotyledons.

The Indian Giant Squirrel (*Ratufa indica* M. *Shekra*), is very attractive due to its reddish brown colour. It is found in the evergreen forests and particularly in the Mala-Kolana area, south of Helvak and in parts of Dhebewadi range. The five stripped squirrel (*Funambulus pennanti* M. *Khar*) is usually found in the neighbourhood of habitations. It damages forest seeds, both in the nurseries and in plantations.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
WILD ANIMALS.
Beasts of Prey.
Hare.
Deer.

The hare (*Lepus nigricollis* M. *Sasa*) is found in the scrub jungles. Due to unregulated hunting and snaring by local tribes, their number has depleted considerably.

The deer family is perhaps the worst affected due to wanton shooting and poaching. It has been given complete protection from shooting but unless there is effective check on its illegal destruction, it is impossible to avoid complete annihilation of this family. At present they are found only in the interior forests of the Sahyadris.

The *Sambar* (*Rusa unicolor* Kerr.) is restricted to the hilly regions. It is found at the following places :—

Satara Range : Pimpri, Vasota, Indoli, Uchat.

Patan Range : Koyna Valley and at Mala.

Mahabaleshwar Range : Forests adjoining the Koyna Valley.

Dhebewadi Range : Paneri, Zolambi, Jaoli and Amboli.

The spotted deer (*Axis axis* M. *Chital*) : It is found at Mala.

Barking Deer (*Cervulus auracus* M. *bhenkar*). It is found in small numbers in the Mala-Kolana area of Patan Range and Paneri Zolambi, Jaoli and Amboli areas of Dhebewadi Range. The mouse deer (*Moschiola memina* M. *Pisora*) is occasionally found in the ever-green forests of Mala-Kolana.

Among the antelopes, mention must be made of the Black-buck (*Antilope cervicarna* Linn M. *Kalvit*). This is an inhabitant of the open scrub and grassy plain areas in the neighbourhood of cultivation. They were found in large numbers in the eastern part of the district and especially so in the region lying between Pusesavli in Khatav and Kadegaon in Khanapur (Sangli). However they have been largely hunted out. Only recently (1959), a couple of black-bucks were seen near Pusesavli.

The Chinkara or Indian Gazelle which used to be found in small numbers near Man has become extinct due to indiscriminate killing.

Bison

The Guar or the Indian Bison (*Bibos gauras* M. *Gava*) is the largest of all the bovines. It is found in the south of the Helvak at Mala-Kolana.

Boars.

The wild boar (*Sus indicus* M. *Dukar*) occurs in abundance in all hilly forests of the district.

Monkeys.

Monkeys, both *Makads* and *Vanars*, are found all over the district.

Reptiles.

Snakes, both poisonous and non-poisonous, are quite common in the forests of the Sahyadris. The Indian python is occasionally found in the thick forests. In the past the number of deaths due to snake bites was alarming but due to the recent invention of anti-venom serum, which is provided by Government, the number of deaths has come down considerably.

BIRDS.

Most of the birds given by Shri Salim Ali in his catalogue on the birds of the Deccan are found in Satara district.

General.
BIRDS.

The principal game birds of the district are :—

(1) The common sandgrouse (*Pterocles exustus*)—This is found in the arid areas of the district and near Mhaswad.

(2) Green pigeon (M. *Parva*) is fairly common near Medha and Satara Road.

(3) Pigeon is commonly found inhabiting the hillforts.

(4) The gray partridge (*Ortygornis pondicerianus* M. *Titar*), is also found.

(5) The snipes are found in small number, particularly in Mhaswad area.

(6) The gray jungle foul is found in the evergreen parts of Mahabaleshwar, Koyna and south of Helvak.

(7) The pea-fowl has become comparatively rare.

Water Birds.

(1) Ducks can be seen in the following tanks :—

Kas, Mayni, Pingli, Rajewadi, and tanks near Mhaswad; and Pasegaon.

The Bramini duck is also found in small numbers.

(2) The Common Teal and the Blue Winged Teal is found scattered throughout the district in favourable localities.

The Great Indian Bustard and Lesser Florican which live in open scrub areas, have become rare due to indiscriminate snaring and netting by hunting tribes.

FISH AND FISHERIES.

The main source of supply of fish in the district is at present confined to the Urmodi, Vena, Krishna and Koyna rivers. The other rivers are not of much importance from the fisheries point of view as they get dry for most part of the year. Development of riverine fisheries is a long-range programme for the benefits to be apparent and hence efforts are being concentrated on the development of fisheries in confined sheets of water. A preliminary survey of irrigation tanks such as Kas, Banganga, Ranand, Nehr, Pingli, Mayani and Daruj reservoirs was carried out with a view to finding out their suitability for pisciculture and efforts are being made by the Department of Fisheries to stock them with quick-growing varieties of fish such as *Catla*, *Rohu* and *Mirgal* which are imported from Bengal. It is expected that in due course, when piscicultural activities increase in the district, they will augment the local supply of fish which is at present very scanty

Methods of Fishing.

Fishing in rivers and tanks is done by means of cast nets (*Phekani*), fixed nets (*Tivari*), drag nets (*Vadap*), draft nets (*Kandyala*), and hook and line (Gal).

Cast net.—The most elementary type of net in vogue which continues to be of great use to inland fisheries is the cast net locally known as *Pag*, *Phekani* or *Bhor jal*. It is a circular net when spread out. A hauling line is attached to the centre and small weights are fastened at the periphery, which is folded inward to form a series

CHAPTER 1.

General.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Methods of Fishing.

of pockets wherein fish get trapped when the net is hauled. Mesh of the net varies from ½" to 2" (square) depending on the size of fish to be caught. The net is made of twine and the cost varies from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50.

Fixed net (*Tivari*).—It is a conical type of net, the base of which is open and rectangular. The length of the net from the rim of the base to the tapering cod end is about 35 feet and the circumference at the mouth varies from 30 feet to 40 feet. The size of the mesh diminishes as the net tapers towards its extremity where it forms an impenetrable bag. The net at the mouth is made of strong hemp twine with 4" (square) mesh and at the tapering end it is made of thin twine with ½" (square) mesh.

The net is operated just after monsoon and till a strong current is there in the river. The net is so fixed that its mouth is kept wide open against the current in a rectangular form by supporting the lateral sides of the mouth by means of two strong bamboo poles. The poles are kept in position by means of wire ropes which are firmly fixed on both the banks. The fish collected at the cod end is taken by loosening the ropes tied round it. The cost of the net is about Rs. 200 depending upon its size.

Drag net (*Vadap*).—This is the largest type of net used for catch of fish both in rivers and tanks. The net is made of cotton twine and consists of 10 to 20 rectangular pieces, the number depending on the width of the sheet of water and on the middle conical piece. Each piece is about 18 feet in length and 22 feet in height with 1" stretched mesh. The middle piece is conical in shape and with its cod-end resembles the fixed net described above. The rings formed by the rectangular piece on either side of this conical bag are very extensive and collect the fish in the bag when dragged. The whole net while in operation is provided with wooden or tin floats along the head rope to increase the buoyancy. A few small stones are tied to the ground rope to serve as sinkers. These keep the net erect. The operation of this net is interesting. A wall net is first stretched across the river, where fishing operations are to be undertaken, so that the fish scared by the drag net may not escape. The drag net is spread across the river about a furlong away from the wall net. Two coir ropes about 2" thick and about 50 feet long are tied to the ends of the drag net. Each end is pulled by 10 to 15 persons and the net is thus dragged along the river. When the drag net is brought closer to the fall net, its one end is joined to the adjacent end of the other net. Then the two free ends are pulled and the combined net is dragged across the river on to the bank. In the process of dragging the net, most of the fish are enclosed in the central conical part of the drag net, from where they are emptied by loosening the rope tied round the cod end. The drag net is operated in the tank in the manner described above except that the stationary wall net is not used as the drag net is hauled on the opposite bank. Each rectangular piece costs about Rs. 75 and the middle conical piece costs about Rs. 250.

CHAPTER 1.

General.
FISH AND FISHERIES.
Methods of Fishing.

Drift nets (*Kandyala*).—Drift nets known as *Kandyala* used in the district, are of different mesh-size varying from 1½" to 7". Usually 24 rectangular pieces are joined together and operated by 12 fishermen. The net while in operation is provided with small sticks of reed locally known as "*Kavas*" along the head rope to increase the buoyancy. A few small stones or earthenware ovals are tied to the ground rope to serve as sinkers. The drift nets are used in summer when the depth of water in the rivers and tanks is considerably reduced. The common drift nets used in deep waters elsewhere are not yet common in Satara district.

Hook and line.—In addition to fishing nets, the hook and line method of fishing is also followed by fishermen of Satara district. About 100 hooks are attached to a line which measures nearly 1,000 feet in length. Floats of light weed, dried pumpkins or tins are attached to the head rope. This type of fishing is practised throughout the year.

The Vena, Krishna, Koyna, and Vasna have large pools that hold water thoughout the year and are fairly stocked with fish. Rivers like the Man and Yerla which dry during the hot weather have no fish of any considerable size. The best, or at least the most frequently eaten fish, are the *maral, malya, tambat, shingada,* and *vamb*. The chief fishing communities are the *Bhois* and *Kolis*; the *kunbis* and Muhammedans fish for their own use. Even the fishing communities take to other subsidiary occupation for their livelihood. Fish are sometimes caught by poisoning the water with the juice of milkbush, but this practice is disappearing. Other modes of fishing, which are occasionally practised are by diverting the stream into a large basket or some other open receptacle, by constructing a bund across a stream and lastly by placing large earthen pots in the water and closing them when the fish enter. Hand-nets of small mesh-size are also used for catching fish. Fish are mostly sold fresh, and from house to house, few are taken to the markets. In some places fish are preserved as sacred animals. In other places people net fish where they please, though there seems to be an understanding that each village has a prior right to fishing within its own limits.

Important fresh water fishes of the district are as under.—

Scientific name.		Local name.
ORDER : OPISTHOME.	..	
Family . MASTACEMBELIDAE.	..	
Mastacembelus armatus (Leeep).		*Vam.*

Vam, which is found in rivers is highly prized as food. It attains a size of two to three feet and is usually caught on small hooks as it frequents bouldery spots where it is difficult to net.

ORDER : APODES.	..	
Family : ANGUILLIDAE	..	
Anguilla anguilla (Ham.)	..	*Aheer.*

CHAPTER 1.
General.
FISH AND FISHERIES.

This fish belongs to the Eel group and is rarely found in rivers. It is usually caught by hook and line. Being a foul-eater, it is not much relished as food though its flesh is considered as a diet for invalids. It grows to about 4′ in length and is disliked by many in view of its snake-like appearance.

ORDER : EVENTOGNATHI.	..	
Family : CYPRINIDAE	..	
Sub-family : ABRAMIDINAE	..	
Oxyaster clupeoids (Bl)	..	*Vadas.*
Oxyaster phule	..	*Alkut.*

These are bright silvery fishes, the former growing to about 9″ while the latter growing to about 4″ only. These are abundant in the rivers and constitute the main item of food of the fishermen as well as of the poor people as the fish is cheap. They are surface feeders, subsisting mainly on planktonic insects, larvæ and worms.

Sub-family : *Rasborinæ*.

Barilius bendelesis (Ham.)	..	..	*Jhori.*
Barilius evezardi (Day)	..	..	*Jhori.*
Danior æquibinnatus (McClalland)		.	*Amli.*
Brachydanio Rarie (Ham.)	..	..	*Amli.*
Rasbora daniconius (Ham.)	..	..	*Dandvan.*

Of the aforesaid varieties, *Dandvan* is common in the catches while the remaining are found in small numbers in rivers and streams. These fishes being small are not valued much as food, *Amli* and *Dandvan*, however, have found a place in the acquarium on account of their brilliant colours.

Sub-family : *Cyrpininæ*.

Puntius (tor) Khudree (Sykes)	..	..	*Mhasad.*

This fish is the angler's delight. It is also called as *Mahaseer* of Deccan and is found in rivers, particularly in the river Vena. It prefers a rocky bed and a moderately strong current It attains a large size and reaches a weight of 30 to 40 lbs.

Puntius jernoni (Day)	..	.	*Paragi.*
Puntius kolus (Sykes)	..	..	*Kolshi.*
Puntius sarana (Ham.)	..	..	*Lalpari.*
Puntius spp.	..	..	*Khavalya.*

The above species are medium-sized carps growing from 6 to 18 inches and weighing up to a seer or more. *Paragi* and *Kolshi* are abundantly caught and sold in the district.

Labeo boggut (Sykes)	..	..	*Sandi.*
Labeo porcellus (Heckel)	..	..	*Tambudki.*

Labeo fimbriatus (Bl.)	.. ..	*Tambir.*
Garra mullya (Sykes)	.. ..	*Mullya.*
Garra bicornuta (Rao)	.. ..	*Mullya.*
Rohtee cotie (Ham.)	.. .	*Phankut.*
Rohtee vigorsii (Sykes)	.. ..	*Vatani.*
Schizmatorhynchus (Nukta) mukta (Sykes)	..	*Bobri.*

There are only three varieties of Labeo spp., found in rivers in the Satara district. Out of these Tambir grows to about 2½ feet, other two being of smaller size.

Rapidly growing varieties of carps, viz., *Catla catla* (Ham.), *Labeo rohita* (Ham.) and *Cirrhina mrigala* (Ham.)—locally called as *Catla, Rohu* and *Mirgal*, respectively and imported from Bengal, have been introduced in the irrigation tanks and reservoirs by the Department of Fisheries, Maharashtra State. These varieties of fish are highly esteemed as food.

Family : COBITIDAE.

Lepidocephalchthya guntea (Ham.)	..	*Kapti.*
Lepidocephalichthys thermalis (C. & V.)	.	*Chichani.*
Nemachilus denisonii (Day)	.. ..	*Muranga.*
Botia spp.	.. .. ..	*Waghmasa.*

These are small varieties not growing more than three inches They are bottom feeders dwelling usually at the gravelly and sandy bottom.

ORDER : OSTARIOPHYSI.

SUB-ORDER : SILUROIDEA.

Family : SILURIDAE.

Ompak bimaculatus (Bl.)	.. ..	*Wani.*
Ompak pabo (Ham.)	.. ..	*Kaliwanj.*
Wallago attu (Bl.)	.. .	*Valshivada.*

All these varieties are carnivorous and are highly esteemed as food. The first two grow to a foot in length while the third grows to about five feet and is commonly called as a fresh water shark in view of its voracious nature.

Family : BAGRIDAE.

Mystus cavasius (*Ham*)	..	*Katarna.*
Mystus aor (*Ham*) ..	..	*Shingla.*
Mystus Seenghala (*Sykes*)	..	*Shingti.*
Mystus malabarious (*Jerdon*)	..	*Shingti.*
Rita pevimentata (*Val.*) ..	..	*Cogra.*

CHAPTER I.

General.
FISH AND FISHERIES.

These fishes are usually found in rivers and are fairly relished as food.

Family : SISORIDAE.

Glyptothorax Lonah (Sykes)	..	*Phattarchittu.*
Bagarius bagarius (Ham)	..	*Khirit.*

These varieties are found in rivers but are not very common in the catches. *Khirit* is an ugly looking fish yellowish in colour with large irregular brownish black cross bands. It is considered as the largest fresh water fish growing up to 5½' and weighing 250 lbs.

Family : SCHILBEIDAE.

Proeutropiichthys taakree (Sykes)	..	*Vayadi.*
Pseudotropius atherinoide (Bl.)	..	*Sura.*
Neotropius khavalihor (*Kulkarni*)	..	*Khavalachor.*

These fishes are found only in rivers and grow to about 8 to 10 inches. *Kharalachor* is seen in Krishna. Its specific local name signifies its remarkable lepidophagous habit of feeding on the scales of other fishes.

ORDER : CYPRINODONTES.

Family : CYPRINODONTIDAE.

Aphlochilus lineatus (C. & V.)

It is a small fish which remains always on the surface of water. It is easily recognised by the spot on its head.

ORDER : DABYRINTHICI.

Family : OPHICEPHALIDATE.

Chana : *Leucopunctatus* (Sykes)	.	*Murrel or Kalamasa*
Chana marulius (Ham.) ..	.	*Murrel or Kalamasa*
Chana Striatus (Bl) ..	.	*Mangsha.*

These are generally found in rivers and tanks. Being carnivorous, they are not useful for fish culture. However, they are highly esteemed for their flesh and hence are highly prized as food, as compared to other fishes. They grow to about 3 to 4 feet in length. On account of the presence of accessory respiratory organs, these fish can remain alive out of water for a considerable time.

ORDER : PERCOMORPHI.

Family : AMBASSIDAE.

Ambassis ranga (Ham) ..		*Kachki.*
Ambassis nama (Ham) ..	.	*Kachki.*

CHAPTER 1.

General.
FISH AND FISHERIES.

These fish are known as glass fish in view of their transparent body and are therefore, popular amongst aquarists. They are small fish of 2 to 3 inches and are found in rivers and tanks.

ORDER : GOBIODEA.

Family : GOBIODAE.

Glassogobius giurus (Ham.) .. *Kharpa.*

SNAKES.*

Satara district is bounded by Poona district in the North, Sholapur district in the East, Sangli district in the South and Ratnagiri and Kulaba districts in the West The western boundary is hilly due to the mountain ranges which extend from Mahabaleshwar in North to Patan in the South.

Though deaths due to snake-bites are low as compared with those in Ratnagiri district, they ranged from 82 maximum to 7 minimum in the last 10 years.

The following is the account of snakes in this district.

Family : *Typhlopidæ.*

Non poisonous.

Typhlops braminus.—It is locally called "Kadu". a very small, slender snake, like an earthworm, growing from 6″ to 7″ in length and brownish black in colour. It usually burrows in loose moist soil or in debris. The scales on the body are imbricate. Sometimes it is found in kitchen gardens and even in backyards of residences. It is absolutely harmless. Lycodon aulicus and Oligodon sp. have been reported from this region. These wolf snakes are small with deep brown cross marks on a pale body. They are often mistaken to be Kraits.

Family : *Uropeltidæ.*

Two specimens of Uropeltid sp. were procured. They are purplish green with yellow specks and measure from eight to nine inches. The tail is very short with a transverse edge for digging and the bodies are covered by a series of rough spiny scales. These are primitive snakes and are normally met with under bushes and moist leaves.

Family . *Colubridæ.*

Ptyas mucosus.—This snake is commonly found all over the area and is locally called "Dhaman". It is yellowish in colour with broken black lines especially in the posterior region. Measuring from eight to twelve feet, it moves very quickly and even scales the trees Feeding on rats, and moving near human habitations, it is many a time mistaken for cobra.

Natrix piscator.—A water snake invariably found in ponds and water accumulations is locally called "Pandivad". This snake is olive brown with black lateral lines and checker board designs

* The section on "Snakes" was contributed by Dr. P. J. Deoras, Assistant Director, Department of Entomology, Haffkine Institute, Bombay.

CHAPTER 1. — General. SNAKES. Non-poisonous.

posteriorly. Growing from four to six feet, it is often collected by snake-charmers for display.

Natrix stolata.—This is a very common snake frequently encountered during rains. It does not grow beyond two feet, and is olivaceous with brown longitudinal stripes.

Dryophis sp.—A long slender parrot-green snake with an elongate snount growing up to five to six inches in length, is very frequently found in the forest areas. It is probably *Dryophis nasutus*. This snake stays on green branches with an erect and pointed head which is often mistaken to be under a hypnotic state. It feeds on small birds. Locally this snake is called "Harantol" or "Sarptol".

Family : *Boidæ*.

Eryx conicus.—It is a small stumpy snake with a very blunt tail, brownish black and with a broken yellow pattern. It burrows by both ends and is often mistaken to be a snake with two mouths at two ends. It is locally called "Mandol" and is often mistaken to be the young one of a python.

Python molurus.—It is a rare snake in this district, but is found in the forests of western range mountains. It is locally called "Ajagar". It grows from 12′ to 15′ in length. On the entire back there is a broken design of grey and brown patches with a streak of pink stripe by the side of the head. It normally inhabits areas adjoining lakes and thick forests and kills animals by strangulation.

Family : *Elapidæ*.

Poisonous.

Naja naja.—This is Cobra, which is locally called *Nag*, *Akdya*, *Bhujang*, *Farud* or *Khadyanag*. It is a very common snake which is distinguishable by its habit of spreading a hood. The hood may bear a spectacle mark or may be without a mark. The colour ranges according to the soil conditions. It is yellowish brown or in some rare cases black. The maximum length recorded is 5 feet 6 inches. This snake is many a time found near human habitations where it comes to feed on rats, mice and stray frogs. In villages it is found even in thatched roofs. Being very poisonous, it takes a heavy toll by its venom which is neurotoxic. Once a year on a Nagpanchami day which falls sometimes in August, the local population worships this snake. In fact at a place called Shirala, a large number of inhabitants collect this snake on this day in earthen pots and bring the pots near a temple, where worshipping is observed and a fair is held which attracts a large crowd. It is believed that on this day either the snake does not bite or the poison is not effective. Investigations have shown that a large majority of snakes handled on this occasion are non-poisonous.

Bungarus coeruleus.—Locally called "Manyar", this krait snake is not a common snake. It is steel-blue with white double or single

CHAPTER 1.

General.
SNAKES.
Poisonous.

cross lines on the body. It is no doubt a very poisonous snake and is so much dreaded that many villagers were observed to remark that "even its shadow would kill a victim". A very timid snake that does not grow beyond four feet, it is found in crevices and cracks of walls. It is distinguishable from Oligodon by the presence of a series of hexagonal scales on the dorsal part of the body The poison is neurotoxic and is well nigh more toxic than Cobra poison.

Callophis nigrescens.—This snake is found in the Mahabaleshwar region and is locally called "Raat". It is a snake of the hills living above 3,000 feet and grows to three feet in length. It is brownish above and has five black stripes. Top of the head is black with light irregular marking and a broad black bar on the nape. The ventral side is pinkish. The poison is neurotoxic.

Family : *Viperidæ*.

Vipera russelli.—This is locally called "Ghonas". It is brown with three chains of eleptical deep brown marks dorsally. The head is triangular and during mating season the colour becomes slightly pinkish in males and a bit faint in females. This had led local people to believe that there are three different varieties from the point of view of the severeness of the pain. Naturally during mating and breeding season, which is summer and rains, the amount of poison given is more and it is slightly more toxic, than that given at other times.

This snake is met with in bushy areas and when encountered hisses loudly and continuously. It can hurl and strike to a distance of three feet The venom is vasotoxic and the bite is accompanied by a swelling and a severe burning pain.

Echis carinatus.—This snake is frequently met with during the rainy season. more in the plains and in areas with a reddish soil. Locally it is called "Phoorsa". It grows to about 18 inches, and moves characteristically as a side winder. The body is olivaceous with black patches, but the head bears a white arrow mark. It strikes viciously and the amount of poison given is not lethal but the victim starts bleeding within 24 hours from any opening in the body. There is quite an amount of swelling at the site of the bite and often necrosis may also follow a severe burning pain.

Trimeresurus malabaricus.—A grown up snake, olive green with distinct blackish spots dorsally and yellow ones laterally, it is pale green ventrally and grows to about 2 feet. The young are brown above and grey below. It has a prominent lip and a pit too. It is normally found in the hilly regions amidst bamboo growths.

CHAPTER 2

History.

CHAPTER 2—HISTORY*

Early History

Early History.

THE OLDEST KNOWN PLACE IN THE SATARA DISTRICT IS PROBABLY KARAD, styled as Karhakāḍa in the inscriptions of about 200 B.C. These inscriptions have recorded gifts of pillars by Karāḍ pilgrims at the Bhārhut *Stupa* near Jabalpur in the Madhya Pradesh[1]. This is confirmed by a group of Buddhist caves found at a distance of about three miles south-west of Karāḍ, one of which is associated with an inscription dating about the first century after Christ[2]. Caves at Shirval and Wāi in Jāvḷī also indicate Buddhist settlements[3]. Wāi is locally believed to be Virāṭanagari where Pāṇḍavās lived in the thirteenth year of their exile[4]. From early times Mahābaḷeshvar at the source of Kṛṣṇā is known as a holy place[5].

It is true that the countries of the Deccan are mentioned in the Cylonese Chronicle Mahāvaṁśa of the missions sent after the third Buddhist in 16th year of Ashokā's reign for the propagation of Dhamma in different countries. Here one Mahārakkhita[6] is reported to have been sent to the Marāṭhā country (Dakshiṇāpath) which can be safely inferred as forming a part of Ashokan empire. As ancient Buddhist caves at Karāḍ are found, the Marāṭhā country referred to above appears to have included Sātārā district in it.

*The Section on Early History was contributed by Dr. M. D. Paradkar, M.A., Ph.D., Head of the Sanskrit Department, M. M. College of Arts, Bombay-57.

The Sections from Muslim Rule onwards were contributed by Prof. R. V. Oturkar, M.A., Poona.

[1] Cunningham's Stupa of Bhārhut, 135, 138, 139. Karāḍ gives its names to the Karāda Brahmins found in large numbers even now in the district.

[2] Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temple, 211-217; Archaeological Survey of Western India IV 60.

[3] Besides these caves, there are groups of caves and cells of Buddhist or Brahmanical origin at Bhosa in Tasgaon, at Malavadi and Kundal in Khanapur, at Patan in Patan, and at Pateshwal in Satārā; Dr. Burgess' Antiquarian list 58-59.

[4] Mahābhārata Sabhāparva 70-9 "nagarim Sanjayantimca pāsaṇḍam Karahātakam".

[5] Journal of Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X, 1, 18.

[6] The missionary who was sent to Mahārāshṭra was called Mahadharmarakshita (The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 54).

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EARLY HISTORY.
Satavahanas.

The Mauryan empire in the Deccan was followed by the rules of Sātavāhanās. Two coins of Sātavāhana, the progenitor of the reign, are found at Hyderābād in 1945. Another coin of this very king found at Koṇḍāpur has made the inference possible that these Sātavāhanās belonged to Marāṭhvāḍā having their capital at Pratisthāna i.e. modern Paiṭhaṇ. These kings ruled over entire Mahārāshṭra from 230 B.C. to 250 A.D. *Pauraṇik* accounts mentioned Shishuka to be the first King, whose proper name appears to be Simuka, who was succeeded by Kṛṣṇā, his brother (207-189 B.C.) as Sātakarṇī. Simuka's son was too young at that time. Simuka and Kṛṣṇa appear to have been separated from Sātavāhana by one or two generations. After Kṛṣṇa Sātakarṇī I, whose figure was sculptured *in relievo* at Nāṇeghāṭ along with the figures of his father Simuka, queen Nāganikā and three princesses. He conquered western Māḷvā and an inscription of the queen records the performance of great sacrifices and huge fees paid to the priests on the occasion. Sātakarṇī was followed by Vedisrī who also like his father became known as the Lord of Dakṣiṇapath. The illustrious author of *Gāthāsaptaṣati* namely Hāla also belongs to the same race. The expansion of Satavāhanās received a check from the Sakās. Bhumaka is the earliest of them, and Nahāpana is known to be a great conqueror, whose rule extended over parts of southern Mahārāshṭra, including Sātārā district.

The Sātavāhana power revived under the rule of Gautami-putra Sātakarṇī (80-110 A.D.)[1] who overthrew Nahāpana (119-125 A D.) and is deservedly known as the destroyer of Shakās, Yavanās and Pahalavās[2]. In 1864, a few inscriptions, found in the caves of Nāśik, refer to the 18th and 24th year of his reign. Among these caves, cave No. 3 contains one more inscription of Sātakarṇi's mother engraved in the reign of Pulumāyī, her grand-son. This inscription is important as it gives an adequate idea of the vast Sātavāhana empire, in the 2nd Century A D. Coins of Pulumāyī II, who reigned for twenty-four years, have been found in Godāvari and Guntur districts. The struggle with Shakās was renewed and Pulumāyī II recovered some of the provinces lost by his predecessors. Inscriptions, belonging to his reign, are found at Kānherī and Nāśik. From

[1] 106–130 A D. (The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 200).

[2] A period of a century and a half intervened between the reign of Sātakarṇi I (end of the first century B. C.) and that of Gautami putra Sātakarṇi (beginning of the second century A. D.). (The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 200).

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Satavahanas.

inscriptional records, Shree Yajna appears to be the last Sâtavâhana king, who retained control of the western as well as eastern provinces. Kaṇa, Kumbha and Rudrasātakarṇī ruled over the eastern Deccan. Much is not known about the downfall of this dynasty.

The Sātavāhana rule was followed by the Chuṭus in Mahārāshṭra and Kuṅtala (Sāṅgli)[1]. A circular coin, made up of lead was found at Koṇḍāpur in 1941[2]. This coin belongs to King Māṇa, the son of Bhāradvāja, belonging to the Chuṭu race. The word *Sakamāṇachuṭukukulasya* and the signs of thunder-bolt and arrow, found on the coin indicate the Shaka race. He mentions himself to be the great general which makes him a former vassal of Sātavāhanās, who appears to have risen to power after having overthrown them.

Chalukyas.

Inscribed stones and copper plates, found in the neighbouring districts of Ratnāgirī and Beḷgaṅv as well as the state of Kolhāpur, inform us that Sātārā and southern Mahārāshṭra were held by Chālukyās of Badāmī between 550 and 753 A.D. The Aihole inscription of Chālukyās, speaks of Jayasiṁha, who defeated the early Rāshṭrakuṭās and formed his kingdom. The grand-son of Jayasiṁha, Pulkeshīn I, performed *Ashvamedha,* assumed the title Satyāshraya and *Prithivīvallabha* and made Vātāpī, his capital. After his death in 567 A.D. his son Kirtivarman I came to the throne and subjugated Kadambās as well as Mauryās. Pulkeshin II is the most illustrious ruler, who brought all the kingdoms in the southern India under his control (610-620 A.D.). Copper plates of Pulkeshīn II speak of him as the king of three Mahārāshṭrās (Vidarbha, Mahârāshṭra and Kuṅtala) consisting of 99,000 villages. He also prevented Harshavardhan from penetrating the south by inflicting a decisive defeat on him on the bank of Narmadā. The Chinese traveller Hieuentsang who visited his capital in 639 A.D., has spoken very highly of his administrative and military ability. Pulkeshin's reign came to a tragic end in 642, as Narasiṁhavarman I of Kāñchī attacked Badāmī and ruined it[3]. Vikramāditya I, his son, however avenged his defeat and continued to rule up to 680 A.D. His son Vinayāditya turned out to be a generous ruler as is indicated by grants, given by him in the years 689, 691, 694. Vinayāditya was followed by Vijayāditya, who was accidentally caught by the Pahalavās but managed to escape and re-established his rule over the country. Vikramāditya II, his son, had a short reign of fourteen years from 733 747 A.D. and was succeeded by Kīrtivarman II, whose copper-plate is available. He seems to have ruled up to 753 A. D. Dantidurga, one of the vassals of Chālukyās defeated the Pahalavās and was ultimately successful in snatching away the kingdom from the hands of the Chālukyās,

[1] A 9th century tradition says that Vīrākucha, an early Pallava king of great fame seized the insignia of royalty together with the daughter of the Naga King. K. A. N. Sastri thinks that this may be an echo of the Pallava conquest of the Chuṭus. (K. A. N. Sastri : History of South India, pp. 97-98).

[2] Dr V. V. Mirashi, *Samshodhan Muktavali*, Part III, pages 86-87.

[3] In his victory over Pulkeshin Narasiṁhavarman was helped by his brothers and sons One of the brothers was the Governor of Sātārā and Vengi (M. Rama Rao - Glimpses of Deccan History, p. 38).

EARLY HISTORY.

Chalukyas.

before January 754 A.D. when the Samangaḍ plates were issued. These plates inform that the Chālukya emperor was defeated merely by the frown without any show of arms[1]. This probably indicates the overthrow of Chālukya emperor by treachery. Kīrtivarman continued to hold his sway even after the defeat, as in 757 A.D. he is known to have encamped his army at a village on the northern bank of Bhīmā[2]. As no other record of Chālukyās later than this date is available, it would be safe to infer that their overthrow was soon completed by Rāshṭrakuṭās. In fact the records of later Chālukyās themselves clearly state that the glory of Chālukyās set with Kīrtivarman II[3]. Recently four copper-plates found at Sātārā, Kolhāpur, Gokāk and Goā respectively indicate that the early Rāshtrakuṭa race was ruling at Mānpur in southern Mahārāshṭra from 4th century A. D. One of these copper-plates, styles the race as Rāshtrakuta and mentions the grant of a village known as Uṇḍikā-vaṭikā by the King Abhimanyu. Another copper-plate found near Kolhāpur is published in the annual reports (1929) of the archæological department of Mysore State. This copper-plate records the grant of the village Pāṇḍuraṅgapalli, along with places at Kāmyaka and Jāval on the bank of Āṇṇe by a king called Avidheya. The third copper-plate was found on the banks of Bhīmā at Hiṅgaṇiberāḍı and is edited firstly by late P. M. Chandorkar and later on by Dr. M. G. Dikshit. In this copper-plate we hear of a gift of a village to a Brāhmaṇ by Mahādevī Shyavālaṅgī, the wife of Devrāj and the mother of Rāshṭrakuṭa king Vibhurāja *alias* Māṇa. This copper-plate was given in the third year of Vibhurājā's reign. The fourth one was found at Dhoṇḍ, which clearly refers to the race Rāshṭrakuṭa. As all plates are found in southern Mahārāshṭra it is safe to infer that Rāshṭrakuṭa Mānāṅka was ruling over Sātārā, Kolhāpur and Sholāpur. The capital Mānāpur is the modern Māna of Sātārā district. In the Pāṇḍuraṅgapalli copper-plate Māṇāṅka is said to rule over the Kuṅtalās. The river Aṇṇe appears to be identical with the modern Yennā or Veṇā, flowing into Kṛṣṇā. Jāvaḷā, mentioned here, is identical with modern Jāvḷī. On the basis of the

Rāshṭrakutās.

evidence of these copper-plates attributed uniformly to the 4th and 5th century A.D., the genealogy of the early Rāshṭrakuṭās can be constructed as follows :—

Mānāṅka (375-400 A.D.)
|
Devarāja (400-425 A.D.)
|
- Māṇa or Vibhurāja (425-447 A.D.)
- Avidheya (447-455 A.D.)
- Bhavishya (455-470 A.D.)
  |
  Abhimanyu (470-490 A.D.)

Paṇḍuraṅgpalli copper-plate mentions the victory of Mānāṅka over the provinces of Ashmaka and Vidharbha. Inscription in cave No. 16 at Ajaṇṭā, speaks of the defeat of the Lord of Kuṅtalās at the hands of

[1] सभ्रूविभङ्गम गृहीत निशात शस्त्रम्— — — —सहसा जिगाय । I. A., XI p. 111.

[2] Vakkeri plates of Kirtivarman II. E.I., V. p. 202.

[3] तत्सूनवो विक्रमादित्य: कीर्तिवर्मा तदात्मज: ।
येन चालुक्यराज्यश्री रन्तरायिन्य भुवंभुवि ॥ Yewoor Inscription. I.A. VIII p. 11.

Viṁdhyasena, the grandson of Vākāṭaka Pravarsena. Rāshṭrakuṭās of Mānpurā and Vākāṭakās of Vatsagulma were rulers of adjacent territories, and hence scuffles between them should have been inevitable as Viṁdhyasena is attributed to 360-400 A.D. The two can be contemporaries. Devarāj who seems to have come to the throne at the beginning of the 5th century A.D., is very probably referred to as the Lord of Kuṁtalās comparable to Indra and referred to in one of the verses of Kuṁtaleśvar dautya attributed to Kālidāsa[1]. Vākāṭakās and Rāshṭrakuṭās owed their allegiance to Chaṁdra-gupta II, who assumed the title of Vikramāditya. This might have given a rise to a temporary peace between the two races. The Vakāṭaka copper plates speak of the marriage of the king Nareṁdrasena with a Kuṁtala princess, named Ajjhitbhaṭṭārikā, who might have belonged to the Rāshtrakuṭa race. With the rise of Vākāṭaka king Harishena, the enmity between the two appears to have been revived as Ajaṇṭā inscription records the defeat of the lord of Kuṁtalas at the hands of Harishena. But this defeat did not overthrow the Rashṭrakuṭa race. In fact after Harishena, the Vākāṭaka race became extinct and Rāshṭrakuṭās rose to power. A copper plate of Rāshṭrakuṭa king Dejjamahārāja, found at Gokāk in Belgaum district (E.I. P 21 p. 289) seems to have been given in the year 532-533 A.D. After this, till Goviṁda I, much is not known. In the Aihole copper plate of 634 A.D. victory of Pulakeshin II over a king Appāyika, with the help of Rāshṭrakuta king Goviṁda, is recorded. The above inscription is silent regarding the advantage, that the king Govinda should have secured from this alliance.

Inscriptional records of the predecessors of Daṁtidurga are not available. It is probable that he was preceded by five generations[2]. Information about Daṁtidurga is available from Samangaḍ plates dated 751 A.D. and the fragmentary Ellorā Dashāvatāra cave inscription. The latter speaks of his victory over the rulers of Lāṭa, Māḷvā and Badāmī and refers to his Nṛpatimahādāna in Ujjayinī which is confirmed by Sanjāṇ plates of Amoghavarsha I. Daṁtidurga's victory over Kīrtivarman II, referred to above, enabled him to occupy Khāndesh, Nāśik, Pooṇā, Sātārā and Kolhāpur districts as is clear from the first spot and the villages mentioned in the Sāmangaḍ plates. In short, Daṁtidurga with his political

[1] पिबति मधुसुगन्धी न्यानमानि प्रियाणा ।
त्वयि विनिहितभारः कुन्तलानामधीशः ॥

[2]

Daṁtivarman	(620 to 630 A.D.).
Indra I	(630 to 650 A.D.).
Goviṁda I	(650 to 670 A.D.).
Karka I	(670 to 690 A.D.).
Indra II	(690 to 710 A.D.).
Daṁtidurga	(710 to 755 A.D.).

Saṁshodhana Muktāval -- Part 3 pp. 143 and 144. The dates here are arrived at on the basis of conjecture according to the author.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
EARLY HISTORY.
Chalukyas.

insight and organising capacity, enlarged his kingdom including Gujarāt, Khāndesh, Berār and northern Mahārashṭra. Dantidurga was succeeded by his uncle Kṛshṇa I, probably because he left no male issue. He completed the Chālukya overthrow and succeeded in his offensive expedition against Gaṅgāwaḍī[1]. Chālukyas of Veṅgī were also subjugated by him in the next expedition carried under Yuvarāja Govinda. Kṛshṇa I was succeeded by his eldest son Govinda Prabhutavarsha Vikramāvaloka, soon after 772 A.D. He gave himself to a life of pleasure and vice immediately after his accession (Karāḍ plates of Kṛshṇa III—E.I. IV pp. 278ff as well as Khardā plates of Karka I 9 A-XII pp. 263ff) This event must have taken place after 779 A.D. as Dhuliā plates of Govinda II in the year speak of Dhruva as his subordinate. Dhruva, one of the ablest of the Rāshṭrakuṭa rulers, not only re-established Rāshṭrakuṭa power in the south but carried on a successful expedition in Northern India and made the Rāshṭrakuṭās an all-India power. Govinda III who succeeded Dhruva was not the eldest son: but proved to be the ablest ruler in the race. He is compared to Pārtha in the Baroḍā plates of his nephew Karka. In fact all territories between the Himālayās and Cape Cāmorin were conquered by his victorious armies. The statement of Vaṇī-Diṇḍori plates that with Govinda III, the Rāshṭrakuṭa dynasty became invincible to the enemies is only a statement of fact. During the long reign of his son namely Amoghavarsha I. the kingdom was weakened by internal struggles. He was a lover of peace and literature. He is taken to be the author or inspirer of Kavirājamarga, the earliest known work on poetics in Kannada. Sañjāṇ plates (V. 44) speak of the sacrifice of his finger by Amoghavarsha to Goddess Mahālakshmī thus bearing evidence to his tendency to practise religion. His leanings towards Jainism are also borne out by contemporary records. The concluding verse of Prashṇottaramālikā informs that its author Amoghavarsha had abdicated due to being convinced of the futility of life. Sañjāṇ plates confirm this. There is a discrepancy between the Saunadatti record of Pṛthivivarmā (J.B.B.R.A.S. x P. 200) speaking of the rule of Kṛshṇa II ruling in 875 A.D. and the Kāñcheri record (I. A. XIII p. 135) referring to Amoghavarsha as a king in 877 A.D. This can be removed by saying that during the concluding years of his reign Amoghavarsha was only a theoretical sovereign, his son Krishna was the *de facto* ruler. This is confirmed by Sañjāṇ plates issued in 861 A.D. that speak of his abdication more than once. Krishna II who was able to come to the throne without any war of succession in about 880 A.D., had to wage wars with most of his neighbours. On the south he had to fight with the Gaṅgās and the Nolambas, on the east with the Veṅgi Chālukyās and on the north with Gujarāt Rāshṭrakuṭās and Gujar Pratihārās. Kṛshna II cannot be considered an able and gifted ruler. He defeated and destroyed the petty

[1] Telegaon plates at Manne in Mysore State (Now Andhra Pradesh)—E.I. XIII, p. 275 ff.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Chalukyas

Gujarāt branch; but was worsted by Chālukya Bhīma of Vengī. With difficulty he maintained his own against Bhoja I of Gurjara-Pratihāra dynasty and Mahendrapāla of Kanāñj. Like his father, he was a Jaina having for his preceptor Guṇabhadra the famous Jaina author of the last five chapters of Ādipurāṇa. Kṛshṇa II was succeeded by Indra III, his grandson, who had a short but brilliant career. He defeated the Paramāra Chief Upendrarāja and rightly taking advantage of the troubles of accession at Kanāñj after the death of Mahendrapāla in 908 A.D., carried out a successful campaign in Northern India finally capturing Kanāñj. He also succeeded in shattering the prestige of Imperial Pratihārās. Indra died in 917 A. D. and was succeeded by his eldest son Amoghavarsha II who had a very short reign of about a year. The Bhādan plates of Parājita Silāhāra as well as Deoli and Karāḍ plates of Kṛshṇa II bear testimony to his rule. The omission in the Sāngli plates of Govinda IV of his name and the mention there, that Govinda IV meditated upon the feat of Indra Nityavarsha and not upon those of Amoghavarsha show that the two brothers were not on good terms. This must have come in the way of the latter. Govinda IV who came to the throne in 918, was the very essence of love and its pleasures as Deoli and Karāḍ plates describe. These plates speak of his having taken to evil ways, which, by no means, is unbelievable. Bhīma II of the Eastern Chālukya dynasty claims to have defeated a great army sent by King Govinda[1]. This Govinda is certainly Govinda IV. This reverse must have hastened his fall. The manner of his losing his kingdom is described by Pampā in his Vikramārjunavijaya where he praises his patron Arikesarin II under the title of Arjuna. Although this has to be accepted with a grain of salt, it is clear from the account that his feudatories rebelled against Govinda and offered the crown to his uncle Amoghavarsha III. Deoli and Karāḍ plates confirm the version of Pampā.

The reign of Amoghavarsha III commenced in 935 A.D. and must have ended after about 4 years only as Kṛshṇa III was already upon the throne in May 940 A.D. when the Deoli plates were issued by him. Amoghavarsha III seems to have been a man of religious fervour; the actual administration during these four years also, was very probably in the hands of the crowned prince Kṛshṇa. As a Yuvarāja, he defeated the Chedis in the north[2]. An inscription found at Jurā in the Maihār state of the Bāghalkhaṇḍ Agency, eulogizes Kṛṣṇa III in Kannada. This confirms his conquest of Chitrakuṭa and Kālañjara. Amoghavarsha III died some time after the 3rd of December 939 and before May 940 A.D. Kṛshṇa III, who must have peacefully ascended to the throne some time in December 939 A.D., invaded the Chola kingdom during the 3rd year of his reign. The

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[1] Epigraphica Indica VIII, p. 1127.

[2] This conclusion was arrived at by the late Dr. A. S. Altekar after analysing the Deoli plates. For the details see his work. "The Rashtrakutas and their times" pp. 112-144.

[3] Cf. Sriharsadeva iti Khottigadevalaksmim Jagraha yo Yudhi .... Epigraphica Indica, I, p. 235.

CHAPTER 2. — History. EARLY HISTORY. Chalukyas.

state in the Karāḍ plates regarding the defeat of the Pāṇḍyās and the Keraḷās at the hands of Kṛshṇa III gets corroboration from Somadeva who completed his work Yashatilaka about two months later than the issue of the Karāḍ plates of Kṛshṇa III i.e. in May 959 A.D. Jurā inscription refers to Kṛshṇa's conquest of Kāñchī and Tañjorā. These conquests in the south, affected his position in the north. Alienating the sympathies of his Cheḍi relatives was also responsible for these reverses during the latter part of his reign. Any way Kṛshṇa III completed his mastery over the whole of the country towards the south of the Narmadā by handing over the throne of Veñzi to his ally. An inscription from Kollāgallu, dated Sunday, the 6th day of the bright half of Kshaya Phālguna of Saka 889 A.D. (17th February 968 A.D.) mentions the death of this able monarch during the year and speaks of Khoṭṭigā's succession. In the reign of this king, the decline of the Rāshtrakuṭa power set in. Udaipur *praṣasti* of the kings of Māḷvā distinctly mentions the capture of royal glory and splendour of Khoṭṭigadeva by Shriharsha. This is corroborated by Dhanapāla, the author of Paiyālacchi, who in V. 276 mentions that the work was written in Dhārā in Vikrama Saṁvat 1029 (i.e. 972-73 A.D.) when Mānyakheta, the Rāshṭrakuṭa capital was sacked by the King of Māḷvā. Khoṭṭiga was alive in 972 A.D. when this event took place. He seems to have met his death in the war with the Paramārās as his successor is found issuing the Karāḍ plates[1] in September of the same year. Thus the succession of Karka II can be placed in the Middle of 972 A.D. He was on the throne for hardly eighteen months, when he was defeated and ousted from the throne by Taila II, a nephew of Yuvarāja II, the reigning Cheḍi monarch. According to the inscription[2] of Vikramāditya VI, the Saka year in which the overthrow of the Rāshṭrakuṭās took place was Srimukha i.e. Saka 895; somtime between March 973 and March 974 A.D.; but as the latest known date[3] of Karka is July 973, it is safe to assume that his defeat must have taken place in the autumn or winter of 973 A.D. The fall of the Rāshṭrakuta empire must be considered to be dramatic.

Vishnukundins.

Before passing on to the reign of Taila II of later Chālukyās over Sātārā, a reference to the Vishṇukuṇḍins from Āñdhra is necessary. These Vishṇukuṇḍins[4] appear to have hailed from Vishṇukoṇḍā, a place at a distance of fifty miles to the south of the river Kṛshṇā in Andhra Pradesh. This place even now retains fragmentary remains and a fort, in ruinous condition. Vikramamaheṅdra. the progenitor of this race seems to have flourished somewhere in 450 A.D. His son. Goviṅda Varmā has been the contemporary of the illustrious Vākātaka king Harisena who after having conquered the

[1] Epigraphica Indica XII, p. 263.

[2] Indian Antiquary XXI, p 167.

[3] Gundur inscription, Indian Antiquary XII, p. 272 (Asadha month).

[4] For details see the article of Prachin Maharashtratil Vishnukundi Rajavat (प्राचीन महाराष्ट्रांतील विष्णुकुंडी राजवट from Sanshodhanamuktavali Part II (संशोधनमुक्तावलि सर दुसरा) of Maha Mahopadhaya Dr V. V. Mirashi.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Vishnukundins.

Andhra country[1] appears to have put Govindavarmā on the throne. Govindavarmā was the first among the Vishṇukuṇḍins to assume the title Mahārāja, indicative of his rule over the territory. The fact that Mādhavavarmā I, his son, has married a Vākāṭaka princess, is envisaged by inscriptions. He appears to have helped Hārisenā's grandson in getting control over Vidarbha. After Hārisena, the Vākāṭaka empire, however, suffered from a downfall, ultimately helping this scion of the Vishṇukuṇḍins in establishing his rule over southern Mahārāshṭra and Kuṅtala. Two copper-plates of Madhavavarmā have been found. Copper-plates of his descendants also give good information about him. He was a champion of *Vedic* religion and distinguished himself by performing 11 Ashavamedha sacrifices, certainly a rare feat among ancient kings of his land. Along with Aṅdhra, Kuṅtala and southern Mahārāhshṭra, he appears to have brought under his thumb the southern Kosala i.e. *modern Chhattisgad* as is clear from the title in one of his Copper-plates viz. 'trivaranagarbhavanagataparanayuvatinandanah' or trivaranagarabhavanagataparamyuvatijamaviharanarati'. The king of Trivaranagara is identical with Tivaradeva whose copper-plates have been found in Rājim and Phulzar near Chhattisgaḍ. Mādhavavarmā had defeated him. Another copper-plate found at Khānāpur in Sāṅgli district[2] refers to the gift of a village, on the bank of Kṛshṇā-veṇṇā named Raṭṭurāk along with the houses in the vicinity, to a Brāhmaṇ on the full-moon day in the month of Vaishākha by the king Madhavavarmā. The copper-plate was attributed to the 5th or 6th century A D. on the basis of calligraphic evidence. This has also been finally attributed to this king Mādhavavarmā of Vishṇukuṇḍins[3]. This was issued in the 40th year of his reign. As his sons had predeceased him, the kingdom was divided between his grandsons. One of these namely Mādhavavarman II is styled as 'trikutamalayadhipatih' in his copper-plate. After Mādhavavarman II, the Rāshṭrakuṭās became powerful in southern Mahārāshtra and at about 550 A.D. Kalachuris of Mahishmati came to establish their power in northern Mahārāshṭra as well as Vidarbha. This leads to the inference that the Vishṇukuṇḍins lost their power; although they continued to rule in their province namely Andhra till the 7th century A. D. before being vanquished by the illustrious Chālukya ruler Pulkeshin II.

Later Chalukyas.

Later Chālukyās.—Taila II, who overthrew Rāshṭrakuṭa Karka II (973-74 A.D.) claims to be a remote descendant of Chālukya dynasty of Badāmi Two inscriptions, dated A.D. 957 and 965, reveal that Taila II was, in the early part of his life, a vassal of the Rāshṭrakuta Kṛshṇa III in Tardavāḍī now identified with the small village of Tāḍḍevāḍī on the south bank of the Bhīmā, in the Iṅdi Taluka, Bijāpur District. Taila I was required to fight with a number of

[1] Inscription from Ajanta Cave No. 16.

[2] Published by Shri Y. R. Gupte in the Quarterly Volume VIII, p. 163, Bharat Itihasa Samshodhaka Mandal (V 8, p. 163).

[3] 'Prachin maharashtratil visnukundi rajavat' Samsodhan Muktavali sar 2, p. 100-107 (Maha Mahopadhaya Dr. Mirashi).

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY HISTORY

Later Chalukyas

other Rāshṭrakuṭa claimants, but was able to hold his own against all of them. Ultimately the feudatories of the Rāshṭrakuṭās transferred their allegiance to him. He assumed the titles Ahavamalla and Bhuvanaikamalla and his capital was Mānyakheta up to A.D. 993. His victory over the Paramārās made him a master of the southern part of the Paramāra kingdom. Taila II and his successors are mentioned as kings of Karṇāṭa, Kuṅtala, or Rattapadi. The kingdom of the Chālukyās at the time included the three districts of the south *viz.* Shimogā, Chitaḷdurg and Bellāry, southern Koṅkaṇ and the border of Northern Koṅkan in the west, and extended up to the upper course of the Godāvari and possibly even up to the Narmadā in the North. The last known date of Taila II from an inscription is A.D. 996. He was succeeded by his son Satyāsraya in 996 A.D. The Silāhārās of northern Koṅkaṇ fell a victim to his attack. Satyāsraya assumed the titles of Irivabedariga, Ahavamalla and Akalārikacharita. Leading aggressive campaigns against his neighbours in the south, Satyāsraya brought all territories up to the Kurnool and Guṅtūr districts. In the latter district, his stone inscription (A.D. 1006) is found. During the reign of his successor Vikramāditya V (A.D. 1008-1014), the Chālukyās started expanding their kingdom in the east. Vikramāditya I was followed by his younger brother Ayyāna II (A.D. 1014) who ruled for a year only and was followed by his youngest brother Jayasiṁha II in or before 1015 A.D. The dates of his inscriptions range from 1015 A.D. to 1043 A.D. He assumed the titles of Jagadākamalla II, Trailokyamalla, Mallikāmoda and Vikramasiṁha. Several inscriptions dated in 1028 A.D. and subsequent year reveal that he ruled from his capital Kalyāṇa or Kalyāṇi, modern Kalyāṇi in Bidar. Mysore The Chālukya capital appears to have shifted from Mānyakheta sometime after 993 A.D. Jayasiṁha II asserted his supremacy over the branch of the Silāhāra dynasty that ruled at Karahāṭaka, modern Karāḍ in the Sātārā district from the 10th century A.D. Sometime during the rule of this king, the Chālukya kingdom appears to have suffered from internecine quarrels. His son Someshvara I (1043 to 1068 A.D.) who assumed the titles of Ahavamalla, Rājanārāyaṇa and Viramartaṇḍa had to fight with the Choḷās as well as other dynasties of his time. He also succeeded in subduing the revolt of the Yādavās of Seuna-desa shortly before 1060 A.D. Someshvara II, his son, ruled from 1068 to 1076 A.D. After him his brother Vikramāditya VI came to the throne in 1076 A.D. He started a new era, called after his name. He married the Silāhāra princess Chaṅdralekhā and cemented his friendship with the dynasty Hoysalās of Gaṅgadem, Yādavās of Seunā-desa, Kadaṁbās of Goā, Pāṇḍyās of Nolaṁbavāḍi and others accepted his supremacy. His court was graced by illustrious writers like Bilhaṇa, the author of Mitāksara. The last known date of this great king is 1128 A.D. His son Someshvara III (1126-1138 A.D.) was given the honorific title Sarvajna-bhūpa or Sarvajna-Chakravarti for his extensive knowledge. He was the author of Abhilāshitārtha-chiṅtāmaṇi and Mānasollāsa. Someshvara III was succeeded by Jagadekamalla (1138 to 1151 A.D.) who was followed by Taila III who came to

CHAPTER 2.

History.

EARLY HISTORY.

Later Chalukyas.

the throne in 1151 A.D. Sometime before 1153 A.D., he was taken a prisoner by Kākatiya Prola of Teliṅgaṇa, thus inflicting a shattering blow to the Chālukya Empire. Emboldened by this reverse of the Chālukyās, Bijjala, a feudatory chief belonging to Kalachuri dynasty wrested the sovereignty of Kātyāṇa from Taila III in 1156 A.D. Several inscriptions confirm this fact. He assumed the titles of Tribhuvanamalla, Niśśākamalla and Giridurgamalla. The statements in some of the inscriptions of his successors that he invaded Simhala, Nepala, Magadha, etc. are hyperboles only. Someshvara, who assumed the title Riyā-Murāri ascended the throne in 1168 according to inscriptional evidence. He conquered Choḷa, Lāṭa, and Gurjara countries before 1172 A.D.. His last known date is 1177 A.D. An inscription of the reign of his younger brother Saṅkarṇa II makes a very extravagant claim of his conquest of Gāṇḍa, Magadha, Turushka and Sinihāla; but this must be a accepted with a grain of salt. He was succeeded by his younger brother Ahavamalla (1180 A.D.) who carried on campaigns against his neighbours. He worsted in battle the Silāhāra Aparāditya II of Northern Koṅkan and the Paramāra Vindhyavarman of Māḷvā. In 1181 A.D., however, Someshvara IV of the Chālukya dynasty succeeded in wresting from him, the larger portion of the Deccan including Kalyāṇa. The last known date of Ahavamalla is 1183 A.D. He was succeeded by his younger brother Siṅghāṇa, who, however, completely surrendered to Someshvara IV in 1183-84 A.D. An inscription dated 1184 A.D. mentions him as a feudatory of Someshvara IV.

Chālukya Someshvara IV, son of Taila III, thus was successful in recovering his ancestral kingdom. This is confirmed by an inscription from Kurgoḍ, in the Bellāry Taluka of the Bellāry District dated 1181-82 A.D. Someshvara IV ruled the Deccan up to the Godāvari river till 1184 A.D. The last known date of his rule over Bellary and Shimogā Districts is 1189 A.D. In this year, he was deprived of his supremacy by Yādava Bhillama, forcing him to take shelter with Kādaiṁta Jayakesin III of Goā who accepted his rule up to 1198 A.D.. Nothing further about him is known.

Silaharas.

Silahārās.--Three distinct families bearing the name Silāhārās were ruling respectively northern Koṅkaṇ, southern Koṅkaṇ and the southern Mahārāshṭra consisting of the districts of Kolhāpur, Miraj and Karāḍ. All of them assumed the title Tagārapura-varadhishvara. This indicates that they ruled the city of Tagārā at one time. These families were founded in the times of Rāshṭrakuṭās and served as their feudatories. The first two of these families founded about the middle of the 9th century A.D. passed through trying circumstances during the rule of the later Chālukyās of Kalyāṇi. This has been already mentioned. The third Silāhāra family was founded by Jatigā in 10th century A.D. with its capital probably at Karāḍ. This family had a more distinguished career as its scions ruled as independent or semi-independent kings after the fall of the Rāshṭrakuṭa empire. It is said that Gāṅdarāditya of this family who probably ruled in the

first half of the 12th century A.D. became famous by feeding a hundred thousand Brāhmaṇās and constructing a large tank named Caṇḍasamudra in the Miraj District with the installation of the image of Buddha, Jina and Shiva.

Vijayāditya, the son and successor of Gāndāraditya, helped the northern Silāhārās in recovering their independence and assisted Bijjala in his revolt against later Chālukyās. Kalachuris were unable to worst Bhoja II, Vijayadityā's son, but Siṅghāṇa succeeded in overthrowing him and annexing the kingdom of Silāhārās to the Yādava dominions.

The Silāhārās carried the Suvaraṇa-Garuḍa-Dhvaja and assumed the title Sriman-Mahālakshmi-labdha-vara-prasāda; which proclaims Mahālakshmi as their tutelary deity. An epigraphic record[1] speaks of their descent from Jimutaketu who gave his life to Garuḍa for saving serpents, a story forming the basis of Nāgānaṅda of Shriharsha. This record styles, the Silāhāra family as 'the best of the Siṁhāla kings' thus indicating a real or probably fancied relation with the island of Ceylon.

Yadavas of Devagiri.

Yādavās of Devagiri.—The predecessors of Yādavās of Devagiri, who ruled over Khāndesh, Nāśik and Ahmadnagar Districts, were the vassals of the Rāshtrakuṭās of Mānyakheta and the Chālukyās of Kalyāṇi for a period of over three hundred years. Dṛdhaprahāra, the founder of the family hailing from Dhvārāvatipura or modern Dvārakā in Kāthiāwār, flourished in the first half of the 9th century A.D. and had Chaṅdrādityapura or modern Chāṅdor in Nāśik district as his capital. His son Seunāchaṅdra I founded a city called Seunāpura and also gave the name Seun-desa to the country on the confines of Daṇḍaka and included Devagiri, modern Daulatābād, in the Auraṅgābād district. Inscriptions of the successors of Seunachaṅdra style themselves as Seunās. Karṇa, one of the remote successors of this Seunāchaṅdra I had as son Bhillama V who was the first independent king of the race.

Bhillama ascended the throne in 1185 A.D. This was the time of a great upheaval in the Deccan. Failure of Chālukya Someshvara IV in consolidating his power, emboldened him in bidding for a paramount power in the Deccan. With the help of his able generals, he wrested power and territories from Someshvara IV including Kalyāṇa in 1189 A.D. Inscriptions of Bhillamā's reign refer to his supermacy over Belvolā, Tardāvaḍī and Mādagihār in the old Jath State. The statement of the Muṭgi inscription that he secured victories over the Kalṅigās, Gauḍās, Vashigās, Arigās, Nāpāḷās and the Pāñchālās seems to be very extravagant. According to Hemādri, Bhillama founded the city of Devagiri and probably made it his capital. The earliest mention of Devagiri as the capital of Seunās is found in an inscription of Jaitugi or Jartrapāla, son of

[1] Epigraphica Indica, III, 192.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EARLY HISTORY.
Yadavas of Devagiri.

Bhillama in 1196 A.D. Inscriptional evidence reveals that Bhillama associated with him his son in the Government from A.D. 1191 and died shortly after 1193 A.D. During the closing years of his reign he had to fight with Ballāḷa II of Hoyasalās with no success. Jaitugi also failed to dislodge Ballāḷa II from his position. Nevertheless the kingdom of Seunās during Jaitugi's reign extended upto the confluence of Kṛshṇa and Tuṅgabhadrā bringing Seunās near Kākatiyās who were also defeated by Jaitugi. Jaitugi ruled up to 1210 (1191 to 1210) A.D. and was succeeded by his son Siṅghāṇa about the year 1210 (1210-1247 A.D.).

Siṅghāṇa was certainly the most distinguished member of the family. He put an end to the rule of the Kolhāpur branch of the Silāhāra family by overthrowing Bhoja II. With the exception of powerful Hoyasals, Siṅghāṇa was able to assert supremacy over all kingdoms in the south. Siṅghāṇā's empire extended from Khāndesh up to the Shimogā and Anantpur districts, and from the western coast (including Northern Koṅkaṇ) up to the eastern parts of Hyderābād and Berār. During the reign of this king, Shāraṅgdhara composed his famous treatise on music called Sāṅgitā-ratnākara. Siṅghāṇa was on the throne up to June 1247 A.D. Kṛshṇa, his grandson, came to the throne in 1247 A.D., and continued Siṅghāṇā's policy of expanding the Seunā empire in all directions. Stone inscriptions of Kṛshṇa found in the Shimogā, Chitaḷdurg, Bellāry, Dhārvār and Beḷgāṅv districts show that he succeeded in retaining the bounds of the kingdom of his grandfather Jalhāṇa. The author of Suktimuktāvali was his counsellor and commander. Kṛshṇa appointed Mahādeva, his brother, as heir apparent who succeeded him in 1261 A.D., Mahādeva continued hostilities with the Hoysalās, and Silāhārās of Northern Koṅkaṇ, the Vāghelās of Gujarāt, the Parmārās of Māḷvā and the Kākatiyās of Teluṅgā country. His attempt to penetrate into the heart of the Hoyasala kingdom was crowned with a failure. Hemādri, the founder of Hemāḍapanti architecture, was his minister. Mahādeva closed his reign in 1270-1271 A.D. Civil war between his son Āmna and Rāmachandra, the son of King Kṛshṇa resulted into the treacherous capture and slaughter of the former by the latter. Rāmachandra in the early years of his rule made a frantic effort to crush the power of Hoyasalās, but was unable to achieve the end. He also failed in overcoming Vāghelā Sarāṅgadeva. He, however, succeeded in defeating the Chiefs of Dahālā (modern Jabalpur), Vijrakāra (modern Vairāgarah in Madhya Pradesh) and Bhāṇḍagara (modern Bhaṇḍārā in the Vidarbha region of Maharashtra). Inscriptions of Rāmachandra show that he was able to retain the Seunā kingdom during the early days of his rule. But the prestige of the Seunā kingdom was irretrievably damaged on account of Rāmachandra's failure to save his capital from being plundered by Alā-ud-din Khilji the governor of Kārā, who invaded Devagiri by way of Elichpur in 1296 A.D.. Hereditary enemies now pressed hard

CHAPTER 2.

History.
EARLY HISTORY.
Yadavas of Devagiri.

upon them. Kākatiya Pratāparudra succeeded in pushing the western border of his empire upto Meḍak and Rāichur. In A.D. 1305, Hoyasala Ballāḷa III wrested from Rāmchandra Bānāvasi, Sāṅtāliga and Kogāli. In fact, there is no evidence to prove that Shimogā and Chitaldurg districts were under the rule of Seunās after 1300 A.D.. The Deccan was again raided by Muslims, when Seunās were fighting for defence in the south. Rāmachandra had to swerve from his allegiance to the Government of Delhi due to strained relations and in 1307 A.D. Alā-ud-din Khilji sent Malik-Nāib Kāfur with a great army, who overran the Seunā kingdom and took Rāmachandra a prisoner to Delhi. Rāmachandra was, however, released after a period of six months and was allowed to rule his kingdom as a vassal under the *Sultanate* army for an invasion of Teliṅgana country. Rāmachandra helped Muslims against Hoyasala Ballāḷa III of Dorasamudra in 1311.

Rāmachandra was succeeded by his son Shaṅkaradeva in 1311 A.D. who antagonised the Sultān by his hostile activities. In A.D. 1313, Malik-Nāib directed an expedition against Shaṅkaradeva, killed him and assumed the government of Devagiri. Alā-ud-din's death caused confusion in Delhi. Taking advantage of this, Harapāladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmachandra[1] declared his independence and captured the fort of Devagiri with the help of Rāghava, the minister of Rāmachandra. But in 1318 A.D.[2] Mubārak the son and successor of Alā-ud-din, recovered Devagiri by defeating and killing Harapāladeva or Haripāla. Rāghava suffered defeat at the hands of Khusrāv Khān, Mubārak's commander. Thus the kingdom of Seunās passed into the hands of Muslims in 1318 A.D.

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[1] The Struggle for Empire p. 48.

[2] Ibid., p. 40.

[3] Ibid., p. 42.

Muslim Rule.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

Muslim Rule.
Delhi Governors.

The first Musalman invasion of the Deccan took place in 1296[1] but the power of the Devagiri Yādavās was not extinguished till 1318[2]. From 1318 Mahārāshtra began to be ruled by governors appointed from Delhi and stationed at Devagiri. The Delhi emperor Muhammad Tughlag (1325-51) made Devagiri his capital and changed its name to Daulatābād or the Abode of Wealth. In 1341 Musalmān exactions caused a general revolt in the Deccan, which, according to Ferishta, was so successful that in 1344 Muhammad had no part of his Deccan territories left him except Daulatābād. In 1345 there was widespread disorder, and the Delhi officers plundered and wasted the country[3]. These cruelties led to the revolt of the Deccan nobles in 1347 under the able leadership of an Afghan soldier named Hasan Gangu bearing the title Zafar Khān. The Nobles were successful, and freed the Deccan from dependence

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[1] Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan Vol. VI, pp. 15-16.

[1] It was not Ram Dev but his son Sangama who gave shelter to the refugee king of Gujarat and Ram Dev denounced his son and asked Ala-ud-din to take steps to restore his authority. This happened after the unsuccessful expedition of Alauddin against Warangal in 1303-04 (K.A.N. Sastri—History of South India, p. 219).

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 304 In 1296 (Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan: Vol. VI, p. 31) Ramdev the ruling king of Devagiri or Devgad was surprised in his capital by Ala-ud-din Khilji, the nephew of the Delhi emperor Jalal-ud-din Khilji, and forced to pay tribute. In 1297, Ramdev gave shelter to Rai Karan the refugee king of Gujarat, and neglected to pay tribute for three years (Ditto, I. 365). In 1306-07 Malik Kafur, Ala-ud-din's general reduced the greater part of Maharashtra, distributed it among his officers, and confirmed Ramdev in his allegiance (Ditto, I. 369). In March 1307 (Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Vol. VI, p. 31), Malik Kafur, on his way to Telingan was received with great hospitality at Devgad by Ramdev (Ditto, I. 371). In 1311 (Ramdev died in 1311, Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Vol. VI, p. 38) as Ramdev was succeeded by his son Shankardev (the name of Ramdev Rao's son is Sirighanadev and not Shankardev—Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Vol. VI, p. 48) who was not well affected to the Musalmans, Malik Kafur on his way to the Karnatak left a force at the town of Paithan on the left bank of the Godavari to overawe the Yadavas (Ditto, I. 373). In 1313 Malik Kafur marched a fourth time into the Deccan, seized and put Shankardev to death, wasted Maharashtra, and fixed his residence at Devgad (Ditto, I. 379), where he remained till Ala-ud-din in his last illness ordered him to Delhi. During Malik Kafur's absence at Delhi, Harpaldev the son-in-law of Ramdev stirred the Deccan to arms, drove out many Musalman garrisons, and with the aid of the other Deccan chiefs recovered Maharashtra. In 1318 Mubarik Khilji, Ala-ud-din's son and successor, marched to the Deccan to chastise Harpaldev who fled at the approach of the Musalmans, and was pursued, seized, and flayed alive. Mubarik appointed Malik yak Laki, one of his father's slaves, to command in the Deccan, and returned to Delhi (Ditto, I. 389).

[3] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 432-33.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Bahamanis
1347-1489

on Northern India[1]. Hasan founded a dynasty, which in honour of his patron, a Brāhmaṇ he called Bahamani, and which held the command of the Deccan for nearly 150 years. The Bahamani capital was first fixed at Gulbargā about 180 miles east of Sātārā and in 1426 was removed to Bedar or Ahmadābād-Bedar about 100 miles further east. By 1351 Alā-ud-din Hasan Gaṅgu Bahamani, by treating the local chiefs and authorities in a liberal and friendly spirit, had brought under his power every part of the Deccan which had previously been subject to the throne of Delhi[2]. In 1357, Alā-ud-din divided his kingdom into four provinces or *tarfs*, over each of which he set a provincial governor or *tarfdār*. Sātārā formed part of the provinces of Gulbargā which extended from Gulbargā as far west as Dabhol and south as far as Rāichur and Mudgal in the Nizām's territory. Alā-ud-din apparently had control over the whole of Sātārā, except the hilly west which with the

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 285-91. Hassan Gangu, the first Bahamani king, was an Afghan of the lowest rank and a native of Delhi. He farmed a small plot of land belonging to a Brahman astrologer named Gangu who was in favour with the king of Delhi. Having accidentally found a treasure in his field, Hasan had the honesty to give notice of it to his landlord. The astrologer was so struck with his integrity that he exerted his influence at court to advance Hasan's fortunes. Hasan thus rose to a great station in the Deccan, where his merit marked him out among his equals as their leader in their revolt. He assumed the name of Gangu in gratitude to his benefactor, and from a similar motive added that of Bahamani or Brahmani by which his dynasty was afterwards distinguished. About the origin and early history of Hasan there is much dispute and Wolsley Haig traces his descent to an ancient Persian hero, (*see* CHI, III 372) but Dr. P. M. Joshi is right when he says "On the whole it is much safer to leave the question open as to the origin and early history of Hasan". Earlier he remarks "Firishta therefore cannot be dismissed off hand as 'absurd'". (*See* Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan Vol. VI p. 249) Elphinstone's History of India, 666. The Bahamani dynasty consisted of the following eighteen kings, who were supreme for nearly 150 years (1347-1490) and continued in power for about thirty years more:

The Bahamanis, 1347-1526 (Briggs' Ferishta, Vol. II)

Name.	Date.	Name.	Date.
Ala-ud-din Bahaman (Hasan Gangu).	1347-1358.	Humayun ..	1457-1461.
Muhammad I	1358-1375.	Nizam ..	1461-1463.
Mujahid	1375-1378.	Muhammad II	1463-1482.
Daud	1378.	Mahmud II ..	1482-1518.
Mahmud I	1378-1397.		
		Nominal Kings.	
Ghias-ud-din	1397.		
Shams-ud-din	1397.	Ahmad II ..	1518-1520.
Firoz	1397-1422.	Ala-ud-din III	1520-1522.
Ahmad I	1422-1435.	Vali ..	1522-1526.
Ala-ud-din II	1435-1457.	Kalim ..	1526.

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, II, 291-292; Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. I p. 45.

Konkan was not reduced till a century later. In the latter part of the fourteenth century, under the rule of Muhammad Shah Bahamani (1358-1375), the banditti which for ages had harassed the trade of the Deccan were broken and scattered, and the people enjoyed peace and good government[1]. This period of prosperity, when the fort of Sātārā [Sātārā fort is said to have been built in 1190 A. D. by Silāhār Bhoj II of Kolhāpur (History of Kolhāpur in Marāṭhī Vol. I Part I, p. 170 by B. P. Moḍak) Sātārā may have been repaired later] and many other forts were probably built, was followed by the awful calamity of the Durgā Devi famine, when the country is said to have been reduced to a desert by twelve rainless years (1396-1407). In the first years of the famine Mahmud Shah Bahamani (1378-1397), is said to have kept ten thousand bullocks to bring grain from Gujarāt to the Deccan, and to have founded seven orphan schools in the leading towns in his dominions[2]. No efforts of any rulers could preserve order of life, through so long a series of fatal years. Whole districts were left without people, and the strong places fell from the Musalmāns into the hands of local chiefs[3]. Before the country could recover, it was again wasted by two rainless years in 1421 and 1422. Multitudes of cattle died and the people broke into revolt[4]. In 1429 Malik-ut-Tujjār the governor of Daulatābād, with the hereditary officers or *deshmukhs*, went through the country restoring order. Their first operations were against some Rāmoshis in Khaṭāv Desh and a body of banditti that infested the Mahādev hills. The army next marched to Wāi and reduced several forts. So entirely had the country fallen waste that the old villages had disappeared and fresh villages had to be formed, which generally included the lands of two or three old villages. Lands were given to all who would till them, free of rent for the first year and for a horse-bag of grain for the second year. This settlement was entrusted to Dādu Narsu Kāḷe, an experienced Brāhman, and to a Turkish eunuch of the Court[5]. In 1453, Malik-ut-Tujjār, who was ordered to reduce the sea coast, of Konkan forts, fixed his head-quarters at Chākaṇ, a small fort eighteen miles north of Pooṇā, and, after reducing several chiefs, laid siege to a fort whose chief was named Shirke who he speedily obliged to surrender and to deliver himself and family into his hands. Malik-ut-Tujjār insisted that Shirke should embrace the Muhammedan faith or be put to death. Shirke on this, assuming an air of great humility, represented that there existed between him and Shankar Rāy of Khelṇā or Vishāḷgaḍ in Kolhāpur a family jealousy, and that should he become a Muhammedan, his rival, on Malik-ut-Tujjār's retreat, would taunt him with ignominy and excite his own family and subjects

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 325-326.

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 349-350. These seven towns were Cheul, Dabhol, Elichpur, Daulatabad, Bedar, Gulbarga and Kandhar.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 50.

[4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 405-06.

[5] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I p. 51.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MUSLIM RULE.

Bahamanis 1347-1489.

to revolt. He further promised to accept the Muhammedan faith if Malik-ut-Tujjār would reduce his rival, and agreed to guide him and his forces through the woody and very difficult country to Shaṅkar's dominions. Malik-ut-Tujjār marched against the chief of Kheḷṇā but was treacherously surrounded and killed in the woods by Shirke[1]. About this time (1453-1480) no references have been traced to Sātārā places except to Wāi and Māṇ which are mentioned as military posts, whose troops in 1464 were ordered to join Mahmud Gāvān in his Koṅkaṇ expedition[2]. In 1460, and twelve years later in 1472 and 1473, failure of rain so wasted the country that in 1474 when rain fell, scarcely any one was left to till the land[3]. The power and turbulence of their provincial governors was a source of weakness and danger to Bahamani rule. To remove this evil Mahmud Gāvān, the very learned and able minister of Muhammad Shah Bahamani II (1463-1482), framed a scheme under which the Bahamani territories were divided into eight instead of into four provinces. Sātārā was included under Bijāpūr, one of the two divisions into which Gulbargā was divided, and was placed under Khwājā Gāvān himself. In each province only one fort was held in the governor's hands; all other forts were entrusted to captains and garrisons appointed and paid from headquarters; the pay of the captains was greatly increased and they were strictly compelled to keep their garrisons at their full strength[4] This scheme for reducing their power brought on the minister the hatred of the leading nobles. They brought false charges of disloyalty against Mahmud Gāvān. The king was weak enough to believe them and foolish enough to order the minister's execution, a loss which Bahamani power never recovered[5].

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. pp. 438-39.

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 483.

[3] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 483, 493, 494.

[4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 503, 504.

[5] Of the Bahamani kings Muhammad II was a scholar of Arabic and Persian. He attracted Arab and Persian people to the Deccan in order to make the country the seat of learning and culture. He appointed teachers in various centres of the kingdom and large cities and towns. This immigration of Arabs and Persians had a great effect upon the culture and future history of the Deccan. With this influence which was definitely foreign in character, we find the native Hindu art influencing the cultural structure of the Bahamanis. We find that in the reign of Firoz the relations between Hindus and Muslims were excellent and the influence of Hindu culture was creeping even though slowly, in the sacred buildings of the Bahamanis. In a word the twenty-two years in interregnum between the death of Muhammad I and the accession of Firoz are really a period of struggle between the cultures immerging into an atmoshpere of an attempted synthesis of purely Hindu forms, the foreign influence represented by the Afaqis and the northern tradition represented by the Bahamanis.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MUSLIM RULE.

Adil Shahi 1489-1686.

In 1481, on the death of Mahmud Gāvān, his estate of Bijāpūr including Sātārā was conferred on Yusuf Ādil Khān the future founder of the Ādil Shāhi dynasty of Bijāpūr[1], who was appointed *tarafdār* or provincial governor, while Dariā Khān Fakr-ul-mulk, Mallu Khān,

[1] Yusuf Adil Shah of Bijapur was a Turk, a son of Amurath Sultan (1421-1451) of Constantinople. He founded the family of the Adil Shahi ruler of Bijapur consisting of nine sovereigns whose rule lasted nearly 200 years. At the same time the Nizam Shahi dynasty under Ahmad Nizam was established at Ahmadnagar (1490-1636), the Kutb Shahi dynasty under Sultan Kutb-ul-mulk at Golkonda (1512-1609), and the Barid Shahi under Kasim Barid at Bedar (1492-1609). Though kings, nominally supreme, continued to rule as late as 1526, the supremacy of the Bahamanis may be said to have ceased when the Bijapur (1489) and Ahmadnagar (1490) governors threw off their allegiance and established themselves as independent rulers. According to Colonel Meadows Taylor, except Humayun Shah (1457-1461), the Bahamani kings protected their people and governed them justly and well. Among the Deccan Hindus all elements of social union and local government were preserved and strengthened by the Musalmans, who, without interfering with or remodelling local institutions and hereditary offices, turned them to their own use. Persian and Arabic education was extended by village schools attached to mosques and endowed with lands. This tended to the spread of the literature and faith of the rulers, and the effects of the education can still be traced through the Bahamani dominions. A large foreign commerce centred in Bedar, the capital of the Deccan, which was visited by merchants and travellers from all countries. The Bahamani kings made few public works. There were no water works, no roads or bridges, and no public inns or posts. Their chief works were huge castles which after 500 years are as perfect as when they were built. These forts have glacis and counterscarps, covered ways, traverses, flanking bastions with curtains and intermediate towers, broad wet and dry ditches, and in all plain fortresses a faussebraye or rampart-mound with bastions and towers in addition to main rampart. No forcible conversion of masses of Hindus seems to have taken place. A constant stream of foreigners poured in from Persia, Arabia, Tartary, Afghanistan, and Abyssinia. These foreigners, who served chiefly as soldiers, married Hindus and created the new Muhammedan population of the Deccan. The names and dates of the Ahmadnagar and Bijapur kings are :—

Ahmadnagar and Bijapur Kings, 1489-1686 (Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 704)

Ahmadnagar		Bijapur	
Name.	Date	Name	Date
Ahmad I	.. 1490-1509	Yusuf	.. 1489-1510.
Burhan	.. 1509-1553	Ismael	.. 1510-1534.
Husain I	.. 1553-1565	Mallu	.. 1534.
Murtaza	.. 1565-1586	Ibrahim I	.. 1534-1558.
Husain II	.. 1586-1589	Ali I	.. 1558-1580.
Ismail	.. 1589-1591	Ibrahim II	.. 1580-1627.
Burhan II	.. 1591-1595	Mahmud	.. 1627-1657.
Ibrahim	.. 1595	Ali II	.. 1657-1672.
Bahadur	.. 1596	Shikandar	.. 1672-1686.
Ahmad II	.. 1596-1603		
Murtaza II	.. 1603-1630		
Husain III	.. 1630-1633		
Murtaza III	.. 1633-1636		

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.

and most of the Moghal Officers attached to him obtained estates in the province. In 1489 Yusuf Ādil Khān asserted his independence and proclaimed himself king. He wrested many forts from the governors of Mahmud Shah Bahamani II (1482-1518), and subdued all the country from the river Bhīmā to Bijāpūr[1]. In 1551 Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, late commander-in-chief of the Ahmadnagar army who had taken refuge in Berār and who at the request of the Bijāpūr king had come to Bijāpūr was given considerable estates in Sātārā. In the battle of Sholāpūr against Ahmadnagar in the same year Ibrāhim Ādil Shah suspected Saif Ain-ul-Mulk of treachery, and he, in consequence, retired to Māṇ in east Sātārā, collected the revenue, and divided them among his troops. Ibrāhim Ādil Shah sent one of his officers with 5,000 horse to expel Ain-ul-Mulk, but the Bijāpūr troops were defeated. Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, growing bolder by success, gathered the revenues of many districts including Vālvā in Sangli. Ibrāhim next sent against him 10,000 horse and foot under Niāz Kuli Beg and Dilāvar Khān Habshi. These troops were also defeated and so many elephants and horses and so great a store of valuable baggage fell into the hands of Ain-ul-Mulk that he levied fresh troops and determined to establish himself as an independent chief. Ibrāhim Ādil Shah took the field in person at the head of 5,000 chosen horse, 3,000 foot, and a train of artillery. Ain-ul-Mulk encamped on the river Mān, and the king arrived and halted some days on the opposite bank without attacking him. Saif Ain-ul-Mulk resolved not to quit the country without fighting. For three days he advanced towards the king's camp as if to engage but as often retired, the royal army remaining under arms on each occasion from dawn till sunset expecting the attack. On the fourth day Ain-ul-Mulk put his troops again in motion; but the king, supposing that his design was only to parade as on the preceding days, neglected to make preparations for his reception, the common guards of the camp only getting under arms. At length, when the enemy's standard appeared in sight, Ibrāhim Ādil Shah marshalled his troops in great haste and moved out of the camp to give battle. Ain-ul-Mulk averse from engaging the king in person consulted with his friends, observing that it was treason to fight against the royal standard. To this all agreed except Murtazā Khān Anju who remarked that the standards did not fight, and there was no danger of shedding royal blood. Ain-ul-Mulk satisfied with his casuistry and finding it too late to hesitate, charged the royalists, and attacking the centre where Ibrāhim Ādil Shah was posted, pressed on it so fiercely that it was thrown into disorder and the king fled. On this his whole line broke and victory declared in favour of Ain-ul-Mulk, who seized the royal canopy, elephants, and artillery, besides all the tents and baggage. Ain-ul-Mulk pursued the king towards Bijāpūr, but was afterwards obliged to fly by the route of Māṇ Desh to the Ahmadnagar dominions where he was assassinated[2]. In 1579, the Bijāpūr minister Kishvar Khān falsely accused Chānd

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III, 9.

[2] Ibid, 105.

Bibi, the dowager queen, of instigating her brother, Murtazā Nizām Shah, king of Ahmadnagar, to invade Bijāpūr, and sent her a prisoner to Sātārā after subjecting her to many indignities[1]. On Kishvar Khān's fall in the same year Chānd Bibi was released from prison and conducted to Bijāpūr[2]. In 1592 Dilāvar Khān, the Bijāpūr regent, was sent a prisoner to Sātārā where he died[3] shortly after.

Under the Bijāpūr kings, though perhaps less regularly than afterwards under the Moghals, the country was divided into districts or *sarkārs*. The district was distributed among sub-divisions which were generally known by the Persian names *parganā*, *karyāt*, *sammat*, *mahāl*, and *tālukā*, and sometimes by the Hindu names of *prānt* and *desh*. The hilly west, which was generally managed by Hindu officers, continued to be arranged by valleys with their Hindu names of *khorā*, *murā*, *and māval*. The collection of the revenue was generally entrusted to farmers, the farms sometimes including only one village. Where the revenue was not farmed, its collection was generally entrusted to Hindu officers. Over the revenue-farmers was a government agent or *amil*, who, besides collecting the revenue, managed the police and settled civil suits. Civil suits relating to land were generally referred to juries or *pañchāyats*. In money suits the *amils* or government agents probably passed decisions. One of the *amildārs*, who superintended a considerable division and to whom all other *amildārs*, were subordinate, was termed *mokāsādār*, and it is conjectured that he had some percentage on the revenue. The *mokāsādār's* office though sometimes continued from father to son was not hereditary. Frequently but not always over the *mokāsādār* was a *subhā* who, although he took no share in the revenue management and did not live in the district, executed deeds and formal writings of importance. Though the chief power in the country was Muhammedan, Hindus were largely employed in the service of the State. The garrisons of hill forts seem generally to have been Hindus, Marāṭhās, Koḷis, Rāmoshis, and Dhangars, a few places of special strength being reserved for Musalmān commandants or *killedārs*. Besides the hill forts, some parts of the open country were left under loyal Marāṭhā and Brāhmaṇ officers with the titles of estate-holder or *jagirdār* and of district head or *deshmukh*. Estates were generally granted on military tenure, the value of the grant being in proportion to the number of troops which the grant-holder maintained. Phalṭaṇ from which in the time of the Peshvās 350 horse were required, furnished only fifty to the Bijāpūr government at a very late period of the dynasty, but the Marāṭhā chiefs could procure horsemen at short notice and they were entertained or discharged at pleasure. Family feuds or personal hate, and, in the case of those whose lands lay near the borders of other kingdoms, an intelligent regard for the chances of war, often divided Marāṭhā families and led members of one family to take service under rival

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III, 150.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III, 172-173.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi 1489-1686.

Musalmān states. Numbers of Hindus were employed in the Bijāpūr armies and those of distinguished service were rewarded with the Hindu title of Rājā, *nāik,* and *rāv*[1].

Maratha Chiefs.

*The principal Marāṭhā Chiefs in Sātārā under the Bijāpūr govern*ment were Chaṅdrarāv More of Jāvḷī, about thirty-five miles north-west of Sātārā, Rāv Nāik Niṁbālkar of Phalṭaṇ about thirty-five miles north-east of Sātārā, Juñjhārrāv Ghāṭge of Mālavaḍi about twenty-seven miles east of Sātārā, Ḍaphḷe of Jath about ninety miles south-east of Sātārā, Māne of Mhasvaḍ about sixty miles east of Sātārā, and the Ghorpaḍe of Kāpshī on the Vārṇā about thirty miles south of Karāḍ. A person named More, originally a Karnāṭak chief was appointed in the reign of Yusuf Ādil Shah (1490-1510) to the command of a body of 12,000 Hindu infantry sent to reduce the strong tract between the Nirā and the Vārṇā. More was successful. He dispossessed the Shirkes and completely suppressed the depredations of their abettors, the chiefs of whom were Gujar, Māmulkar, Mohite, and Mahāḍik. More was dignified with the title of Chaṅdrarāv and his son Yeshvantrāv, having distinguished himself in a battle fought with the troops of Burhān Nizām Shah (1508-1553), in which he captured a green flag, was confirmed in succession to his father as Rājā of Jāvḷī and had permission to use the banner he had won. Their descendants ruled in the same tract of country for seven generations and under their mild and just management that barren tract became populous. All the successors of the first More assumed the title of Chaṅdrarāv. The unswerving loyalty of this family induced the Bijāpūr government to exact little more than a nominal tribute from districts producing so little, and which had always been in disorder under Muhammedan governors. Rāv Nāik Niṁbāḷkar or Phalṭaṇrāv was the Nāik of Phalṭaṇ. His original surname was Pavār ; he had taken the name of Nimbāḷkar from Nimbāḷik or Nimḷāk where the first Nimbāḷkar lived. The family is considered one of the most ancient in Mahārāshṭra as the Niṁbāḷkar was made *sardeshmukh* of Phalṭaṇ before the middle of the seventeenth century by one of the Bijāpūr kings. The *deshmukh* of Phalṭaṇ is said to have become a polygar or independent chief and to have repeatedly withheld the revenues of the district. Vāṅgojī or Jagpālrāv Nāik Nimbāḷkar who lived in the early part of the seventeenth century was notorious for his restless and predatory habits. Dipābāi the sister of Jagpālrāv was married to Mālojī Bhonsle, Shivājī's grandfather who was one of the principal chiefs under the Ahmadnagar kingdom. Jagpālrāv Nāik seems to have been a man of great influence. It is said that it was through his exertions that the marriage of Mālojī's son Shahājī and Jījābāi, Lukhdev Jādhavrāv's daughter, was brought about against the wishes of the girl's parents. One of the Phalṭaṇ Nāiks was killed in 1620 in a battle between Malik Ambar and the Moghals. Nimbāḷkar never exchanged his ancient title of *nāik* for that of *Rājā.* Juñjhārrāv Ghāṭge, the *deshmukh* of Mālavadi was the head of

[1] Grant Duff's Marāṭhās, Vol. I, pp. 64-65.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi 1489-1686.

a powerful family whose founder Kām Rāje Ghāṭge had a small command under the Bahamani kings. His native country Khaṭāv was separated from that of the Nimbāḷkar by the Mahādev Hills. The Ghāṭges were *deshmukhs* and *sardeshmukhs* of the *parganā* of Māṇ. In 1626 Nāgoji Ghāṭge was given the title of *sardeshmukh* as an unconditional favour by Ibrāhim Ādil Shah II, together with the title of Jhuñjārrav. The head of the Māne family was *deshmukh* of Mhasvaḍ, adjoining the district of the Ghāṭges. The Mānes were distinguished *shiledārs* or self-horsed cavaliers under Bijāpūr, but were nearly as notorious for their revengeful character as the Shirkes. The Ghorpaḍes, who were originally Bhonsles, according to their family legend acquired their present surname during the Bahamani times from having been the first to scale a fort[1] in the Koṅkaṇ which was deemed impregnable by fastening a cord round the body of a *ghorpad* or *iguana*. They were *deshmukhs* under the Bijāpūr government and were divided into two distinct families, one of Kāpshī near the Vārṇā river and the other of Mudhoḷ near the Ghaṭprabhā in the Karnāṭak. Under Bijāpūr the Kāpshikar Ghorpaḍes were known as the *nāvkas* or nine-touch Ghorpaḍes and the Mudhoḷkars as the *sātkas* or seven-touch Ghorpaḍes, a distinction which the two families maintain. The head of the Mudhoḷkar Ghorpaḍes was the *pātil* of a village near Sātārā. The Ghorpaḍes seem to have signalized themselves at a very early period. The high Musalmān titles of Amir-ul-umrā or Chief of the Nobles was conferred on one of the members of the Kāpshī family by the Bijāpūr kings. The first Ghorpaḍe that joined Shivājī was one of the Kāpshikars while the Mudhoḷkars were his bitter enemies. The Ḍaphḷes were *deshmukhs* of the *parganā* of Jath. Their original name was Chavhāṇ and they took the surname of Ḍaphḷe from their village of Ḍaphlāpūr of which they were hereditary *pāṭils*. They held a command from the Bijāpūr kings[2].

Shivaji 1627-1680.

In 1636 the Nizām Shāhī dynasty came to an end. In 1637 Shahājī Bhonsle, the son of Mālojī Bhonsle, who had taken a considerable part in Nizām Shāhī affairs during the last years of the dynasty, was allowed to retire into the service of Mahmud Ādil Shah of Bijāpūr (1636-1656). In 1637, besides giving Shahājī his *jagir* districts in Pooṇā, Mahmud Ādil Shah conferred on Shahājī a royal grant for the *deshmukhī* of twenty-two villages including Masur[3] in the district of Karāḍ, the right to which had by some means devolved on government[4]. Before the middle of the 17th century, Shahājī's son Shivājī, the founder of the Marāṭhā empire, had begun to establish himself in the hilly parts of Pooṇā in the north where he had been put in possession of his father's estate of Pooṇā and

[1] Khelna or Vishalgad in 1471. See Sherwani H. K., Bahamanis of Deccan, p. [illegible].

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, pp. 69-71.

[3] Patrasar Sangraha No. 885.

[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 96.

[5] Some recent sources assert that he was born on 19th February, 1630.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.

Supā. By 1648 he obtained control over the strong forts of Torṇā[1] in Bhor about thirty-five miles and Koṇḍāṇā or Sinhgaḍ about twelve miles south-west of Pooṇā, of Purandhar about twenty miles south of Pooṇā, and of Rājgaḍ in Bhor about five miles east of Torṇā. At this time the south of the Nirā, as far east as Shirvaḷ and as far south as the range of hills north of the Kṛshṇā, was farmed by the hereditary *deshmukh* of Hirdās Māval, a Marāṭhā named Bandal, and the fort of Rohiḍā was committed to his care. He early entertained a jealousy of Shivājī and kept a strong garrison and carefully watched the country round Purandhar. The *deshpāṇḍe* of the place was a Prabhu. Wāi was the station of a Bijāpūr *Mokāsādār* or manager who had charge of Paṇḍugad, Kamalgaḍ and several other forts in the neighbourhood. Chandrarāv More, Rājā of Jāvlī, was in possession of the Ghāṭmāthā from the Kṛṣnā to the Vārṇā[2]. The Bijāpūr government being impressed with the idea that it was incited by Shahājī, caused him to be imprisoned, and at the same time sent an army under Fateh Khān to attack Shivājī; but Shivājī proved more than a match for him and killed him in the battle of Belsār near Purandhar. Shahājī was subsequently released in the same year, and an effort was made to bring about reconciliation between him and Bājī Ghorpaḍe, the Mudhoḷ Chief who had been instrumental in his capture. To induce both parties to forget what had passed, Mahmud Ādil Shah made them exchange their hereditary rights and *ināms* as *deshmukhs*. Bājī Ghorpaḍe thus obtained from Shahājī the *deshmuki* rights of twenty-two villages in Karāḍ which Shahājī had acquired in 1637 from Bijāpūr[3]. This agreement however was not acted upon. In the meanwhile another attempt was made to seize Shivājī and this time Bajī Shāmrāj was sent for the purpose. Shivājī frequently lived at the town of Mahaḍ in Kolābā and the party of Shāmrāj, passing through the territory of Chandrarāv More, lurked about the Pār pass until an opportunity should offer. Shivājī anticipated the surprise, attacked the party near the bottom of the pass and drove them in great panic to the forests. Disturbances in the Karnāṭak prevented the Bijāpūr government any further from taking active steps against Shivājī, who finding that his father had been sent far away from the capital on a military campaign in Karnāṭak, began to devise new schemes for possessing himself of the whole Ghāṭmāthā or hilly west Deccan. With this object in view Shivājī turned his attention to the Mores of Jāvḷī who were very powerful in that region. The ruling prince[4] Yeshvantrāv was however none too friendly towards Shivājī and

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[1] According to Jadunath Sarkar the fort of Torna was captured in 1646 and Rajgad was a new fort built by Shivaji in the same year (Jadunath Sarkar —Shivaji, p. 34).

The date of acquisition of Koudana is not known. Shivapur Deshpande Bahi gives the year 1647. This year is indicated by Mohammednama (Jadunath Sarkar—Shivaji, p. 35).

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 109.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 115.

[4] Shiv Bharat Canto 13 shloka 43.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.

would not fall in a line with the designs of Shivājī. In fact he had reasons to be grateful to Shivājī because it was he who was instrumental[1] in enabling Yeshvantrāv to succeed to the jahāgir of Jāvḷī after the death of Daulatrāv in 1648, who died childless and whose widow had sought the help of Shivājī in adopting young Yeshvantrāv and carrying on the administration in his name during Yeshvantrāv's minority with the assistance of one Haṇmantrāv More, a distant relation of the family. In course of time Yeshvantrav grew jealous of his independent position and impatient of Shivājī's interference. Shivājī spent years in negotiation for a peaceful way to gain his object. There was also some understandable reason for Shivājī's patience. Afzalkhān the *subhedār* of Wāi who had acted as the representative of the sovereign power of Bijāpūr since 1649 was anxious to prevent both Yeshvantrāv and Shivājī from growing very powerful in that region. He had sent letters to Kānhojī Jedhe and other sardars to join his standard for the purpose. There thus arose a triangular contest between the Mores, Shivājī and Afzalkhān. About the year 1654, Afzalkhān came to be transferred to Kanakgiri[2] and Shivājī seized this opportunity of Afzalkhān's absence to deal resolutely with the affair. He took into his confidence some of the Māvaḷ Deshmukhs, particularly Kānhojī Jedhe and Haibatrāv Silimkar as also other neighbours of the Mores and sent a proposal to Jāvḷī stating terms which the Mores refused to accept. Then he dispatched a contingent of these Deshmukhs along-with his commander Sambhājī Kāvjī and a small force threatening their residence. This first attempt proved ineffectual, and Shivājī sent another force under Raghunāth Ballāḷ Korḍe. A battle was fought near Jāvḷī in which Hanmantrāv More was killed and Yeshvantrāv fled for his life and took shelter in the fort of Rāirī. Pratāprāv More another scion of the family escaped to Bijāpūr to seek the help of Ādil Shah to oust Shivājī from Jāvḷī (26-1-1656). Shivājī himself at once proceeded to Jāvḷī, stayed there for two months, and strengthened his hold upon the principality. In the meantime Yeshvantrāv started serious trouble afresh from the hill top of Rāirī, a large and lofty plateau near Mahāḍ which belonged to the Mores. Shivājī sent troops and his agent Haibatrāv Silimkar to Yeshvantrāv demanding submission. After a long negotiation, a meeting was arranged at the foot of Rāirī in May. When the Mores came down to meet Shivājī, he killed the principal offender Yeshvantrāv and carried his two sons Kṛshṇājī and Bājī as captives to Pooṇā. The capture of the strong fort of Vāsoṭā, which had also belonged to Mores, about fifteen miles west of Sātārā, subsequently called Vajragaḍ by Shivājī and the conquest of Shivthar valley completed the conquest of Jāvḷī. Later on the two sons of Yeshvantrāv were detected conducting secret intrigues with Bijāpūr and were therefore put to death[3]. The result of Shivājī's swift and decisive action towards Mores was on the whole helpful to his pursuits, because the turbulent chiefs in the surrounding area came to know what to

[1] Ruling princes of Javli enjoyed a hereditary title "Chandrarav".

[2] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas p. 112.

[3] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas Vol. I, p. 112-113.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MUSLIM RULE. Adil Shahi 1489-1686. *Shivaji 1627-1680.*

expect from him if an open opposition were offered to his plans and desires. Shivājī followed up his conquest of Javḷī by surprising Rohiḍā which he scaled at night at the head of the Māvḷis. Bāndal, the deshmukh who was in the fort at the time stood to his arms on the first moment of alarm; and although greatly outnumbered his men did not submit until he was killed. At the head of them was Bājī Prabhu Deshpāṇḍe; Shivājī treated him with generosity, received him with great kindness, and confirmed him in all his hereditary possessions. He had relations with Shivājī, and afterwards agreed to follow the fortunes of his conqueror; the command of a considerable body of infantry was conferred upon him and he maintained his character for bravery and fidelity to the last. In 1656, to secure access to his possessions on the banks of the Nirā and the Koynā and to strengthen the defences of the Pār Pass Shivājī pitched upon a high rock near the source of the Kṛshṇā on which he resolved to build another fort commanding an extensive view of Koṅkaṇ to the west. The execution of the design was entrusted to Moro Trimal Piṅgḷe, who shortly before had been appointed to command the fort of Purandhar in Pooṇā. This man, when very young, had accompanied his father, then in the service of Shahājī to the Karnāṭak and returned to the Marāṭhā country about the year 1653 and shortly after joined Shivājī. The able manner in which he executed every thing entrusted to him soon gained him the confidence of his master and the erection of Pratāpgaḍ, the name given to the new fort, confirmed the favourable opinion entertained of him[1]. A new image of the goddess Bhavānī, the prototype of his family deity, Bhavānī of Tuḷjāpūr, was later installed in the fort and Shivājī made it a practice to visit the place on devotional grounds, whereby he effectively served his political object of keeping a watchful eye on the region around. In the same year (1656) the Moghals invaded the Bijāpūr territories and Sarjerāv Ghaṭge, Nimbāḷkar, and other Marāṭhā estate-holders promptly joined Khān Muhammad, the Bijāpūr prime minister with their troops[2].

Pratapgad built by Shivaji, 1656.

Battle of Pratapgad.

About the year 1658 Bijāpūr was distracted by factions among its nobles and the youth of its sovereign Ali Adil Shah II. At last they became sensible of the necessity of making an active effort to subdue Shivājī. For this purpose an army was assembled consisting of 500 horse and 7000 choice infantry, a good train of artillery or what was considered as such, besides a large supply of rockets, a number of swivels mounted on camels, and abundance of stores. Afzal Khān, an officer of high rank, volunteered to command the expedition, and in his public leave-taking, in the vaunting manner particularly common to Deccan Muhammedans of those days, pompously declared that he should bring back the insignificant rebel and cast him in chain under the footstool of the throne. To avoid impediments which presented themselves on the straight route from Bijāpūr and the heavy rains which seldom subsided in the neighbourhood of the hills till

Afzal Khan killed, 1659.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 119.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 123.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi,
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.
Afzal Khan killed 1659.

the end of October, the army proceeded in September 1659 from Bijāpūr to Paṇḍharpur and thence marched towards Wāi. Shivājī, on its approach, took up his residence in Pratāpgaḍ and sent the most humble messages to Afzal Khān. He pretended to have no thought of opposing so great a personage, and seemed only anxious to make his peace with the Bijāpūr government through the Khān's mediation; he affected the utmost sorrow for his conduct, which he could hardly persuade himself would be forgiven by the king, even if the Khān should receive him under the shadow of his protection; and he would surrender the whole of his country to the Khān were it possible to assure himself of his favour. Afzal Khān, who had all the vanity of a Muhammedan noble, had also a thorough contempt for his enemy. At the same time as he had formerly been in charge of the Wāi district he was aware of the exceeding difficulty of an advance through the wild country which he must penetrate. With such considerations and mollified by Shivājī's submission, Afzal Khān in answer to repeated applications despatched a Brāhmaṇ in his own service named Gopināthpant with suitable attendants to Pratāpgaḍ. On his arrival at Pār, a village below the fort, Shivājī came down to meet him. The Brāhmaṇ stated that the Khān, his master, and Shahājī were intimate friends, that the Khān bore no enmity towards his son, but on the contrary would prove his desire to aid him by interceding for his pardon, and even endeavourmg to get him confirmed as *jāgirdār* in part of the territory he had usurped. Shivājī acknowledged his obligation although his reply at the public meeting was not couched in the same humble strain he had used in his message. He said that if he could obtain a part of the country in *jāgir* it would be all he could expect, that he was the king's servant and that he had been of considerable use to his government in reducing several chiefs whose territory would now come under the royal authority. This was the substance of what passed at their first interview. Shivājī provided accommodation for the envoy and his suite, but assigned a place for the Brāhmaṇ at some distance from the rest. In the middle of the night Shivājī secretly introduced himself to Gopināthpant. He addressed him as a Brāhmaṇ, his superior. He represented that all he had done was for the sake of Hindus and the Hindu faith, that he was called on by the goddess Bhavānī herself to protect Brāhmaṇs and cows, to punish the violators of their temples and their gods, and to resist the enemies of their religion, that it became Gopināthpant as a Brāhmaṇ to aid a course which Bhavānī had sanctioned, and that if he did, he should ever after live among his caste and countrymen in comfort and wealth. Shivājī seconded his arguments with presents, and the solemn promise to bestow the village of Hivrā on him and his posterity for ever. The Brāhmaṇ envoy could not resist such an appeal seconded by such an inducement and swore fidelity to Shivājī, declared he was his for ever, and called on the goddess to punish him if he severed from any task Shivājī might impose. They consulted on the fittest means for averting the present danger. The Brāhmaṇ, fully acquainted with Afzal Khān's character, suggested tempting him to a conference and Shivājī at once approved of the scheme. He sent for Kṛshṇājī

CHAPTER 2.

History.
Muslim Rule.
Adil Shahi,
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.
Afzal Khan
killed. 1659.

Bhāskar, a confidential Brāhmaṇ, informed him of what had passed, and of the resolution which he had adopted. After fully consulting on the subject they separated as secretly as they had met. After holding some interviews and discussion for the purpose of masking their design, Kṛshṇājī Bhāskar as Shivājī's agent was despatched with Gopināthpant to the camp of Afzal Khān. Gopinathpant represented Shivājī as in great alarm; but if his fears could be overcome by the personal assurance of the Khān, he was convinced that he might easily be prevailed on to give himself up. With a blind confidence Afzal Khān trusted himself to Gopināthpant's guidance. An interview was agreed on, and the Bijāpūr troops with great labour moved to Jāvḷī. Shivājī prepared a place for the meeting below the fort of Pratāpgaḍ; he cut down the jungle, and cleared a road for the Khān's approach but every other avenue to the place was carefully closed. He ordered Moropant and Netājī Pālkar from the Koṅkaṇ with many thousands of the *Māvḷī* infantry. He communicated his whole plan to these two and to Tānājī Mālusare. Netājī was stationed in the thickets a little to the east of the fort, where it was expected that part of the Khān's retinue would advance, and Moro Trimal with a body of old and tried men was sent to hide himself in the neighbourhood of the main body of the Bijāpūr troops which as had been agreed remained near Jāvḷī. The preconcerted signal for Netājī was the blast of a horn, and the distant attack by Moro Trimal was to begin on hearing the fire of five guns from Pratāpgaḍ which were also to announce Shivājī's safety. Fifteen hundred of Afzal Khān's troops accompanied him to within a few hundred yards of Pratāpgaḍ, where, at Gopināthpant's suggestion they were desired to halt to dispel any doubt and fear that Shivājī had professed about Khān's preparations. Afzal Khān, dressed in a thin muslin garment, armed apparently only with his sword, and attended, as per mutual agreement only by two armed soldiers, Baḍā Sayyad and another, advanced in his palanquin to a well-decorated reception tent set up for the occasion, about half way up the ascent of the fort. Shivājī while preparing himself to meet the Khān for peaceful negotiations, had taken complete precautions to meet any contingency. It was Thursday, 10th of November 1659. On that day after a morning bath and usual worship and prayers, Shivājī took his meals and bid a hasty but affectionate farewell to his friends, committing his son Sambhājī to their care. He rose, put on a steel chain cap under his turban and chain armour under his cotton gown, held *Bhavānī* sword in his right hand, concealed a crooked dagger or *bichvā* in his left sleeve, and put on a shield to cover his back. Thus armed he slowly descended from the fort. The Khān had arrived at the place of meeting before him, and expressed his jealous indignation at the lavish grandeur of decoration of the *manḍap* which surpassed something that could be observed at Bijāpūr and which the son of a *sardār* of Bijāpūr should be in a position to display. By that time Shivājī was seen advancing, attended by two of his companions Jivā Mahālā and Sambhājī Kāvjī.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi,
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.
Afzal Khan
killed, 1659.

Shivājī viewing Afzal Khān at a distance expressed fear for the presence of Baḍā Sayyad and requested Khān, through Pantājī Gopināth that Baḍā Sayyad be kept a few paces away, to which Afzal Khān readily agreed and as if to dispel fear, even handed over his sword to Kṛshṇājī Bhāskar who was standing nearby. Khān however, was not left completely unarmed; for he had a dagger fixed by his right side near the waist. With characteristic over-confidence Afzal Khān took no objection to Shivājī's companions although they had possessed their usual arms with them, a circumstance which might have passed unnoticed, being common amongst Marāṭhās. He advanced two or three paces to meet Shivājī; they were introduced to each other by Pantājī Gopināth and further in the midst of the customary embrace, the tall and mighty Khān was able to hold the neck of comparatively short statured Shivājī under his left arm. As the Khān tried to press it, he took out his dagger from his waist on the right side and tried to hit the left side of Shivājī. As Shivājī was clad in armour, the steel weapon only made a sharp rubbing sound against his side but did not hurt him. Thereupon Shivājī, ever on his guard hit the *bichvā* in his left hand on the right side of the Khān. Unfortunately the Khan wore no armour and therefore the hit proved singularly effective and ripped open his bowels[1]. Khān uttered the words 'treachery' 'treachery' and shouted for help. Khān's hold on Shivājī's neck by this time was naturally slackened and Shivājī having made himself free quickly thrust his sword right through Afzal Khān's stomach and in a moment Afzal Khān lay dead on the ground. Kṛshṇājī Bhāskar who possessed Afzal Khān's sword tried to rescue him but was held at bay by Shivājī who with another stroke of his sword separated the head of the Khān from the trunk of his body. At this moment Baḍā Sayyad rushed forth and tried to attack Shivājī but Jivā Mahālā finished him. The palanquin bearers of Khān tried to take away the body putting it in the palanquin but Sambhājī Kāvjī hit at their legs, seized the head of the Khān and marched towards the gate of the fort. The sharp shrill sound of the bugle-like horn was a signal to Netājī Pālkar and the *Māvḷis* lying in concealment, who fell upon Khān's army, that was resting at the foot of the hill. Moro Trimal also, began his operations on hearing the sound of five guns fired from Pratāpgaḍ on Shivājī coming out safe. Few of the Bijāpūr soldiers had time to mount their horses or stand to their arms. Netājī Pālkar gave no quarter; but orders were sent to Moropant to spare all who submitted. Shivājī's humanity to his prisoners was conspicuous on this as on most occasions. Many

[1] The story told by *Sabhasad* and reproduced by Grant Duff, that Shivaji had *Vaghnakhs* or steel tiger's claw on his fingers and used the weapon for killing Afzal Khan, is not supported by *Shiva Bharat*, which is a contemporary and a comparatively more reliable evidence. That *Vaghnakhs* were found in the collection possessed by the later Chhatrapatis of Satara is however true. In 1827 Raja Pratapsinh then Chief of Satara (1810-1839) gave the *Vaghnakhs* to Mr. Elphinstone. They were most formidable steel hooks and attached to two rings fitting the fingers and lay concealed in the inside of the hand. Colbrooke's Elphinstone, II 188. *See* also Scott Waring's Marathas, 69.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi.
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.
Afzal Khan killed, 1659.

of those that had attempted to escape were brought in several days afterwards in a state of great wretchedness. Their reception and treatment induced many of the Marāṭhā prisoners to enter Shivājī's service. The most distinguished Marāṭhā taken was Jhuñjhārrāv Ghāṭge whose father had been the intimate friend of Shahājī, but Shivājī could not induce him to depart from his allegiance to Bijāpūr. At his own request he was allowed to return, and was honourably dismissed with valuable presents. The son and family of Afzal Khān were taken by Khaṇḍujī Khopḍe one of Shivājī's officers, but on being offered a large bribe he agreed to guide them to a place of safety, and led them by unfrequented paths across the mountains and along the banks of the Koynā, until he safely lodged them in Karāḍ. When this treachery came to Shivājī's knowledge Khopḍe was condemned to death and at once executed[1].

This success greatly raised the reputation of Shivājī. The immediate fruits were four thousand horses, several elephants, a number of camels, a considerable treasure, and the whole train of equipment which had been sent against him. Such of his troops as were wounded, Shivājī on this occasion distinguished by presents of bracelets, necklaces, chains of gold and silver, and clothes. These were presented with much ceremony, and served to stimulate future exertion among his soldiers as well as to give greater fame to his exploit. The sword of Afzal Khān and Shivājī's favourite sword *Bhavānī* passed to the Moghals on the capture of Sambhājī in 1689. They were restored by Aurangzeb to Shāhu in 1707 and till 1827 remained a valued trophy in the armoury of Shivājī's descendants. Gopināthpant received the promised grant of Hivrā in reward for his help to Shivājī, and was afterwards promoted to considerable rank in the service[2].

[1] Afzal Khan incident was for a long time regarded as one of the controversial topics in the life of Shivaji. The fact that Afzal Khan who had gone to meet Shivaji should have met with sudden death at Shivaji's hands led the common observer to believe that Shivaji meant treachery. Muslim chroniclers and those that closely followed them naturally presented the story in that light. Subsequent research has however revealed that Afzal Khan intended to seize Shivaji dead or alive, and that he was making preparations to that effect (see *Patra Sar Sangraha* No. 774 and 792). Afzal's over-confidence and unguarded behaviour brought the tragic end upon him. Eager to meet Shivaji, Afzal rashly consented to meet the lion in his den as it were. If Shivaji had meant treachery, he would have certainly asked his people lying concealed in the thickets at the foot of the hill, to fall upon Afzal Khan then found well within his trap; and he would have avoided the risk of an interview with the Khan. In this controversy enough weight has not been given to Shivaji's readiness to meet the Khan who was known for his earlier treacherous behaviour and whose intentions to seize Shivaji had been widely publicised. (See *Shiva Charitra Nibandhavali*: R. P. Patwardhan's essay on "Afzal Khan's Expedition", pp. 178-179).

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, 137.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MUSLIM RULE.

Adil Shahi 1489-1686.

Shivaji 1627-1680.

In 1659, Shivājī surprised the fort of Vasantgaḍ about seven miles north-west of Karāḍ, levied contributions along the Kṛshṇā, and left a *ṭhāṇa* or garrison with a revenue collector in the *gaḍhi* or mud fort of Battis Shirāḷā. In January 1661, Ali Ādil Shah II disappointed in his hopes of crushing Shivājī, took the field in person and marched to Karāḍ. All the district authorities, some of whom had submitted to Shivājī, attended the royal camp to tender their allegiance. Ali Ādil Shah recovered Panhāḷā and Rāngṇā in Kolhāpur which had fallen to Shivājī in the previous year[1].

In 1661, as Shivājī was unable to visit the famous temple of Bhavānī at Tuḷjāpūr during the rains, he with great solemnity dedicated as has been mentioned above, a temple to her in the fort of Pratāpgaḍ. His religious observances from this time became exceedingly rigid; he chose the celebrated Rāmdās Svāmī as his *mahāpurush* or spiritual guide and aspired to a high character for sanctity[2]. In 1662 when Shivājī thought of making Rāygaḍ in Kolaba his capital he held the Konkaṇ Ghāṭmāthā that is the hilly west Deccan from the Bhīmā to the Vārṇā[3]. In 1665, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Purandhar by which Shivājī ceded to the Moghals the forts which he had taken from them and twenty others taken or built by him in the old Nizām Shāhī territory and obtained the right of levying the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* over the Bijāpūr dominions and to co-operate with the Moghals to subdue Bijāpūr, Shivājī with a body of 2,000 horse and 8,000 infantry joined Jaysingh and the combined army marched about November. Their first operations were against Bajājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar a relation of Shivājī and *jāgīrdār* of Bijāpur. Phalṭaṇ was reduced and the fort of Tāthvaḍ scaled by Shivājī's Mavḷīs. All the fortified places in their route were taken. Ali Ādil Shāh had prepared his troops, but endeavoured to prevent the invasion by promises of settling the demands of the Moghals. But Jaysingh continued his advance and met with little opposition until near Mangaḷveḍhā in Sholāpur[4]. In 1668 Shivājī obtained a yearly payment of money from the Bijāpūr Government in lieu of a levy of the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* over the Bijāpūr dominions and in spite of the narrowing of his territory by the Purandhar treaty he still retained the western Sātārā hills.

Shivaji's Institutions.

The years 1668 and 1669 were of greatest leisure in Shivājī's life. Some of his contemporaries, speculating on the future, supposed from his apparent inactivity that he would sink into insignificance, but he employed this interval in revising and completing the internal management of his government, which with his various institutions are the key to the forms of government afterwards adopted by every Marāṭhā state. Shivājī's regulations were gradually formed and

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 143.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, 144. For a further elucidation as regards Ramdas—Shivaji relations see p. 39.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, 147.

[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, 165.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.

enlarged, but after a certain period underwent no change by the extension of his territory until he assumed the ensign of royalty. Even then the alterations were rather in matters of form than in rules. The plans of Marāṭhā expansion which were afterwards pursued so successfully by his nation may be traced from a very early period and nothing is more remarkable in regard to Shivājī than the foresight with which some of his schemes were laid and the fitness of his arrangements for the genius of his countrymen.

The foundation of his power was his infantry; his occupation of the forts gave him a hold on the country and a place of deposit for his plunder. His cavalry had not yet spread the terror of the Marāṭhā name; but the rules of formation and discipline for his troops, the interior economy of his infantry and cavalry, the regulations for his forts, his revenue and judicial arrangements, and the chief offices through which his government was administered were fully developed. Shivājī's infantry was raised in the West Deccan and Koṅkaṇ; the men of the West Deccan tract were called Māvḷīs or westerners, those of the Koṅkaṇ, Heṭkaris or southerners. These men brought their own arms and required nothing but ammunition. Their dress, though not uniform, was generally a pair of short drawers coming half-way down the thigh, a strong narrow band of considerable length tightly girt about the loins, a turban, and sometimes a cotton frock. Most of them wore a cloth round the waist, which likewise answered the purposes of a shawl. Their common arms consisted of a sword, shield and matchlock. Some of the Heṭkaris, especially the infantry of Sāvantvāḍī, used a species of firelock, the invention of the lock for the flint having been early received from the Portuguese. Every tenth man, instead of firearms, carried a bow and arrows which were useful in night attacks and surprises when firearms were kept in reserve or forbidden. The Heṭkaris excelled as marksmen but they could seldom be brought to the desperate sword-in-hand attacks for which the Māvaḷīs were famous. Both of them had unusual skill in climbing, and could mount a precipice or scale a rock with ease, where men of other countries must have run great risk of being dashed to pieces. Every ten men had an officer called a *Nāik* and every fifty a *havildār*. The officer over a hundred was termed *jumlādār* and the commander of a thousand was styled *ek-hazāri*. There were also officers of five thousand, between whom and the *sarnobat* or chief commander there was no intermediate step. The cavalry was of two kinds, *bārgirs*, literally bridlemen or riders who were supplied with horses and *shiledārs* who were self-horsed; Shivājī's *bārgirs* were generally mounted on horses, the property of the state. A body of this description was termed *pāgāh* or household troops, and Shivājī always placed more dependence on them than on the *shiledārs* or any horse furnished on contract by individuals; with both he had a proportion of his *pāgāh* mixed, to overawe the disobedient and to perfect his system of intelligence which abroad and at home penetrated into a knowledge of the most private circumstances, prevented

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi 1489-1686.
Shivaji *1627-1680.*

embezzlement, and frustrated treachery. The Marāthā horsemen were commonly dressed in a pair of tight breeches covering the knee, a turban which many of them fastened by passing a fold of it under the chin, a frock of quilted cotton, and a cloth round the waist, with which they generally girded on their swords in preference to securing them with their belts. The horseman was armed with a sword and shield; a proportion in each body carried matchlocks, but the great national weapon was the spear, in the use of which and in the management of their horses they showed both grace and skill. The spearmen had generally sword and sometimes a shield; but the shield was unwieldy, and was carried only in case the spear should be broken. Over every twenty-five horsemen Shivājī had a *havildār*. To one hundred and twenty-five there was a *jumlādār*, and to every five *jumlās* or six hundred and twenty-five was a *subhedār*. Every *subhā* had an accountant and auditor of accounts appointed by Shivājī, who were liable to be changed and were invariably Brāhmans or Prabhus. To the command of every ten *subhās* or six thousand, two hundred and fifty horse, which were rated at only five thousand, there was a commander styled *pañch-hazāri* with whom were also stationed a *muzumdār* or Brāhman auditor of accounts and a Prabhu registrar and accountant who was called *amin*. These were government agents. Besides these, every officer, from the *jumlādār* upwards, had one or more *kārkuns* or writers paid by himself as well as others in the pay of government. Except the *sarnobat* or chief, no officer was superior to the commander of five thousand There was one *sarnobat* for the cavalry and one for the infantry. Every *jumlā*, *subhā*, and *pañch-hazāri* had an establishment of news-writers and spies besides secret intelligencers. Shivājī's head spy was a Marāthā named Bahirjī Nāik. The Marāthās are peculiarly roused from indolence and apathy when charged with responsibility. Shivājī at the beginning of his career personally inspected every man who offered himself, and obtained security from some persons already in his service for the fidelity and good conduct of those with whom he was not acquainted. This system of security must soon have made almost every man answerable for some of his comrades; and although it could have been in most instances but a form, owing to the ease with which the responsibility could be evaded, the demand of security was always a part of Shivājī's instructions to his officers. The Māvḷīs sometimes enlisted, merely on condition of getting a subsistence in grain; but the regular pay of the infantry was 1 to 3 *pāgodās*[1] a month; that of the *bārgīs* or riders, was 2 to 5 *pāgodās* and that of the *shiledārs* or self-horsed cavaliers 6 to 12 *pāgodās* a month. All plunder as well as prizes was the property of government. It was brought at stated times to Shivājī's *darbār* or place of public audience and individuals formally displayed and delivered their captures. They always received some small proportionate compensation; they were praised, distinguished, and promoted according to their success. In fact to collect plunder from the enemy's ranks

[1] A *pagoda* was equal to from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4.

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.

was usually regarded by the Marāṭhās to express a victory, of which in their estimation it could be the only tangible proof. The horses, especially at an advanced period of Shivājī's history, were subsisted during the fair season in the enemy's country; during the rains they were generally allowed to rest, and were cantoned in different places near *kuraṇs* or pasture lands, under the protection of some fort, where the grass of the preceding season was stacked and grain prepared by the time they returned. For this purpose persons were appointed to whom rentfree lands were hereditarily assigned. The system was preserved when many of Shivājī's institutions were neglected, and it proved a great aid to the success of his countrymen.

Shivājī kept the Hindu festival of the Dasarā with great pomp. It falls in October at the end of the south-west rains, and was particularly convenient for a general muster and review of his troops previous to their taking the field. At this time each horse was examined and an inventory and valuation of each soldier's effects were taken to be compared with what he brought back or eventually to be made good. If a horseman's effects were unavoidably lost, his horse killed, maimed, or destroyed in government service they were on due proof replaced. On the other hand all plunder or articles discovered, of which no satisfactory account could be given, were carried to the credit of government, either by confiscating the article or deducting the amount from the soldier's arrears. It was at the option of the captors to keep almost any articles if fairly brought forward, valued, and paid for. The accounts were closed every year, and balances due by government were paid either in ready money or by bills on the collectors of revenue in favour of the officers, but never by separate orders on villages. The only exceptions to plunder made by Shivājī were in favour of cows, cultivators, and women; these were never to be molested—nor were any but rich Muhammedans or Hindus in their service who could pay a ransom to be made prisoners. No soldier in the service of Shivājī was permitted to carry any female followers with him to the field on pain of death. His system of intelligence was the greatest check on every abuse, and his punishments were rigorous. Officers and men who had distinguished themselves, who were wounded, or who had suffered in any way, were always gratified by promotion, honour or compensation. Shivājī did not approve of the *jāgir* or estate system; he confirmed many, but, with the exception of the establishment for his forts, he seldom bestowed new military estates and gave away very few as personal assignments. *Inām* lands were granted by him as well in reward of merit as in conformity with the tenets of his faith; a gift of land, especially to Brāhmaṇs, being of all charities the most acceptable to the divinity. Shivājī's discipline, which required prompt obedience to superiors in every situation, was particularly strict in his forts. The chief person or *killedār* in the command of a fortress was termed *havildār* and under him there was one or more *sarnobats*. In large forts there was a *sarnobat* to each face. Every fort has a head clerk and a commissary of grain and stores; the

head clerk, a Brāhmaṇ was termed *sabnis*; the commissary was commonly of the Prabhu caste and was called *kārkhānnis*. The orders regarding ingress and egress, rounds, watches, and patrols, care of water, grain, stores, and ammunition were most minute, and the head of each department was furnished with distinct rules for his guidance from which no deviation was allowed. A rigid economy characterised all Shivājī's instructions regarding expenditure. The garrison was sometimes partly composed of the common infantry. Independent of them, each fort had a separate and complete establishment. It consisted of Brāhmaṇs, Marāṭhās, Rāmoshīs, Mahārs, and Māṅgs; the whole were termed *gadkaris* or fort-men. They were maintained by permanent assignments of rent-free lands in the neighbourhood of each fort, which with the care of the fort passed from father to son. The Rāmoshīs and Māhārs were employed on outpost duty. They brought intelligence, watched all the paths, misled inquiries, or cut off hostile stragglers. This establishment while new and vigorous was admirably suited to Shivājī's purpose as well as to the genius of the people. The *gaḍkaris* described the fort as the mother that fed them, and among other advantages, no plan could better provide for old or deserving soldiers.

Shivājī's revenue arrangements were founded on those of Dādājī Koṇḍadev, Shahājī's Brāhmaṇ manager, to whom Shivājī's education in Pooṇa was entrusted (1641)[1]. The assessments were made on the actual state of the crop, the proportionate division of which is stated to have been three-fifths to the husbandmen and two fifths to government. As soon as Shivājī got permanent possession of any territory, every species of military contribution was stopped, all farming of revenue ceased, and the collections were made by agents appointed by himself. Every two or three villages were superintended by *kārkun* under the *tarafdār* or *tālukdār* who had charged of a small district, and was either a Brāhmaṇ or a Prabhu. A Marāthā *havildār* was stationed with each of them. Over a considerable tract there was a *subhedār* or *māmlatdār* who had charge of one or more forts in which his collections both of grain and money were secured. Shivājī never permitted the *deshmukhs* and *deshpāṇḍes* to interfere in the management of the country; nor did he allow them to collect their dues until their amount had been ascertained, when an order was annually given for the amount. The *pātil's*, *khots* and *kulkarṇis* were strictly superintended, and Shivājī's government though popular with the common cultivators, would have been unpopular with village and district officers, of whom Shivājī was always jealous, had it not been for the recourse which all had of entering his military service.

The method which the Brāhmaṇ ministers of the Marāṭhā government afterwards adopted, of paying the military and civil servants by permanent assignments on portions of the revenue of villages, is said to have been early proposed to Shivājī. He objected to it, not only from fear of immediate oppression to the husbandmen, but from

[1] D. V. Kale: Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj p. 27.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686
Shivaji
1627-1680.

apprehending that it would in the end cause such a division of power as must weaken his government and encourage the village and district authorities to resist it as they frequently did that of Bijāpūr. With the same view he destroyed all village walls and allowed no fortification in his territory which was not occupied by his troops. Religious establishments were carefully preserved, and temples for which no provision existed had some adequate assignments granted to them, but the Brāhmaṇs in charge were obliged to account for the expenditure. Shivājī never sequestrated any allowance fixed by the Muhammedan government for the support of tombs, mosques, or saints' shrines. The revenue regulations of Shivājī were simple and judged by the standards of those times undoubtedly judicious.

People were encouraged to clear the jungles, raise crops and revive the village *pañchāyats*. They were further assured that the authorities would not take anything more than whatever be due according to law. This persistent effort to foster the rule of law and create an atmosphere of security endeared him to his people. It is just possible, however, that his judicious measures may not have been attended with immediate improvements and prosperity to the people as is sometimes alleged; for his districts were frequently exposed to great ravages, and he never had sufficient leisure to complete his arrangements by that persevering superintendence which alone can perfect such institutions. The Muhammedan writers, and Fryer, a contemporary English traveller describe his country as in the worst possible state, and the former only mention him as a depredator and destroyer. Still those districts taken by him from Bijāpūr which had been under the management of farmers or direct agents of government undoubtedly experienced great benefit by the change. The judicial system of Shivājī in civil cases was that of *pañchāyat* or council which had invariably obtained in the country. Disputes among his soldiers were settled by their officers. He drew his criminal law from the Hindu sacred works or *Shāstrās*; but as the former rulers were Musalmāns they had naturally introduced changes which custom had sanctioned and perpetuated. This accounts for the difference that long afterwards persisted between Hindu law and Marāṭhā usage.

To aid in the conduct of his government, Shivājī established eight offices; 1st the *Peshwā* or head manager whose office was held by Moro Pant or Moreshvar Trimbak Pingle; second the *Muzumdār* or general superintendent of finance and auditor general of accounts, whose office was held by Ābājī Sondev, *subhedār* of the province of Kalyān; third the *Surnis* or general record-keeper, superintendent of correspondence, examiner of letters; the office was held by Aṇṇājī Datto; fourth the *Vāknis* or private record-keeper and superintendent of the household troops and establishment; the office was held by Dattājipant; fifth the *Sarnobat* or chief captain of whom there were two, Pratāprāv Gujar over the cavalry and Yesāji Kaṅk over the infantry; sixth the *Dabir* or minister for foreign affairs, an office held

by Somnāthpant; seventh the *Nyāyādhish* or superintendent of justice, an office managed by Nirāji Rāvji and Gomāji Nāik; and eighth the *Nyāya Shāstri* or expounder of Hindu law, an office held first by Shambhu Upadhyā and afterwards by Raghunāthpant.

The officers at the head of these civil situations, except the *Nyāyādhish* and *Nyāya Shāstri*, held military commands and frequently had not leisure to superintend their duties. All therefore were aided by deputies called *kārbhāris*, who often had power to fix the seal or mark of their principals on public documents. When so empowered they were styled *mutāliks*. Each department and every district establishment had eight subordinate officers under whom were an adequate staff of assistants. These officers were, 1st the *Kārbhāri, Mutālik* or Divāṇ; 2nd the *Muzumdar* or auditor and accountant; 3rd the *Faḍṇis or Faḍṇavis* deputy auditor and accountant; 4th the *Sabnis* or clerk sometimes styled *daftardār*; 5th the *Kārkhānnis* or commissary; 6th the *Chiṭṇis* or correspondence clerk; 7th the *Jāmdār* or treasurer in charge of all valuables except cash; and 8th the Potnis or cashkeeper. Attached to himself, Shivājī had a treasurer, a correspondence clerk, and an accountant besides a *Fārisnis* or Persian secretary. His clerk was a Prabhu named Bāḷājī Āvjī, whose astuteness and intelligence were remarked by the English at Bombay on an occasion when he was sent there on business. Bāḷkṛshṇapant Haṇmante, a near relation of Shahājī's head manager was Shivājī's accountant. On Shivājī's enthronement at Rāygaḍ in 1674 the names of such offices as were formerly expressed in Persian were changed to Sanskṛt and some were marked by higher sounding titles. There was only one commander-in-chief for the infantry and cavalry and one *Nyāyādhīsh* or judge[1].

Shivaji takes Satara.

In May 1673 a detachment of Shivājī's Māvḷīs surprised Parḷī about four miles south-west of Sātārā. Its capture put the Musalmān garrisons on the alert, and Sātārā, a fort that had always been kept in good order by the Bijāpūr government, which was next invested,

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 206-207. The following statement gives the names and the old and new titles of Shivaji's ministers in 1674:

Shivaji's Ministers, 1674.

Name.	Old Title.	New Title.
Moropant Pingle	Peshva ..	Mukhya Pradhan.
Ramchandrapant Bavdevkar ..	Muzumdar .	Pant Amatya.
Annaji Datto	Surnis .	Pant Sachiv.
Dattajipant	Vanknis .	Mantri.
Hambirrav Mohite	Sarnobat ..	Senapati.
Janardanpant Hanmante	Dabir	Sumant.
Balajipant	Nyayadhish ..	Nyayadhish.
Raghunathpant .. .	Nyayashastri .	Panditrav.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi.
1489-1686.
Shivaji 1627-1680.
Shivaji takes Satara.

sustained a siege of several months and did not surrender till the beginning of September. It is remarkable that this fort which had long, perhaps before the Ādil Shāhi Dynasty, been used as a state prison, often became the prison of Shivājī's descendants in later years. The forts of Chandan, Vandan, Paṇḍavgaḍ, Nandgiri, and Tāthvaḍ all fell into Shivājī's hands before the fair season[1]. In 1675 Shivājī again possessed himself of all the forts between Panhāḷā in Ko'hāpur and Tāthvaḍ. As soon as he was occupied in Konkaṇ and had carried down all the infantry that could be spared, Nimbāḷkar and Ghāṭge, the *deshmukhs* of Phalṭaṇ and Mālavḍī, attacked Shivājī's garrisons, drove out the posts and recovered most of the open country for Bijāpūr[2]. In 1676 Shivājī for the third time took possession of the open country between Tāthvaḍ and Panhāḷā. To prevent future inroads by neighbouring proprietors Shivājī gave orders to connect the two places by a chain of forts, which he named Vardhangaḍ, Bhushaṇgaḍ, Sadāshivgaḍ, and Machhindragaḍ. Although of no great strength they were well chosen to support his intermediate posts and to protect the highly productive tract within the frontier which they embraced. While engaged in this arrangement Shivājī was overtaken by a severe illness which confined him at Sātārā for several months. During this period he became extravagently rigid in the observance of religious forms, but he was at the same time planning the most important expedition of his life, the invasion of the Madrās Karnāṭak[3]. The discussion of his legal claim to share in half his father's Karnāṭak possessions and the possibility of making this a cloak for more extensive acquisitions in the south was a constant subject of consultation[4]. While Shivājī was in the Karṇāṭak a body of horse belonging to Ghāṭge and Nimbāḷkar laid waste Panhāḷā in the south and retired plundering towards Karāḍ. A detachment from Shivājī's army under Niḷājī Kāṭkar overtook them at Kurlī, attacked and dispersed them, recovering much valuable property, which, as it belonged to his own subjects, Shivājī scrupulously restored[5].

In 1679, Shivājī's son Sambhājī joined the Moghals[6]. Diler Khān the Moghal general, intent on making Sambhājī the head of a party in opposition to his father, sent a detachment of his army from before Bijāpūr which they had invested, accompanied by Sambhājī as Rājā

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas, 202.

* Satara was captured on 27th of July and after the capture of Satara Shivaji installed his Guru in the neighbouring hill fort of Parali or Sajjangad, and guides still point out the tourists the seat on the top of the Satara hill from which Shivaji used to hold conversation with the saint across 4 miles of the space (Sarkar-Shivaji p. 193 and p. 363).

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, 208.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, 209.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas, 213.

5 Grant Duff's Marathas, 221.

6 According to Sardesai, Sambhaji joined the Moghals in 1678 but the fort was captured in 1679 (Sardesai—New History of Marathas Vol. I p. 251 and Sarkar—Shivaji p. 317).

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Shivaji
1627-1680.

of the Marāṭhās, and took Bhupālgaḍ in the Khānāpur sub-division Shivājī's easternmost outpost[1]. At the time of his death in 1680, Shivājī, who during the last two years of his life had become an ally of Bijāpūr against the Moghals, possessed that part of Sātārā of which the line of forts built from Tāthvaḍ to Panhāḷā distinctly marked the eastern boundary. Shiṅgaṇāpūr in the Māṇ sub-division in the east with the temple of Mahādev was his hereditary *inām* village given by one of the Ghāṭges to his father Shahājī[2]. Rāmdās Svāmī, Shivājī's *guru* or spiritual guide, whose life and conduct seem to have deserved the universal praise of his countrymen, a few days before his death in 1682 January wrote to Sambhājī his elder son from Paraḷī an excellent and judicious letter, advising him for the future rather than upbraiding him for the past, and pointing out the example of his father yet carefully abstaining from personal comparison[3].

The name of Rāmdās Svāmī is closely associated with many places in Sātārā region. On the completion of his all India pilgrimage he settled at Masur north of Karāḍ near the river Kṛshṇā, in about 1644. After staying there for about three or four years he shifted to Chāphaḷ where he continued his practice of celebrating the annual *Rāmnavmi* festival for which Shivāji, is reported to have made an annual grant of 200 *hons* or about Rs. 700. There is some controversy as to the nature of relationship between Rāmdās and Shivājī as also about the exact year in which they met each other, one side advocating that Rāmdās met Shivājī as early as in 1649 and initiated him into his favour, while the other advocating that the two could not have met each other earlier than in 1672[4]. Even accepting the later year i.e. 1672 as the one of their actual meeting it should be taken into account that their spheres of activity in which they worked for over thirty years, overlapped each other. Under the circumstances it is highly improbable that they might not have heard of each other. In fact there is ample indirect evidence to believe that the two held each other in high respect [5]. There is however no first hand evidence to prove that Shivājī ever took his inspiration from Rāmdās for his political mission. Similarly there is also no first hand evidence to show that Rāmdās's teaching which had been first purely religious, developed a secular and political character later because he was influenced by Shivājī's activities. It must be remembered that Rāmdās started collating his famous *Dāsbodh* in 1654, the piece-meal composition of which must have been done much earlier[6]. In 1676 Rāmdās at the request of Shivājī came to stay at Paraḷī which soon came to be known as Sajjangaḍ[7]. On Shivājī's return from the Karṇāṭak

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 225.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, 231.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, 238.

[4] G. S. Sardesai: New History of Marathas, Vol. I, p. 266.

[5] G. S. Sardesai: New History of the Marathas Vol. I, p. 265.

[6] Patra-Sar-Sangraha—1039.

[7] Patra-Sar-Sangraha, 1864.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.

campaign in 1678 Shivājī was apprised of the misconduct of his son Sambhājī whereupon Shivājī asked him to go to Rāmdās at Sajjangaḍ and stay with him for some time, hoping of course that the association of the saint would bring about the required change in his son's conduct. Unfortunately the hope was not realised, for Sambhājī soon chose a moment to escape from Sajjangaḍ with the object of joining Diler Khān.

Sambhaji 1680-1689.

After Shivājī's death, Rājārām his younger son was placed on the throne at Rāygaḍ by his mother Soyarābāi, who was supported by Shivājī's confidential secretary Bāḷājī Āvjī. He wrote letters in his own hand to the *Killedār* of Panhāḷā, calling upon him to keep a strict watch upon Sambhājī. The news of Shivājī's death could not however be long concealed from Sambhājī, who killed the *Killedār*, took possession of Panhāḷā and prepared for a march on Rāygaḍ. *Senāpati* Hambirrāv Mohite who was near Karāḍ, and who probably had no intimation of the plans at Rāygaḍ went over to Sambhājī. In the meantime two of Shivājī's prominent ministers Moropant Piṅgḷe and Aṇṇājī Datto who had supported the accession of Rājārām were moving towards Panhāḷā, apparently to prevent Sambhājī from doing any mischief. Sambhājī however managed to capture and confine them both at Panhāḷā under a rigorous watch. Determined to put down Soyarābāi and her supporters, Sambhājī marched on Rāygaḍ and got possession of the capital on 18th June 1680, putting Rājārām and Soyarābāi in close confinement. In gratitude for this easy success he immediately made a formal grant to his family goddess Bhavānī of ten thousand gold *hons* a year. Matters thus appeared to move smoothly. Moropant Piṅgḷe died in October 1680 and Sambhājī appointed his son Nīḷopant to Peshvāship. Aṇṇājī Datto was released and restored to his office. The formal coronation ceremony was performed on 10th January 1681 (Magh Shuddh 7, Shiva Charitra Pradip p. 31). The disturbed atmosphere of Mahārāshṭra appeared for a time to assume its normal tenor[1].

At this time Akbar the son of Auraṅgzeb rose up in rebellion against his father and fled to Rājputānā. Auraṅgzeb fought a battle with him at Ajmer and defeated him. Akbar who had been supported by the Rāṭhoḍs of Rājputānā under Durgādās fled with him to the south and came to the Deccan to seek the support of Sambhājī who extended his hospitality and accommodated him at Pālī in Koṅkaṇ. The discomfited group of Shivājī's statesmen again revived their efforts and probably sought the support of Akbar in their designs against Sambhājī, who straightway communicated the whole plot to Sambhājī. His anger now knew no bounds with the result that he instantly put the conspirators, like Aṇṇājī Datto, Bāḷājī Āvjī and Hirojī Farjand to death. (August-September 1681). Soyarābāi, the mother of Rājārām who died soon after, was said to have been poisoned under instructions from Sambhājī. Members of the Shirke family to which Soyarābāi belonged also incurred the displeasure of Sambhājī who put

[1] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas.

many of them to death[1]. The massacre of Shivājī's best men had a psychological reflex upon Sambhājī who felt himself somewhat lonely with almost none on whom he could depend. At this stage he developed closer relationship with one Kavi Kalash, a *kanoji* Brāhmaṇ coming from Prayāg, who soon became his trusted and intimate friend. It appears that Sambhājī had known him long since the time of his return journey from Āgrā during the life time of Shivājī. The term Kavi Kalash came to be mutilated at the hands of his detractors into Qalushā which in Marāṭhī meant a calumniator.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Sambhaji
1680-1689.

On his accession to the throne, Sambhājī found that his task was simply stupendous. On the Koṅkaṇ side he had to face the Sidis and the Portuguese who constantly harassed his possessions in that region, while on the Deccan plateau he had to watch the movements of the Moghals under Āzam, another son of Auraṅgzeb who had reached Auraṅgābād by that time. In the following year Moghal contingents were further strengthened by the arrival of prince Muazzam and Shahābuddin and they planned a three pronged attack on Sambhājī in Koṅkaṇ, Shahābuddin penetrating from the north near Kalyān, Muazzam marching from Belgāṅv across Rāmsej *ghat* and joining hands with the Portuguese at Goā and thus blockading him from the south, and the Sidis co-operating with both cutting off the supplies and preventing them from reaching the Marāṭhā forces which were to be trapped both from the north and the south. Simultaneously Āzam was expected to distract the attention of Sambhājī by carrying on a foraging campaign into Bāglāṇ. For about three years Sambhājī was incessantly facing the difficult situation and it must be said to his credit, that he proved himself to be a worthy son of his father and foiled with great skill and adventure all the attempts of the Moghals, the Sidis and the Portuguese. There is a reference that Durgādās helped him on the Surat side in this effort. Akbar, the rebel prince, wanted Sambhājī to join him in his north India campaign for the conquest of Delhi; but it is not surprising that Sambhājī refused to move far away from his base of operations, particularly when he had always reason to suspect some plot formation against him at home. Disappointed Akbar thereafter proceeded to Irāṇ in February 1687.

Fall of Bijapur 1686.

To turn to the Moghals: Auraṅgzeb was so enraged at the discomfiture of his forces that he is reported to have taken the cap off his head and thrown it on the ground taking a vow never to wear it until Sambhājī was overcome. He however decided to proceed against Ādil Shāhi and Kutb Shāhi powers first with the object of destroying them before he could turn his attention to Sambhājī. Accordingly he ordered his army to proceed to Bijāpūr. Thereupon Sambhājī resolved to harass Auraṅgzeb from the rear and with that object in view

[1] Marathi word 'Shirkan' meaning 'massacre' has been derived from this incident of the massacre of Shirkes.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Adil Shahi
1489-1686.
Sambhaji
1680-1689.

concentrated his forces under Kavi Kalash at Panhāḷā and also asked Hambirrāv to be watchful in that region. Sambhājī's efforts to distract the attention of Auraṅgzeb in this manner, however, did not prove effective probably because Sambhājī gave himself up to pleasure and slackened in his grip over the situation. Auraṅgzeb was able to capture Bijāpūr towards the end of 1686 and Goḷkoṇḍā next year and was now free to concentrate all his might against Sambhājī. For this purpose he encamped at Akluj[1] on the banks of Bhīmā near Paṇḍharpūr. One of the old Bijāpūr generals Shārzā Khān, a clever and watchful man, conversant with the terrain of the Marāṭhā country who had now joined the Moghals, invaded the Sātārā district. Sambhājī's *senapati* Hambirrāv Mohite came to oppose him. An action was fought between them near Wāi towards the end of 1687 in which Hambirrāv lost his life on the battle field. A kind of encircling movement was now started against Sambhājī in all directions. He was surrounded by swarms of Moghal parties occupying the difficult passes and stopping communication between Panhāḷā and Rāygaḍ where Sambhājī was known to be moving.

Moghals.
1686-1720.
Sambhaji
1680-1689.

The hilly region below the Sahyādri range between Kolhāpur and Sātārā were long held by the Shirkes who had become Sambhājī's mortal enemies. They now played their game, watched Sambhājī's movements and communicated them to the Moghal officers. For about a year after Hambirrāv's death Sambhājī and Kavi Kalash struggled as best as they could. In November 1688 Sambhājī having learned that Shirkes had attacked Kavi Kalash and forced him to run away to Vishāḷgaḍ for protection, rushed against them, forced them to take to their heels and joined Kavi Kalash at Vishāḷgad. Although Shirke was thus defeated, he came to know the movement of Sambhājī and lost no time in communicating them to the Moghals. On the 1st of February 1689 Sambhājī and Kavi Kalash started from Vishāḷgaḍ and on their way to Rāygaḍ halted at Saṅgameshvar. No sooner was this known Shaikh Nizām of the Moghals lost no time in rushing thither from Kolhāpūr and seized them both alive, while many others ran away to Rāygaḍ[2]. Shaikh Nizām seated Sambhājī on his own elephant and the other captives were accommodated on horses and camels, all moving towards the Emperor's camp via Āmbā Ghāṭ. Auraṅgzeb moved from Akluj to Bahādurgaḍ[3] where the captives were presented before him. They were subjected to disgrace and severe ill-treatment at that place and then Sambhājī was offered survival on very humiliating terms. Sambhājī who was roused to self-respect, spurned the offer and preferred a martyr's death to a disgraceful existence. Auraṅgzeb now ordered him to be put to death by cruel torture and this was effected at Koregāṅv on 11th March 1689, the *Amāvasyā* day of *Falguna*, Saka 1610.

[1] G. S. Sardesai : New History of the Marathas, Vol. I, p. 313.

[2] Shiv Charitra Pradeep, pp. 34-35.

[3] Ditto 314.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals.
1686-1720.
Social Effects of Moghal-Maratha Conflict

Before turning to subsequent events it is necessary to understand the social effects of the constant warfare and consequent uncertainty prevailing in Mahārāshṭra during this period. The system of administration which Shivājī had introduced gradually fell into decay, which first appeared in the army where Shivājī's discipline and strict orders came to be neglected. When the horse took the field, stragglers were allowed to join, plunder was secreted, women followers who had been forbidden on pain of death were not only allowed but women were brought off from the enemy's country as an established article of plunder and either kept as concubines or sold as slaves. The booty brought back by the commanders of the horse was too small for the pay of the troops. They took the field in arrears and leave to keep part of the plunder was a natural compensation for the regular pay allowed by Shivājī. As Sambhājī had to incur heavy expenses, his favourite minister Kavi Kalash, raised the land-rent by the addition of various cesses. When he came to collect the revenue he found the receipts much less than they had been in the time of Shivājī though the assessments were nominally greater. The managers of districts were in consequence removed for what seemed to him evident peculation. The revenue was farmed, many of the husbandmen fled from their villages, and the approach of a vast army of the Moghals under Auraṅgzeb helped to complete the prospect of ruin to the Marāṭhā territory[1]. In 1685 during his campaign Sultān Muazzam lay at Vāḷvā, and in the emperor's name took possession of such parts of the country as he could overrun. Deeds still remain in which Muazzam confirmed in his own name grants of lands originally given by Bijāpūr generals. In October a pestilence broke out in his camp, swept off many of his men, greatly diminished his force. Still on receiving the emperor's orders to reduce the south-west districts above the Sahyādris, formerly taken by Shivājī from Bijāpūr, he advanced without hesitation for that purpose[2]. In October 1686 Bijāpūr completely fell to Auraṅgzeb, the Bijāpūr government came to an end, and its territories passed to the Moghals[3].

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 246.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, 250.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, 206. In taking possession of a district the Moghals appointed two officers the *fauzdar*, a military and the *khalsa diwan*, a civil officer. The *fauzdar*, who was in command of a body of troops was charged with the care of the police and the protection of his division. He held, or, according to circumstances assumed, a greater or less degree of power. The regular amount allowed him for the maintenance of the district establishment was about 25 per cent. of the government collections. The duties of the *diwan* were entirely civil and he was entrusted with the collection of the revenue whether for the exchequer or on account of a *jagirdar*. The Moghal commander who received land grants or *jagirs* from the newly acquired territories seldom had lands permanently made over to them similar to the tenure by which the Maratha mansabdars held their possessions. The usual practice was to grant assignments for a term of years on specified districts for the support of their troops. Thus the *fauzdars* were on the footing of feudatories than the *jagirdars*. The *fauzdars* in conjunction with the *diwans* farmed out the districts to the *deshmukhs* or *desais* and the *diwans* realized the amount from them. Ditto, 267.

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals,
1686-1720.
Effect of Bijapur and Golkonda conquest.

The Marāṭhā *mansabdārs* on men of title who had been in the service of Bijāpūr, sent professions of duty to the emperor, but showed no readiness to join his standard.

The advantage which the Marāṭhās had gained by the extinction of Bijāpūr government was not neglected; several detachments pushed forward and occupied a great part of the open country towards Bijāpūr[1]. This indiscriminate rush for the occupation of the extensive territory resulted in further weakening of the discipline in the Marāṭhā army. Though ruinous to Sambhājī's resources as head of an organized state, this increased looseness had a wonderful effect in spreading predatory power. Every lawless man and every disbanded soldier, Muhammedan or Marāṭhā, who could command a horse and a spear, joined the Marāṭhā parties, and such adventurers were often enriched by the plunder of a day. It must also be realised that the Moghal invasion of the Deccan was a challenge to the Marāṭhās whose spirit of independence was roused and stimulated by the prospects of a worthy prize to their spirit of adventure. The multitude of horsemen nurtured by former wars was already too heavy for the resources of the Marāṭhā state. The proportion of the best troops which was kept in the Imperial service would probably have soon enabled Auraṅgzeb to suppress the forces of disorder had not the spirit of independence as also the love of war been kindled among the Marāṭhās. A pride in the conquests of Shivājī, their confidence in the strength of the forts, the skill and bravery of many of the Marāṭhā leaders, the ability and influence of many of the Brāhmaṇs, and the anger raised among Hindus by the odious poll-tax, excited a ferment which developed a nationalistic character for they felt that they were fighting for the ashes of their fathers and temples of their gods. It required a man of broader vision than Auraṅgzeb to deal with the new forces released by the spirit of the times.

Auraṅgzeb had great military and financial strength; he had considerable local knowledge, and in the first instance the same power of confirming or withholding hereditary right as his predecessors in conquest. Titles, *Mansabs*, and *jāgirs* were bestowed and still more frequently promised with a liberality greater than that of any former conqueror. Still, presumption, jealousy, and bigotry deprived him of many of those advantages. He was not fully aware of the strength of the people fired with the spirit of independence and determined for once to put an end to the spirit of religious intolerance of which he himself was an example incarnate. Instead of crushing it by the aid of the established governments Auraṅgzeb pulled down the two leading states of Goḷkoṇḍā and Bijāpūr and raised nothing in their place. He involved himself with enemies on every side; he discharged the soldiery. whom, in addition to his own troops, he could not maintain, and thus sent armies into the field against himself. He supposed that he was not only acquainted with the details of the arrangements

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 267.

Effect of Bijapur and Golkonda conquest.

necessary in a newly conquered territory, but capable of superintending them. He placed little confidence in his agents, while at the same time he employed Muhammedans in situations for which policy and humanity alike advised the choice of Hindus. The confusion and disorder which followed could not be quieted by the emperor's fancied wisdom or by the flattery and praises of his court and countrymen. Marāṭhās far from being dazzled by the pomp of the Moghal camp soon found the weak points in the magnificence of the emperor. The powerful Satara chiefs Ḍaphḷe, Ghāṭge, Māne, and Nimbāḷkar, during the siege of Bijāpūr hovered round the imperial camp until the fall of the capital. They then withdrew to their estates, sending their agents with humble professions of duty, and in some cases attending themselves. Still from this time they became unsettled and joined the adventurous parties of their countrymen or submitted to the Moghals as circumstances invited or forced them. Few of those adventurers were independent of Sambhājī's parties or of some of the local chiefs because the Moghal *fauzdār's* troops were always too strong for an isolated adventurer. While their envoys were in the imperial camp professing obedience to Auraṅgzeb, the chiefs often sent parties to plunder the Moghal districts. In case of discovery their Brāhmaṇ agent, who by bribery had secured the patronage of some great man at the Moghal court was ready to answer for or to excuse the irregular conduct of his master's followers. The Moghal *fauzdārs* were told to please the Marāṭhā chiefs on conditions that they agreed to serve the Moghals. The chiefs were negotiating with the *fauzdār*; their agents were intriguing at court; their own villages were secure; and their followers, hid under the vague name of Marāṭhās, were making the Moghal rule unsettled in the country. The Moghal officers who had land assignments in the Deccan soon found that they could raise little revenue. Their corruption was increased by poverty, and the offenders who in the first instance had plundered their districts by purchasing the connivance of the *fauzdārs*, bribed the *jāgirdārs* at court with a part of the village. The hereditary rights and the family feuds which had before usefully served as an instrument of Government, in the general confusion of the period became a cause of increasing disorder. The intricate nature of some of the hereditary claims in dispute and the ingenuity of Brāhmaṇs who with their ability to read and write and manage the *daftar* were usually the managers, made every case so plausible that the officers of Government found little difficulty in excusing or at least in palliating many acts of gross injustice to which they scandalously lent themselves. The rightful owners had often reason for complaint; they absented themselves with their troops, joined the adventurers, and when induced or compelled to come in, they boldly justified their behaviour by the injustice they had suffered.

When an hereditary office was forfeited or became vacant in any way the Moghal government selected a candidate on whom it was conferred; but the established premium of the exchequer was upwards of six and a half years' purchase or precisely 651 per cent. on one year's emoluments, one-fourth of which was made payable at the

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals.
1686-1720.
Effect of Bijapur and Golkonda conquest.

time of delivering the deed and the remainder by instalments. Besides this tax the clerks exacted an infinite number of fees or perquisites all of which lent encouragement to confiscations and new appointments. The emperor, weighed down by years, was soon overwhelmed with pressing cares; his ministers and their underlings were alike negligent and corrupt; even after deeds and papers were prepared years passed before the orders they contained were carried out[1]. Auraṅgzeb spent some time for the settlement and restoration at Bijāpūr. During this time his arms were everywhere successful. In Sambhājī's Deccan districts nothing but the strong forts remained unsubdued (1689). The Moghal troops had possessed themselves of Tāthvaḍ and the range of forts built by Shivājī between that place and Panhāḷā, and Auraṅgzeb was now preparing to enter on a regular plan for reducing the whole of the forts, as, in his opinion, this was all that remained to complete the conquest he had so long meditated. His plans were thwarted by the terrible outbreak of plague which forced him to leave Bijāpūr and pass north to Akluj in Sholāpūr.

Rajaram, 1689-1700.

*As has been said before, Sambhājī was surprised at Saṅgameshvar in 1689 and was carried in triumph to Aurangzeb's camp and subsequently met a heroic death. At Rāygaḍ, on the news of his death, his younger brother Rājārām was declared regent during the minority of Sambhājī's son Shivājī afterwards known as Shāhu. In 1689 Rāygaḍ the Marāṭhā capital fell to the Moghals and young Shivājī and his mother Yesubāi were made prisoners and taken to the Moghal camp. Shivājī's sword Bhavānī and the sword of Afzal Khān were taken by the Moghals. Yesubāi and her son found a friend in Begam Sāheb the daughter of Auraṅgzeb, and the emperor himself became partial to the boy whom he named Shāhu. Undaunted by the calamities the Marāṭhās resolved to fight with the Moghals by dividing their own forces and thus widely extending the field of military operations. Rājāram moved from place to place and afterwards made Jiñjī about eighty miles south-west of Madras his head-quarters. In a fresh arrangement of state offices made at this time Santāji Ghorpaḍe the oldest representative of the Kāpshi family was made *senapati* and was to act as a roving general between Kolhapur and Jiñjī. He was dignified with the title of *Hindu Rav Māmlakāt Madār*. He was also entrusted with a new standard called the *jaripaṭkā* or Golden Streamer, and in imitation of the imperial officers of the highest rank he was authorised to beat the *naubat* or large drum and assume various

1. Grant Duff's Marathas, 270-273.

* The Marathas gained their first signal victory over the Moghals on 4th June, 1690, when they captured Sharza Khan near Satara with his family, 4,000 horses and the entire camp and baggage of his army, after slaying 1,500 of his men. Then they recovered several forts namely Prabalgaḍ, Rohida, Rajgaḍ and Torna In 1692 there was a renewal of Maratha activity and their success was conspicuous in many quarters such as the recovery of Panhala. The disaster of Sharza Khan in 1690 compelled the emperor to occupy the Satara district in force, which led to frequent but indecisive conflicts with Santaji Ghorpade, who had made the Mahadev hill the base, and used to raid far to the south and the east (Sarkar in Cambridge History Vol. IV pp. 293-94).

other signs of rank. Rājārām at this time created a new office called pratinidhi or the King's representative and conferred it on Pralhād Nirāji who at this time was the soul of the Marāṭhā cause.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals.
1686-1720.
Rajaram
1689-1700.

While Rājārām was at Jiñjī, Rāmchandrapant Bāvḍekar who held the post of Amātya was given the title of *Hukmat Panhā* and was placed in charge of all the forts. He was given all powers of government, and under him was placed Parshurām Trimbak who from the humble situation of hereditary *kulkarni* of Kinhai had brought himself into notice and had given proofs of intelligence and spirit. These officers used great exertions in restoring forts and giving spirit and zeal to the garrisons. Rāmchandrapant moved from place to place, but fixed his principal residence at Sātārā, where, by the aid of his head writer Shaṅkarāji Nārāyaṇ Gāṇḍekar, he not only attended to every military disposition, but regulated the revenue and established order. He had raised troops of his own and had cut off several straggling parties of Moghals before Santāji and Dhanāji returned from Jiñjī. When they joined him Rāmchandrapant proposed a plan for surprising the *fauzdār* at Wāi to which, Santāji greatly pleased immediately agreed, took the *fauzdār* with all his troops prisoners, and in their stead established a Marāṭhā post. The presence of Santāji and Dhanāji inspirited Rāmchandrapant's men and he stirred his captains to follow their example. He sent them to make their established collections, the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*, as they were termed, from the Moghal territory, and under the encouragement of success, his officers added a third contribution for themselves under the head of *ghasdāṇā* or forage money. In this manner a new army was raised whose leaders were Pavār, Thorāt, and Aṭoḷe. Rājārām gave them honorary presents and rewards ; the title of Vishvāsrāv was conferred on Pavār, of Dinkarrāv on Thorāt, and of Shamsher Bahādur on Aṭoḷe. Rāmchandrapant was particularly partial to the *Dhangars* or shepherds, a great number of whom served among his troops ; and many of the ancestors of those who afterwards became great chiefs in the empire began their career under Rāmchandrapant. Shaṅkarāji Nārāyaṇ, known as an able officer, received charge of Wāi[1]. Jiñjī in which Rājārām was besieged fell to the Moghals in January 1698. But a few days before the fall, Rājārām was allowed to escape and came in safety to Vishāḷgaḍ in Kolhāpur[2]. In 1699 Rājārām remained for a short time at Sātārā which at the recommendation of Rāmchandrapant he made the seat of government and then passed north with his army plundering[3]. On hearing of Rājārām's return, Auraṅgzeb marched west from Brahmapuri in Sholāpur and encamped under the fort of Vasantgad about seven miles north-west of Karāḍ. Batteries were prepared and in three days the garrison surrendered. The emperor named the fort *Kalied-i-fateh* or the Key of Victory and was much pleased with his success. Auraṅgzeb marched for Sātārā, a movement wholly unexpected by the Marāṭhās, who, filled with the

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 280.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 283.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 286.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals.
Rajaram
1689-1700.
Satara taken by Aurangzeb, 1700.

idea that Panhāḷā in Kolhapur was about to be besieged, had directed all their preparations towards its defence. The provisions in Sātārā fort were not enough to stand more than a two month's siege. This neglect roused the suspicion that Rāmchandrapant had purposely left it unprovided. Of this suspicion Auraṅgzeb took advantage, and when during the siege, in consequence of Rājārām's illness, Rāmchandrapant was called to Sinhgaḍ in Pooṇā, Auraṅgzeb wrote a letter which fell into the hands of Parashurām Trimbak and widened the breach which had for some time existed between him and Rāmchandrapant. On arriving before Sātārā Auraṅgzeb pitched his tents to the north of the fort on the site of the present village of Kārañjā. Āzam Shah was stationed at a village on the west side which has since borne the name of Shahāpur. Shārzā Khān invested the south side and Tarbiyāt Khān occupied the eastern quarter; and chains of posts between the different camps effectually secured the blockade. The fort which occupies the summit of a very steep hill of moderate height, and whose defences consist of a sheer scarp of over forty feet topped by a stone wall, was defended by Prayāgji Prabhu Havildār, who had been reared in the service of Shivājī. He vigorously opposed the Moghals, and disputed every foot of ground as they pushed forward their advanced posts. As soon as they began to gain any part of the hill he withdrew his troops into the fort and rolled huge stones from the rock above, which did great execution, and, until they threw up cover were as destructive as artillery. In spite of Prayāgji's efforts the blockade was completed. All communication with the country round was cut off; and as the small stock of grain was soon exhausted, the besieged must have been forced to surrender had not Parashurām Trimbak, who had thrown himself into the fort or Paraḷī, bought the connivance of Āzam Shah and brought provisions to the besieged. The divisions on the west and south faces raised batteries, but the grand attack was directed against the north-east angle, one of the strongest points with a total height of sixty-seven feet of which forty-two were rock and twenty-five were masonry.

Tarbiyat Khān undertook to mine this angle, and at the end of four months and a half (1700) completed two mines. So confident of success were the Moghals, that the storming party was readily formed, but concealed as much as possible under the brow of the hill from the view of the garrison. Auraṅgzeb was invited to view the spectacle, and to draw the garrison towards the bastion emperor moved off from that side so that when the match was ready, hundreds of the Marāṭhās, drawn by his splendid retinue crowded to the rampart. The first mine was fired. It murst several fissures in the rock, and caused so violent a shock that a great part of the masonry was thrown inwards and crushed many of the garrison in its ruins. The storming party in their eagerness advanced nearer; the match was applied to the train of the second and larger mine, but it was wrongly laid and burst out with a dreadful explosion, destroying, it is said, upwards of 2,000 Moghals on the spot. Prayāgji the Marāṭhā commandant was buried in the ruins caused by the first

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals.
Rajaram 1689-1700.
Tarabai's Regency, 1700-1707.

explosion close to a temple dedicated to the goddess Bhavāni, but was afterwards dug out alive. His escape was considered a lucky omen, and under other circumstances might have done much to inspirit the garrison to prolong the defence. But as Āzam Shah could no longer be persuaded to allow grain to pass into the fort, proposals of surrender were made through him, and the honour of the capture which he so ill-deserved was not only assigned to him, but the place received his name and was called by the emperor Āzam Tārā. Sātārā surrendered on 21st April 1700. Immediately on the fall of Sātārā, Paraḷi was invested. The siege lasted till the beginning of June, when, after a good defence, the garrison left the fort. The fort was called by the emperor Nauras Tārā. As the south-west monsoon burst with great violence, the Moghal army, which was unprepared, suffered much distress and hardship before the camp could be moved from the hills. After much loss both of baggage and of life, the army reached Khavāspur on the banks of the Māṇ in Sātārā, where the rains are comparatively light[1].

Tarabai's Regency, 1700-1707.

A raid of Rājārām's against Jālnā about fifty miles east of Auraṅgābād was met so vigorously by Zulfikār Khān, the only Moghal general of whom the Marāṭhās then stood in fear, that Rājārām was forced to fly. So hot was the pursuit that though he managed to escape he died of exhaustion at Sinhgaḍ near Pooṇā on 3rd March 1700, more than a month before the fall of Sātārā[2]. The news of Rājārām's death was received in the emperor's camp at Sātārā with great rejoicing. Tārābāi, Rājārām's elder widow, who, with the aid of Rāmchandrapant Amātya had immediately assumed the government for her son Shivājī a boy of ten, raised Parashurām Trimbak to the rank of Pratinidhi, and placed him in general charge of all the forts. Tārābāi had no fixed residence[3]. The *mānkaris* began to profess obedience to the descendant of Shivāji and sometimes joined his standard, but they always plundered on their own account when opportunity offered[4].

Aurangzeb, whose reign was prolonged beyond all expectation, persevered to the last in his fruitless endeavours to stifle Marāṭha independence. In 1701 besides several other forts in Pooṇā and Kolhāpūr, Chandan, Vandan and Pāṇḍugaḍ surrendered to his officers[5]. But these apparently vigorous efforts were unsubstantial; there was motion and bustle without zeal or efficiency. The empire was unwieldy, its system relaxed, and its officers corrupt beyond all example. It was inwardly decayed, and ready to fall to pieces as much by its inherent weakness as by the corroding power of the Marāṭhās whom the Muhammedan wars had trained to arms. Though the weakness of the government tempted them to plunder.

1 Grant Duff's Marathas, 299-300.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 300.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 301.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas, 302.

5 Grant Duff's Marathas, 303; Elliot and Dowson, V. 370.

CHAPTER 2.
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History.
MUSLIM RULE.
Moghals
Tarabai's Regency
1700-1707.

the Marāṭhās had not yet the feeling of conquerors. There was a common sympathy but no common effort; their military spirit was excited by plunder, more than by patriotism. Many enjoyed greater advantages under the weak Moghals than they were likely to enjoy under a strong Marāṭhā government and these were eager that war should not cease. Many Moghal officers in charge of districts were in the pay of both parties, and they also had no wish that the confusion should end. Parties of Marāṭhās in the service of the Moghals met, rioted, and feasted with their countrymen, and at parting or when passing within hearing of each other used to mock the Muhammeḍans by uttering an *alhamdalilah*—praise be to Allā, and praying for long life to the glorious Ālamgir whose mode of warfare made their life so easy.

Some of the Moghal officers were anxious to negotiate a peace and Kām Bakhsha, the favourite son of the emperor, whose early plans were directed to the establishment of an independent kingdom at Bijāpūr, contrived to obtain the emperor's consent to open a negotiation with Dhanāji Jādhav. Overtures were begun by proposals for releasing Shāhu, the son of Sambhāji. The negotiations proceeded and for a few days Aurangzeb had been brought to agree to pay ten per cent. of the whole revenue of the six *subhās* of the Deccan as *sardeshmukhi* for which the Marāṭhās were to engage to maintain order with a body of horse. On the news of the concession, the Marāṭhās, who, notwithstanding their predatory practices were exceedingly eager to have any right formally recognised, flocked to Dhanāji's camp. With their increasing numbers their expectations and their insolence rose. Their tone changed from prayer to demand, they crowded near the camp, and when they required honorary dresses for seventy officers, Aurangzeb suspected treachery, broke off the negotiations, and recalled his ambassador. Soon after he left the Marāṭhā camp the Moghal ambassador was attacked, and as this confirmed the emperor's suspicion of treachery he withdrew to the east.[1]

In 1705 Tārābāi went to live at Panhāḷā in Kolhāpur and admitted Rāmchandrapant to a very large share of power. In the following year Vasantgaḍ and Sātārā were taken by the Pratinidhi, Parashurām Trimbak. Sātārā was surprised by the artifice of a Brāhman named Aṇṇājipant. This man had escaped from prison at Jiñjī and assumed the character of a mendicant devotee. He fell in with a party of Moghal infantry marching to relieve the Sātārā garrison, amused them with stories and songs, obtained alms from them, and so ingratiated himself with all that they brought him with them, admitted him into the fort and in reward for his wit allowed him to live there. Aṇṇājipant, who had been a writer attached to a body of Māvḷi Infantry, saw that with the aid of a few of his old friends the place might be surprised. He watched his chance, told Parashurām

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 306.

Trimbak of his design, and having introduced a body of Māvḷis into the fort the enterprising man seized the opportunity to put every man of the garrison to the sword.[1]

Maratha Rule.

Maratha Rule.

Shahu, 1707-1749

Auranczeb died in 1707. By the advice of Zulfikār Khān Aurangzeb's second son, prince Āzam Shah, determined to release Shāhu and promised that if he succeeded in establishing his authority and continued steadfast in his allegiance he should receive the tract conquered from Bijāpūr by his grandfather Shivāji with an additional territory between Bhimā and Godāvari[2]. On Shāhu's approach Tārābāi, unwilling to lose the power she had so long held, pretended to believe him an impostor and determined to oppose him. The first encounter between Shāhu and Tārābāi's forces under Dhanāji Jādhav and Parashurāmpant Pratinidhi took place at Kheḍ where Shāhu got an easy victory on 12th October 1707, because Dhanāji feeling that Shāhu's cause was just, did not fight and the Pratinidhi finding himself single-handed withdrew from the field and fled to Sātārā. Shāhu proceeded towards Shirval which guarded the way towards Rohiḍā fort. Tārābāi had assigned to Shankarāji Nārāyaṇ Sachiv, the work of guarding the western hilly region round about. He was one of those who had expressed his loyalty towards Tārābāi by taking an oath on boiled rice and milk (Malhār Rāmrāo Chiṭṇis: Thorale Shāhu Mahārāj p. 14). Shāhu invited Shankarāji to see him for a talk, but he would not go. Shāhu then himself decided to see him. Shankarāji made all possible efforts to avoid him but finding his position rather critical, and himself divided between the conflict of loyalties, he suddenly put an end to his life[3], rather than prove unfaithful to the oath that he had taken. Thereupon Shāhu went to console his aggrieved widow and promised to continue her son Nāro Shankar in her husband's post, and confirmed Shankarāji's Mutālik in his office as before. This measure firmly secured to Shāhu the support of Pant Sachiv's party who never afterwards departed from their allegiance to him. Shāhu further proceeded to the South and took Chandan Vandan. Tārābāi now assigned the task of defending Sātārā to Pratinidhi and herself fled to Panhāḷā for security and thence subsequently to Mālvaṇ. Shāhu on approaching Sātārā seized the families of all who were acting against him and sent an order to Parashurām Trimbak to surrender Sātārā. Parashurām did not obey, but Shaikh Mīrāh a Muhāmmedan officer who commanded under him confined him and gave up the fort[4]. On

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 308.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, 314.

[3] Grant Duff says that he performed *Jal Samadhi* or water death, a form to which Hindu devotees were partial. The victim seated himself on a wooden platform supported in deep water by earthen pots with their mouths turned down. Small holes were bored in the earthen pots and the platform sank. (Grant Duff Vol. I, p. 320). Whatever the truth about the manner of Shankarāji's death, the dates and the sequence given by Duff are wrong. Shankarāji met his death in 1707.

[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 315.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749.

gaining possession of Sātārā, Shāhu formally seated himself on the the throne on 12th January 1708. (Marāṭhi Daftar, Rumāl I, p. 118, Edited by V. L. Bhave). Gadādhar Pralhād was appointed Pratinidhi and Bahiropant Piṅgḷe was made Peshvā. Dhanāji Jādhav was confirmed in his rank of *Senāpati* or chief captain and the right of making collections in several districts was entrusted to him. In the prevailing confusion the revenue was realised on no fixed principle, but was levied as opportunity presented itself in the manner of contribution. The principal writers employed by Dhanāji in revenue affairs were Ābāji Purandare, accountant of Sāsvaḍ near Pooṇā, and another Brāhmaṇ accountant originally belonging to Shrivardhan in Jañjirā, a village claimed by the Sidi, which he had left for a career as early as in 1689 if not earlier. Since then he held different posts as Sar-Subhedār of Pooṇā (Sardesai: Marathi Riyasat 5, Punya Shloka Shahu p. 50) and Daulatābād, and played an important part in the War of Independence as a mediator between the Moghal and the Marāṭhā camps and occasionally extended a helping hand to Shāhu during his long period of confinement. In the course of his activities he came to be associated with Purandares of Sāsvaḍ and was therefore recommended to Dhanāji by Ābāji Purandare and Parashurām Trimbak. The name of the Shrivardhan accountant, afterwards famous as the founder of the Peshvā's power, was Bāḷājī Vishvanāth Bhaṭṭ. Shortly afterwards Dhanājī Jādhav was deputed towards Khāṇdesh for fighting with the Moghals and Shāhu himself proceeded to the south towards Panhāḷā and Vishāḷgaḍ. Having captured the forts he turned his attention towards Rāṅgaṇā which was defended by Ramchandrapant on behalf of Tārābāi. On the approach of the rainy season Shāhu's army was cantoned at Panhāḷā. Dhanāji however was not destined to see him as he met his death at Vaḍgāṅv on the banks of the river Vārṇā, as he was returning after finishing his Khāndesh campaign. (27th June 1708) (Sardesai: Marathi Riyasat, Punya Shloka Shahu p. 53). During this period Shāhu neglected no preparations to enable him to reduce his rival. Among other expedients he made an unsuccessful application to Sir Nicholas Waite, the Governor of Bombay for a supply of guns, ammunition, European soldiers, and money[1].

At the opening of the fair season, after holding the *Dasara* holiday, preparations were made to renew the war against Tārābāi (1709). But about that time an agreement with the Moghals waived the question of hereditary claim and made the reduction of Tārābāi less important to Shāhu[2]. Dāud Khān Panni, whom Zulfikār Khān left as his deputy in the Deccan, settled with such Marāṭhā chiefs as acknowledged Shāhu's authority, with certain reservations, to allow them one-fourth of the revenue, at the same time reserving the right of collecting and paying it through his own agents. Dāud Khān's intimacy with most of the Marāṭhā chiefs, his connection with Zulfikār Khān, and the terms of friendship

[1] Bruce's Annals in Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 318.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 319.

between Zulfikār and Shāhu, not only preserved Shāhu's ascendancy, but, except in instances where independent plundering bands occasionally appeared, secured a fairly correct observance of the terms of the agreement. At the close of 1709 Shāhu returned to Sātārā and married two girls, one from the Mohite and the other from the Shirke family. His other two wives who were married to him while in Auraṅgzeb's camp were with his mother at Delhi, where one of them, the daughter of Shinde shortly afterwards died. During this period Bāḷājī Vishvanāth always acted as the righthand-man of shāhu. This brought on Bāḷājī the keen jealousy of Dhanāji's son Chandrasen Jādhav, and of several others in his service. In 1710, the army had scarcely returned to Sātārā, when Tārābāi encouraged by the commandant of Panhāḷā, marched from Mālvaṇ in Ratnāgirī reinforced by the troops of Phoṇḍ Sāvant, and made Panhāḷā and the neighbouring town of Kolhāpūr her residence. Her hopes were now raised as Chandrasen Jādhav left Shāhu and joined Tārābāi under circumstances to be narrated later for over three years. Tārābāi held her position firmly at Panhāḷā and Shāhu was in no mood to disturb her; but in 1714 coup d'etat at Kolhāpūr in which Tārābāi and her son Shivājī were put into prison and Rājasbāi and her son Sambhājī were placed on the throne (1714). [1]It is believed that Rāmchandrapant who was never fully trusted by Tārābāi had a hand in this court revolution. Whatever the truth, there is no doubt that Rāmchandrapant exerted himself with renewed vigour to reorganise the administration at Kolhāpūr and uphold the claims of Sambhājī as a rival to Shāhu. Still so long as Dāud Khān's government continued Shāhu was secured in the ascendancy. He was surrounded by most of the experienced ministers and had acquired a name for himself by his conciliatory disposition. It has already been said that he had won over Sachiv to his side. But he was not equally successful in binding to his interest all the members of the Pratinidhi's family. In 1713, Shahu released Parashurām Trimbak, restored his honours by the removal of Gadādhar Pralhād, and confirmed him in his formal charge of Vishāḷgaḍ and its dependencies. The Pratinidhi sent his eldest son Kṛshṇāji Bhāskar to assume the management of the fort and district, but he had no sooner obtained possession than he revolted, tendered his services to Sambhājī and was made Pratinidhi at Kolhāpūr. On this defection Parashurām Trimbak was again thrown into confinement, and Shāhu, under the belief that the revolt had been encouraged by him, intended to have put him to death but was dissuaded from his design by the timely mediation of Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ[2]. In consequence of changes at the imperial court, Dāud Khān was removed from the government of the Deccan and the agreement between the Moghals and the Marāthās was dissolved. Chandrasen Jādhav, who on the death of his father Dhanāji Jādhav had been appointed chief captain, was

[1] According to Jadunath Sarkar Tarabai was removed from administration and her place was taken by Rajas Bai in the year 1712 (Cambridge History, Vol. IV, p. 392).

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 321.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749.

sent from Sātārā with a considerable army and directed to levy the *chauth*, *sardeshmukhi*, and *ghāsdaṇā* from the Moghal districts. He was attended by his father's accountant Bāḷāji Vishvanāth who was now charged with collecting and appropriating a share of the revenue for Shāhu, a situation of control which, under no circumstances, was likely to be favourably viewed by Chandrasen. The old jealousy was increased tenfold, and in a dispute about a deer run down by one of Bāḷāji's horsemen, the suppressed hatred burst forth. Bāḷāji was forced to flee for his life. He fled first to Sāsvad in Pooṇā but the Sachiv's agent at Sāsvaḍ did not think it prudent to protect him. With a few followers, amongst whom were his sons Bājirāv and Chimāji, Bāḷāji attempted to cross to Pāṇḍugaḍ, a fort in the opposite valley, but Chandrasen's horsemen were already on his track searching for him everywhere. In this extremity he contrived to hide for a few days until two Marāṭhās, Pilāji Jādhav and Dhumāḷ, then common cavaliers in his service, by their influence with their relations, gathered a small troop of horse, and promised at the risk of their lives to carry him and his sons to the *māchi* or village attached to the hill fort of Pāṇḍugaḍ. When Shāhu heard of this quarrel between Chandrasen and Bāḷāji he carefully considered the whole case and resolved to extend protection to Bāḷāji. Thereupon, Chandrasen demanded of Shāhu that Bāḷāji should be given up, and in case of refusal threatened to renounce his allegiance. Shāhu, though not prepared to punish this insolent demand, refused to give up Bāḷāji and sent orders to Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar *Sar Lashkar*, then near Ahmadnagar, at once to march on Sātārā. Meanwhile Bāḷāji Vishvanāth was in Pāṇḍugaḍ surrounded by the *Senapati's* troops. Haibatrāv, who was annoyed that he had not been made *Senapati* and was incensed at Chandrasen's behaviour, eagerly obeyed the order to march against him. Hearing of Haibatrāv's arrival at Phalṭaṇ Chandrasen quitted Pāṇḍugaḍ and marched to Devur about fifteen miles to the south-east. The armies met, Chandrasen was defeated, retired to Kolhāpur, and from Kolhāpur he went to meet Chin Kilich Khān Nizām-ul-mulk, the Moghal viceroy of the Deccan, by whom he was well received and rewarded[1]. Chandrasen for revenge and Nizām-ul-mulk who was disposed to favour the cause of Sambhāji and desirous of suppressing the ravages of Shāhu's officers sent an army against Haibatrāv. To support him, Shāhu sent forward a body of troops under Bāḷāji Vishvanāth whom he now dignified with the title of *senā karte* i.e. organiser of the army. A battle was fought near Purandhar in Pooṇā, in which the advantage claimed by the Marāṭhās is contradicted by their subsequent retreat to the Sālpā pass twenty miles south of Purandhar. A detachment of Marāṭhās from the Moghal army took possession of the Pooṇā district. At length an accommodation was made, hostilities ceased, and the Moghals returned to Auraṅgābād. When the war was over the emperor Farrukhsiyār appointed Shāhu to the command of 10,000 horse. But for seventeen months the policy and vigour of Nizām-ul-Mulk greatly controlled the Marāṭhās[2]. During the rains of 1714

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 189-191.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 331.

the Marāṭhās resumed their depredations. All the *deshmukhs* and *deshpāṇḍes* in the Moghal districts of Mahārāshṭra fortified their villages on pretence of defending themselves, but they frequently joined or aided their countrymen of whatever party in escape, defence, and concealment[1].

As Nizām-ul-mulk favoured the Kolhāpūr party, Sambhājī's influence rose and Shāhu's fell. The Ghorpaḍes, both of Kāpshī and Mudhol, joined the Kolhāpūr party. Sidoji Ghorpaḍe, the son of Bahirji and nephew of the famous Santājī also declared for Sambhājī, but, along with his ally the Nawāb of Sāvanur was too intent on his schemes of conquest and plunder to quit the Karṇāṭak[2]. Krishṇarāv Khaṭāvkar, a Brāhmaṇ, raised to power by the Moghals, took post about the Mahādev hills within Sātārā limits, and without joining either Sātārā or Kolhāpur plundered the country on his own account. Damājī Thorāt, a lawless upstart of the Kolhāpūr party who acknowledged no chief but his old patron Rāmchandrapant, levied contributions in Pooṇā. Udājī Chavhān, another of Rāmchandrapant's officers took the mud fort of Battis Shirāḷā about twenty miles south of Karāḍ, and in a short time became so formidable that Shāhu was glad to enter into a compromise by conceding the *chauth* of Shirāḷā and Karāḍ, which Udāji long continued to receive as a personal allowance. Several other petty wasters declared for Sambhājī. Among these the most formidable was Kānhoji Āṅgrē who then held the coast from Sāvantvāḍī to Bombay, and was spreading his power over the province of Kalyāṇ in Ṭhāṇā. So great was the anarchy that, without a sudden change of fortune and greater efficiency in Shāhu's government, his authority over the Marāṭhās must soon have ceased. Bāḷājī Vishvanāth instilled some vigour into his counsels and began to lead in public affairs. He set out to reduce Damājī Thorāt; but, together with his frient Ābāji Purandhare, and his two sons Bājirāv and Chimājī, he was treacherously seized by Thorāt and thrown into confinement. After many indignities their ransom was settled and paid by Shāhu who now applied to the Sachiv to suppress Thorāt. The Sachiv and his manager advanced against Thorāt, but they too were defeated and thrown into confinement. At the same time two other expeditions were prepared at Sātārā, one under the Peshvā Bahiropant Piṅgḷe which went to guard the Koṅkaṇ and repel Āṅgre and the other commanded by Bāḷājī Vishvanāth was ordered to suppress Krishṇarāv Khaṭāvkar. Krishṇarāv had become so bold that he marched to Aundh about ten miles south of Khaṭāv, to meet Shāhu's troops. He was totally defeated principally through the bravery of Shripatrāv, the second son of Parashurām Trimbak, the Pratinidhi, whose father had urged him to perform some action which might wipe away the misconduct of his elder brother and

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 325. Khanderav Dabhade who acknowledged Shahu as his chief and had established himself about Nanded in Rajpipla, carried on depredations at this time in Gujarat.

[2] About this time Sidoji gained a great acquisition in the fort of Sondur, a place of singular strength within twenty-five miles of Belari. Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 325.

CHAPTER 2.
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History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Vishvanath Peshva, 1713-1720.

procure his father's release. Shāhu accordingly once more restored the Pratinidhi to liberty and rank. Krishnarāv submitted, was pardoned, and received the village of Khaṭāv. This success was of considerable importance, but a like good fortune did not attend the Peshvā's expedition. Bahiropant was defeated and made prisoner by Āṅgre who took Lohagaḍ and Rājmāchī in West Pooṇā, and was reported to be marching on Sātārā. All the force that could be spared was gathered to oppose him. It was placed under Bāḷājī Vishvanāth whose former connection with Āṅgre would, it was hoped, lead to some settlement. Bāḷājī's negotiations were successful, and Āṅgre, on condition of large cessions[1] in the Koṅkaṇ, gave up his Deccan conquests except Rājmāchī, renounced Sambhājī, released the Peshvā, and agreed to maintain the cause of Shāhu. As Bāḷājī performed this service entirely to Shāhu's wishes, on his return to Sātārā he was received with great distinction, and in consequence of the failure of Bahiropant Piṅgḷe, that minister was removed from the dignity of *Mukhya Pradhān* and Bāḷājī appointed Peshvā in his stead (1714)[1a]. His friend Ābāji Purandare was confirmed as his chief agent or *mutālik* and Rāmājipant Bhānu an ancestor of the celebrated Nānā Faḍṇavis as his *faḍṇavis*[2]. After the desertion of Chandrasen Jādhav, Mānāji More had received clothes of investiture as chief captain or *Senāpati*, but failed to perform the services which were expected of him. He was now ordered, with Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar, to accompany Bāḷājī into the Pooṇā district to reduce Damāji Thorāt. As it was feared that the Sachiv, who was still Thorāt's prisoner at Hiṅgaṇgānv in Pooṇā, might be killed if the place were attacked, Yesubāi, the Pant Sachiv's mother, prevailed on Bāḷājī to obtain his release before hostilities began. In this Bāḷājī succeeded and Yesubāi in gratitude made over to the Peshvā the Sachiv's rights in the Pooṇā district and gave him the fort of Purandar as a place of refuge for his family who then lived in Sāsvaḍ. Bāḷājī obtained a confirmation of the grant of Purandar from Shāhu. The force assembled by Bāḷājī at this time was too powerful for Thorāt. His fort was stormed and destroyed and himself made prisoner[3].

In 1715 Haibatrāv quarrelled with Shāhu for not appointing him *Senāpati*, retired to the Godāvari, and was never reconciled. The Peshvā induced the Moghal agent in the Pooṇā district, a Marāṭhā named Bājī Kadam, to make over the superior authority to him, on the promise that Rambhājī Nimbāḷkar's *jāgir* should be respected[4].

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 327. Angre received ten forts and sixteen fortified places of less strength with their dependent villages and was confirmed in command of the fleet and in his title of *sarkhel*.

[1a] According to Jadunath Sarkar Balaji Vishvanath was appointed on 17th November 1713. (Sardesai – New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 24).

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 328.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 329.

[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 329. The Peshva suppressed some bandits which infested the Poona district, restored order in the villages, stopped revenue-farming, and encouraged tillage by low and gradually increasing assessments, Ditto.

In all quarters Marāṭhā affairs began to improve. Still after a period of such confusion, weakness, and anarchy, the rapid expansion of their power is in any view very remarkable and at first sight seems incredible. The influence of Bāḷājī Vishvanāth continued to increase and no affair of importance was undertaken without his advice. A conciliatory policy was agreeable to Shāhu and dictated all Bāḷājī's measures. The system of Shivājī was the groundwork of their arrangements; but since the time of Sambhājī (1680-1689), the necessity of preserving the Rājā's supremacy by profusely issuing deeds confirming to every successful Marāṭhā leader the possession of all the territory in which he could establish himself, was ruinous both to their union and their resources as a nation. Still the nature of the tribute which Shivājī's genius had instituted suggested a remedy for the endless divisions which every additional acquisition of territory was likely to create. The expedient adopted, which is given below, although it ensured its end only temporarily, must be considered as the most ingenious decree ever adopted by the ingenious persons of those days.

The ministry as far as practicable was composed of the old retainers, and the posts of those who adhered to the Kolhāpūr party were conferred on their near relations.

About this time both Parsojī Bhonsle and Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar died. Parsojī's son Kānhojī was confirmed by Shāhu in all his father's possessions and succeeded to his title of *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, but the rank of *Sar Lashkar* was conferred on Dāvalji Somavanshi together with the right and honours of the post. Haibatrāv's son, annoyed at being set aside, quitted Shāhu's standard and joined Nizām-ul-Mulk. Shāhu was not without ability. He was naturally generous, liberal to all religious establishments, observant of the forms enjoined by the Hindu faith, and particularly charitable to Brāhmaṇs. The hilly west Deccan and the rugged Konkaṇ were his birthright, but as his childhood was pleasantly spent in the pomp and luxury of the Moghal camp he had developed easy going habits. He occasionally showed violence and for a time anger overcame his indolence. In general however he was satisfied with the respect and homage paid to his person and the obedience which his ministers invariably professed to his commands. He was pleased at being free from the drudgery of business and in giving himself up to his fondness for hawking, hunting, and fishing, he did not foresee that he was delegating a power which might supersede his own. As legitimate head of the Marāṭhās, the importance of that nation was increased by the manner in which he was courted by the Moghals; and the dignities and rights conferred upon him in consequence of his situation gave an influence and respect to the name of Shāhu, which under other circumstances he could never have attained. Both the sons of Shivājī, Sambhājī and Rājārām, followed the example of their father from the period when he mounted the throne and always declared their independence. Shāhu acknowledged himself a vassal of the throne of Delhi, and while styling himself king of the Marāṭhās, affected, in his transactions

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Vishvanath Peshva, 1713-1720.

with the Moghals, to consider himself merely as a *zamindār* or head *deshmukh* of the empire[1].

In 1715 Farrukhsiyār, the emperor of Delhi, becoming jealous of the Sayyid brothers to whom he owed his elevation, appointed the younger Sayyid Husain Ali Khān to the viceroyalty of the Deccan, in the hopes that by separating the brothers he should weaken their power and compass their destruction. In 1716, Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe, who had established a line of posts along the Surat-Burhānpur route and defeated two large Moghal armies, went to Sātārā paid his respects to Shāhu, and was raised to the rank of Senapati of the empire, Mānāji More being removed for inability and misconduct. The Marāṭhā officers encouraged by their success and by the secret overtures of Farrukhsiyār now extended their encroachments, and in addition to the *chauth* which they had agreed to receive from Dāud Khān in lieu of all claims, they everywhere levied the *sardeshmukhi*. Under these circumstances the Deccan government of Sayyid Husain Ali Khān, distracted by Marāṭhā depredations on one side and court intrigues on the other, had recourse to negotiations with Shāhu. Shankarāji Malhār originally a writer under Shivājī and appointed Sachiv by Rājārām at Jiñjī, had retired during the siege of that place to Benāres. Tired of a life so little in accord with his former habits, although a very old man, Shankarājī took service with Husain Ali Khān when he was appointed to the Deccan. He soon gained the confidence of his master, and at an early period entered into a correspondence with his friends at Sātārā. He represented to the viceroy that if the Marāṭhā claims were recognised, they would have an interest in the prosperity of the country; that this was the only way to restore tranquillity, and a certain means of gaining powerful allies by whose aid he might rest secure from present intrigues, and eventually defy the avowed hostility of the emperor. Husain Ali approving of these views sent Shankarājī Malhār to Sātārā to arrange an alliance between the Moghals and the Marāṭhās. This mission opened a great prospect to the aspiring mind of Bāḷājī Vishvanāth. Besides the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of the six *subhās* of the Deccan including the Bijāpūr and Hyderābād Karṇāṭaks, with the tributary states of Mysore Trichinopoli and Tañjore, Shāhu demanded the whole of the territory in Mahārāshṭra which had belonged to Shivājī with the exception of his possessions in Khāndesh, and in lieu of Khāndesh territory near the old districts as far east as Paṇḍharpūr was to be substituted. The forts of Shivneri in Poonā and of Trimbak in Nāsik were also to be given up. The old districts in the Karṇāṭak were also demanded, and a confirmation of some conquests lately made by Kānhoji Bhonsle the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* in Goṇḍavan and Berār. Lastly the mother and family of Shāhu were to be sent from Delhi as soon as practicable. On these conditions Shāhu promised to pay to the imperial treasury, for the old territory a yearly *peshkash* or tribute of Rs. 10 lakhs; for the *sardeshmukhi* or ten per cent. of the whole revenue he bound himself to protect the country, to put down every form of disorder,

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 331.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Vishvanath Peshva,
1713-1720.

to bring thieves to punishment or restore the stolen property, and to pay the usual fee of 651 per cent. on the annual income for the hereditary right of *sardeshmukhi*; for the grant of chauth no fee was to be paid, but he agreed to maintain a body of 15,000 horse in the emperor's service, to be placed at the disposal of the *subhedārs*, *fauzdārs* and officers in different districts. The Karnāṭak and the *subhās* of Bijāpūr and Hyderābād which were then overrun by the partizans of Sambhājī Rājā of Kolhāpur, Shāhu promised to clear of plunderers, and to make good every loss sustained by the people of those provinces after the final settlement of the treaty. Shankarāji Malhār had already sufficiently proved his desire to forward the interests of his countrymen, and Shāhu appointed him (1717) to conclude the terms, which, according to the above proposals, were with some exception conceded by Husain Ali Khān.

The territory and forts not under the viceroy's control were to be recovered at some season of leisure or in any manner which Shāhu might think fit. Meanwhile a body of 10,000 horse were sent to join the viceroy. Santājī and Parsojī Bhonsle, relations of the *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, Udāji Pavar, Vishvāsrav and several other commanders were detached in charge of the Marāṭhā troops for this duty. At the same time agents were sent to inquire into the state of the districts and collect the extensive shares of revenue now assigned to them, while the ministers were devising a system, for realising their claims which it was by no means so easy to realise.

The emperor refused (1718) to ratify the treaty. An unworthy favourite encouraged him in his intrigues for the destruction of the Sayyids, he became less guarded in his measures, and as an open rupture seemed inevitable, Husain Ali Khān prepared to march for the capital and solicited aid from Shāhu. He also pretended to receive from Shāhu a son of Sultān Muhammad Akbar then residing at the Marāthā court. Such an opportunity was not neglected. Bāḷāji Vishvanāth and Khanderāv Dābhāḍe proceeded to join the viceroy with a large body of troops, for which he agreed to pay them a certain sum daily from the date of their crossing the Narmadā until their return. Husain Ali Khān further promised that the treaty should be ratified and the family of Shāhu released and delivered to his officers. On his departure Shāhu instructed Bāḷājī Vishvanāth to endeavour to obtain the cession of the forts of Daulatābād and Chāndā[1] and authority to levy the tribute which had for some time been imposed by the Marāṭhās in Gujarāt and Māḷvā. The reason for this apparently extraordinary demand was that the chief who had already levied contributions in those provinces would break in and plunder, unless Shāhu could receive such an authority as must oblige them to look to him only for what they termed their established contributions, and that under these circumstances Shāhu would be responsible for the protection and improvement of their territories. The combined army marched to Delhi where the wretched emperor Farrukhsiyār after some tumult

[1] Chanda is about a hundred miles south of Nagpur.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Balaji Vishvanath Peshwa, 1713-1720.*

was confined by the Sayyids and put to death. Two princes of the line succeeded and died within seven months. Rohsan Akhtar, the grandson of Sultān Muazzam was then raised (1719) to the imperial dignity with the tit'e of Muhammad Shah, but the two Sayyids held all the power. Bāļājī Vishvanāth and his Marāțhās remained at Delhi until the accession of Muhammad Shah (1720). During the tumult which preceded the confinement of Farrukhsiyār, Santāji Bhonsle and 1,500 of his men were killed by the populace in the streets of Delhi. The army was paid by the Sayyids, according to agreement, and Shāhu's mother and family were given over to Bāļāji Vishvanāth. As both the Peshvā and the *Senāpati* were anxious to return to the Deccan they were allowed to leave, and in accordance with the treaty with Husain Ali Khān, they received three Imperial grants for the *chauth*, *sardeshmukhi*, and *svarājya*[1].

Grant of Chauth and Sardeshmukhi, 1720.

The *chauth* or one-fourth of the whole revenue of the six *subhās* of the Deccan including the Hyderabād and Bijāpūr, Karņāțaks and the tributary states of Tañjore, Trichinopo'i and Mysore[2], the *sardeshmukhi* or ten per cent over and above the *chauth*[3], and the *svarājya*, literally, Self Rule, that is the districts held by Shivāji at the time of his death, which were granted to Shāhu, excepting the detached possessions in Khāndesh, the fort of Trimbak with the adjoining district, and the conquests south of the Vardhā and the Tungabhadrā

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, . 337-38. When Grant Duff wrote (1826) the original grants were in the possession of the Raja of Satara. They were in the name of Muhammad Shah, dated in the first year of his reign A. H. 1131 (A. D. 1719). The emperor Muhammad Shah was not placed on the throne till 1720. During the months that intervened between the dethronement of Farrukhsiyar and his elevation, two princes had filled the throne whose names were expunged from the records.

[2] The deed for the *chauth* dated 22nd Rabi-ul-Akhir A. H. 1131 granted to Shahu the fourth of the revenue of the six *subhas* of the Deccan simply on condition that he should maintain 15,000 horse to aid the military governors in keeping order. Grand Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 337 note.

[3] The *sardeshmukhi* grant is dated 4th Jamadi-ul-Aval or twelve days after that of the *chauth* It does not specify in the body of the deed that it is granted as an hereditary right; but the customary fee on such occasions is stated on the back of the instrument as follows :

Subha.		Revenue.		
		Rs.	As.	P.
Aurangabad	.	1,23,76,042	11	3
Berar	..	1,15,23,508	14	3
Bedar	..	74,91,879	12	3
Bijapur	..	7,85,06,560	14	1
Hyderabad	..	6,48,67,483	0	0
Khandesh	..	57,49,819	0	3
Total	..	18,05,17,294	4	1

The *Sardeshmukhi* was estimated at Rs. 1,80,51,730. *Peshkash* or established fee on hereditary rights conferred, 651 per cent., amounted to Rs 11,75,16,762.; the immediate payment on delivering the deed to one-fourth or Rs. 2,93,79,190-8-0; the remainder payable by instalments to Rs. 8,81,37,571-8-0. The fee so calculated was commuted to Rs. 1,17,19, 390 in consequence of the depopulated state of the country. Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. I, p. 338 (footnote).

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Vishvanath Peshva, 1713-1720.

rivers, which were not ceded. In lieu of such of these claims as lay to the north of the Bhimā, districts beyond the line of forts from Tāthvaḍ to Machhindragaḍ in Sātārā, as far east as Paṇḍharpur, were wholly ceded to Shāhu, and also those districts which Auraṅgzeb had promised to him at the time of his marriage in that emperor's camp. The country watered by the Yerlā, Māṇ, and Nirā, celebrated for good horse and hardy men, the home of some of the oldest families in Mahārāshṭra, who had not hitherto formally acknowledged the descendants of Shivājī, including the whole of the present district of Sātārā, was by this cession placed under Shāhu's authority[1]. The Marāṭhās pretended that the conquests of Berār by Parsojī and Kānhoji Bhonsle, and their right to tribute in Gujarāt and Māḷvā were confirmed at the same time; but though some very indefinite verbal promise may have been given and Bāḷājī Vishvanāth left an agent for the purpose as is alleged of receiving the *sanads*, subsequent events prove the unwillingness of Delhi authorities to implement the understanding.

When Bāḷājī Vishvanāth started for Delhi, he left his *divāṇ* Ābājī Purandare as his *mutālik* or deputy in charge of his seal of office. and the duties of Peshvā continued to be carried on at the Marāṭhā court in Bāḷājī's name. On Bāḷājī's return to Satara with the Imperial deed the scheme for collecting and distributing the revenue which all admit to have been projected by Bāḷājī was examined, and the system which had already been partially introduced was now openly accepted. The *sardeshmukhi* or ten per cent. on the revenues of the *subhās* of the Deccan was first set aside and termed by the ministers the Rājā's *vatan*, a gratifying sound to the ears of a Marāṭhā whether prince or peasant. The imposition of the *sardeshmukhi* reduced to a proportionate degree the actual collections from a country the resources of which were already drained to the utmost, but the nominal revenue continued the same. To have collected even one-fourth of the standard assessment would probably at this period have been impossible but the Marāṭhās in all situations endeavoured to secure, in lieu of their *chauth*, at least twenty-five per cent. of the real balances. Although they seldom could collect it, they always stated the *chauth* as due upon the *tankhā* or standard assessment, because of their anxiety to maintain the dignity of what after all, came to be a paper transaction, but which always gave them a legal excuse to press their claims of receiving their dues in full. In regard to the *sardeshmukhi*, it suited both their foreign and domestic policy to keep that claim undefined; but their system in practice, that of exacting as much as they could, was as simple as it was invariable. Of the seventy-five

[1] The following is a list of the sixteen districts included in the grant of *svarajya*; Poona, Supa, including Baramati, Indapur, Wai, the Mavals, Satara, Karad, Khatav, Man, Phaltan, Malkapur, Tarla, Panhala, Ajra, Junnar, and Kolhapur; the *parganas* north of the Tungbhadra including Kopal, Gadag, Haliyal, and all the forts which were captured by Shivaji; the Konkan including Ramnagar, Gandevi, Jawhar, Cheul, Bhiwandi, Kalyan, Rajpuri, Dabhol, Javli, Rajapur, Phonda, Ankola, and Kudal. Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 338.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Balaji Vishvanath Peshva,* 1713-1720.

per cent. which remained to the Moghals, one-third or twenty-five per cent. was received according to established usage by the *fauzdār*, and the balance was collected sometimes for the Imperial ex-chequer, but generally on account of some *jāgirdār*, to whom most of the Moghal conquests in the Deccan were assigned for the support of troops. This general mode of appropriating the revenue explains the seizures, resumptions, and cessions of territory under the name of *jāgir* during the later wars in the Deccan between the Nizām and the Peshvā. It likewise explains the practice which prevailed in many villages, even up to the British conquests, of bringing fifty per cent. of the net revenue to account under the head of *jāgir*, for which the *kulkarni* in less than a century could assign no reason except the custom of their forefathers. The term *svarājya* or Self Rule, which in the first instance was applied to that part of the territory north of the Tuṅgbhadrā possessed by Shivājī at his death, on the return of Bāḷājī Vishvanāth was extended to the whole of the Marāṭhā claims exclusive of the *sardeshmukhi*. Of these claims one-fourth or twenty-five per cent. was appropriated to the head of the state in addition to the *sardeshmukhi*. This fourth was known by the name of the Rājā's *bābti*. The balance was termed *mokāsā*. Of the *mokāsā* two shares were left at the disposal of the Rājā; the one was *Sāhotrā* or six per cent. and the other *nāḍgauḍā* or three per cent., both calculated on the whole *svarājya*. The balance of *mokāsā* was sixty-six per cent. of the whole of the Marāṭhā claims exclusive of the *sardeshmukhi*. The *sāhotrā* was bestowed by Shāhu on the Pant Sachiv as an hereditary assignment; it was collected by the Sachiv's own agents only within the territory wholly possessed by the Marāṭhās; separate collectors were sent by the Rājā to realise it in distant districts. The *nāḍgauḍā* was granted to different persons at the Rājā's pleasure. Independent of salaries from the treasury the *Pradhāns* had many *inām* villages conferred on them. Bālājı Vishvanāth received several districts near Pooṇā in personal *Jāgir*, including the fort of Lohagaḍ. The Pratinidhi, the Peshvā, and the Pant Sachiv were charged with the collection of the *bābti* on the Rājā's account. Thus there were distinct agents for realising the *bābti* and *sardeshmukhi*, for the *Sāhotrā* of the Pant Sachiv, for the *nāḍgauḍā* of the assignee to whom it belonged, and for the *mokāsā* to different officers for maintaining troops. The *mokāsā* was distributed among a great number of chiefs as military *jāgir*, burdened according to the circumstances with dues to the head of the state, both of money and of troops. The districts of old Marāṭhā *Jāgirdārs* were freed from the *chauth* but they were generally liable to the payment of *sardeshmukhi*, besides furnishing their quota of horse. Such *jāgirs*, in a grant of *Mokāsā* for a large tract were always stated as deductions and long before districts were conquered, formal grants and assignments of their revenue were distributed. Numberless personal *Jāgirs* and *ināms* of lands of whole villages were alienated by Shāhu; the former commonly required the performance of some service but the latter were entirely freehold. The Rājā's authority was considered necessary to collect the revenue thus conceded, but the authority for which they were constantly petitioning was a formal

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Shahu, 1707-1749.

Balaji Vishvanath Peshwa, 1713-1720.

affair. The revenue collectors thought that the Rājā's *sanad* was sufficient for levying tribute in districts not specified in the imperial deeds. A district once overrun was said to be under tribute from usage; other districts were plundered by virtue of letters patent.

Particular quarters of the country were assigned to the leading officers, which, as far as they can now be ascertained, were as follows. The Peshvā and *Senāpati* charged with the command of a great proportion of the Rājā's personal troops, were ordered to direct their attention to the general protection and defence of the territory. The Peshvā had authority to levy the government dues in Khāndesh and part of the Bālāghāṭ to the north-east of Sholāpur; the *senāpati* was vested with similar authority in Bāglāṇ and a right to realise the dues established by usage from Gujarāṭ. Kānhoji Bhonsle the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* had charge of Berār Pāyiṇghāṭ and was privileged to conquer and exact tribute from Goṇḍvan to the east. The *Sar Lashkar* had Gaṅgthaḍi including part of Auraṅgābād. Fateh Sing Bhonsle was appointed to the Karnāṭak; while the general charge of the old territory from the Nirā to the Vārṇā, and the collections from Hyderābād and Bedar were left to the Pratinidhi and the immediate agents of the Rājā. The Chiṭnis had particular charge of several districts in the Koṅkaṇ. The Pant Sachiv enjoyed the revenue of the whole *Sāhotrā* besides his old possessions in *Jāgir*. The agents for collecting the Rājā's *zamindāri* dues were styled *nāib sardeshmukhs*. Kānhoji Āṅgre, retaining his districts in the Koṅkaṇ, levied his chauth, as he termed it, by continuing to plunder the ships of all nations that appeared on the coast without his permission and would not recognise his right of sovereignty over sea. He used to pay a tribute to the Rājā in guns, muskets, military stores, and ammunition. He also presented frequent *nazars* in articles from Europe and China; and he was sometimes charged with the very extraordinary duty of executing state criminals.

All the principal Marāṭhā officers as a further means of preserving intercourse and union had particular claims assigned to them on portions of revenue or on whole villages in the district of each other. The greatest Marāṭhā commanders or their principal revenue agents were eager to own their native village; but although vested with the control, they were proud to acknowledge themselves of the family of the *pātil* or *kulkarni*; and if heirs to a *mirās* field, they would sooner have lost wealth and rank than been dispossessed of such a *vatan* or inheritance. Yet on obtaining the absolute sovereignty, they never assumed an authority in the interior village concerns beyond the rights and privileges acquired by birth or purchase, according to the invariable rules of the country. Such is a brief outline of the system and arrangements settled by the Marāṭhā ministry on the return of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth; and such was the mode by which a common interest was created, and for a time preserved, among the Marāṭhā chiefs; while the character of Shāhu, the influence and power of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth, the ability of his sons Bājirāv and Chimāji to give a lead to the Marāṭhā confederacy paved the way, though by gradual steps, for the supremacy of the Peshvās.

CHAPTER 2.
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History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Vishvanath Peshva, 1713-1720.
Nizam Independent, 1720.

In 1720, Nizām-ul-mulk the governor of Māḷvā, throwing off his dependence on the Sayyids, determined to possess himself of the Deccan. He overran Khāndesh and defeated the Moghal troops under Dilāvar Ali Khān at Burhānpur slaying their commander. The troops of Shāhu under Kānhoji Bhonsle, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, and Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar speedily joined Shankarāji Malhār who since the departure of Husain Ali Khān had lived with the deputy viceroy Ālam Ali Khān as the envoy of Shāhu. Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe who had just returned from Delhi was likewise despatched from Sātārā with a body of horse. Ālam Ali Khān was defeated at Bāḷāpur in Berar Pāyiṇghāṭ by the troops of Nizām-ul-mulk, and fell surrounded by Marāṭhās slain in his defence (10th August 1720). On this occasion the Marāṭhās behaved as faithful auxiliaries and fought with bravery. They lost no person of note except Shankarāji Malhār who was mortally wounded and made prisoner[1]. Soon after, events happened at Delhi by which the power of the Sayyids was destroyed, Muhammad Shah was freed from their control and Nizām-ul-mulk confirmed as viceroy of the Deccan[2]. Meanwhile several important changes had taken place at the Marāṭhā court, chiefly owing to the death of two leading ministers, Parashurām Trimbak in 1718, and Bāḷājī Vishvanāth in 1720. Shrīpatrāv the second son of the Pratinidhi had succeeded his father Parashurām Trimbak before the return of Bāḷājī Vishvanāth from Delhi. The Peshvā's health had suffered from the fatigue of the journey to Delhi and the labour he had bestowed on different arrangements after his return. He obtained leave from Shāhu to retire for a short time to Sāsvaḍ in Pooṇā where his family resided, but his constitution was exhausted and he survived for only a few days. At the time of his death (2nd April 1720), he left two sons Bājirāv and Chimājī. The robes of Peshvāship were conferred upon Bājirāv in Shāhu's camp at Masur, 30 miles east of Sātārā on 17th April 1720 exactly a fortnight after his father's death[3]. The rise of Gāikvāḍs is almost contemporary, for the troops of Khaṇḍerāo Dābhāḍe behaved with so great bravery in the battle of Bāḷāpur and one of his officers Damāji Gāikvāḍ the ancestor of the Gāikvāḍs of Baroḍā so particularly distinguished himself on that occasion, that on his return the young Peshvā Bājirāv recommended him to Shāhu in the warmest manner. The Rājā in consequence appointed him second in command under Khaṇḍerāv with the title of Samsher Bahādur. Damāji died soon afterwards and was succeeded by his nephew Pilāji Gāikvāḍ. Chimājī the second son of the late Peshvā, who received Supā in *jāgir* was appointed to a similar command under his brother Bājirāv Ābājipant Purandare, their father's chief manager, according to the rule of appointment, was reinvested by Shāhu with scrupulous ceremony. During the short interval between the death of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth and the appointment of Bājirāv, Ābājipant Purandare transacted ordinary affairs with the seal of the late Peshvā; but a great part of the business fell into the hands of Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ Chiṭṇis and

MARATHAS.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirao Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 349.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 351.

3 Sardesai; New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 66.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirav Ballal Peshwa, 1720-1740.

Shriputrav Pratinidhi. Khaṇḍo Ballāḷ gave his attention principally to the Āngre, the Sidi, and the affairs of the Konkaṇ; while the Pratinidhi aided by Ānandrav Sumant Pradhān conducted important negotiations with Nizām-ul-mulk. Ānandrāv's son Mahtāji was employed as Shāhu's agent with Nizām-ul-mulk, who while he apprehended an attack from Husain Ali Khān, conciliated Shāhu by promising to give up all that the royal grants conceded. No sooner was he apprised of the ascendancy acquired by his party at Delhi and of the loss the Marāṭhās had sustained in the death of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth than he began to start objections to the establishment of Shāhu's collectors, founded on some pretensions set up by Sambhāji and Chandrasen Jādhav. The wise precautions of Bāḷāji Vishvanāth, and the communion of interest which the distribution of the ceded revenue had produced, placed the Rājā of the Marāṭhās in a far more commanding situation than that in which he had stood during the first period of Nizām-ul-mulk's government of the Deccan. The agent remained at Aurangābād where his arrangements would probably have been of little avail, but a vast army of Marāṭhās that was assembling in the Gangthaḍī under the *Sar Lashkar* Sultānji Nimbāḷkar inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Moghals on 15th December 1720 and it was this show of force that ultimately hastend the delivery of orders on the part of Nizām-ul-mulk to allow Rājā Shāhu to establish his collectors. A fresh order or *farmān* obtained by the Marāṭhā agent at Delhi from Muhammad Shah opportunely arrived to remove from Nizām-ul-mulk the appearance of having yielded to menace, and afforded an opportunity of evincing the promptitude with which he obeyed the imperial commands[1].

Bājirav soon after his appointment as Peshvā set out with an army for Khāndesh where he levied his *Mokāsā* although not without opposition. From the period of his accession he gave a considerable portion of his attention to extending Marāṭhā conquests to the north, and his aims were early turned to Māḷvā. Circumstances generally obliged him to return yearly to Sātārā and Pooṇā. During the three expeditions, before the rains of 1724, though he had sent detachments into Māḷvā, it is not ascertained that he crossed the Narmadā in person until the end of that year; nor did he remain in Māḷvā for any length of time until upwards of eleven years after his accession as Peshvā. Affairs in the Deccan required his presence, and with the intrigues of Nizām-ul-mulk and domestic opposition, restrained both his ambition and enterprise. At different times before the year 1724 Bājirāv had defeated the *Subhedār* of Burhānpur and an officer named Dāud Khān sent against him by Azim-ullā Khān from Māḷvā. In one of these battles two of Bājirāv's officers who afterwards rose to high rank first came into notice. One was Malhārji Hoḷkar a *Shiledār* or self-horsed trooper who commanded a party of his own horse. He was a Marāṭhā Dhangar, a native of the village of Hoḷ on the Nīrā, of which his father was *chaugulā* or *Pāṭil's* assistant. He had served under Kaṇṭhāji Kadam Bāṇḍe one of the Rājā's officers and

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 354.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirav Ballal Peshwa, 1720-1740.

had gathered a small body of horse. The other officer was Rāṇoji Shinde descended from a younger branch of the family of Kānhairkheḍ a village fifteen miles east of Sātārā. The Shindes according to local legends have been distinguished horsemen since the time of the Bahamani dynasty. There are two Marāṭhā families or rather clans named Shinde, the one distinguished by their hereditary *pāṭil* village of Kānhairkheḍ and the other by the title of Ravirāv. Both families claim Rajput descent. Those of Kānhairkheḍ had a *mansab* under Auraṅgzeb and Shinḍe's daughter, who was given in marriage by that emperor to Shāhu, died in captivity at Delhi. Shinde remained faithful to the Moghals, and, as his fate was never known, it is conjectured that he was killed in some distant country possibly with Āzam Shah in the battle of Āgrā in 1707. The family had fallen into decay and Rāṇoji who revived its fame was reduced to a state of abject poverty serving as a *bārgir* or rider first in the troop of Bālājī Vishvanāth and afterwards in that of Bāḷājī's son. To contrast this original with his subsequent condition, he is said to have carried the Peshvā's slippers, and to have been marked by Bājirāv as fitted for a place of trust by the care he took of his humble charge.

Another officer who gained fresh honour about this time was Udāji Pavār Vishvāsrāv. His father was first raised by Rāmchandrapant Amātya when he governed the country during the siege of Jiñjī, and the young man joined Shāhu and obtained the command of a considerable body of horse. He was employed on various services and appears to have been an active partisan. Like most contemporary Marāṭhā leaders of experience, such as Kaṇṭhāji Kadam Bāṇḍe, Pilāji Gāikvāḍ, and Kānhoji Bhonsle, he calculated on the surest advantage in the most distant ventures where his appearance was least expected. He made incursions into Gujarāt and Māḷvā, plundered Gujarāt as far as Lunāvaḍā, and found Māḷvā so drained of troops that he was able to remain some time in the country intimating to the Rājā that if supported, he might collect the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in every direction. How long he maintained his station in the country on his first inroads is uncertain, but it is probable that he was obliged to retire from Dhār, a fortress in the west of Māḷvā where he first established himself, upon the appointment of Girdhar Bahādur, whose exertion in the defence of Māḷvā was the chief cause which prevented the Marāṭhās getting a firm footing in that province for more than ten years after the accession of Bājirāv.

The progress of Udāji Pavār, the successes of Kaṇṭhāji Kadam Bāṇḍe and Pilāji Gāikvāḍ in Gujarāt, and the dissensions between Nizām-ul-Mulk and the Imperial court opportunely occurred to favour the Peshvā's views of spreading Marāṭhā conquests in North India. Bājirāv who was early trained by his father to business was bred a soldier as well as a statesman. He united the enterprise, vigour, and hardihood of a Marāṭhā chief with the polish, astuteness, and address of a clever diplomat. He was fully acquainted with

his father's financial schemes and chose the part of the plan which was calculated to direct the predatory hordes of Mahārāshṭra in a common effort. The genius of Bājirāv enlarged his father's schemes, and unlike many belonging to his caste, he had both the head to plan and the hand to do. To the unceasing industry and minute watchfulness, he added a judgment that taught him the leading points of importance which tended to spread Marāṭhā sway. Bājirāv's views of spreading Marāṭhā power in Upper India were at first disapproved by Shāhu, and from prudence as well as rivalry were opposed by Shripatrāv, the Pratinidhi. Jealousy in public places is a passion which some persons can rarely command or hide. This rivalry between Bājirāv, the Konkaṇasth Peshvā and Shripatrāv, the Deshasth Pratinidhi probably tended to preserve the Rājā's ascendancy longer. The Peshvā's first proposal for exacting what he called the established tribute from Māḷvā and extending Marāṭhā conquests into North India was violently and for a time successfully opposed by the Pratinidhi. Shripatrāv represented it as rash and imprudent. He held that, though the head of the State might not be called to account for casual inroads, to allow the Peshvā to make raids must draw on the Marāṭhās the whole power of the empire, and precipitate hostilities with Nizām-ul-Mulk whose victorious army was still at their gates; that so far from being prepared for resistance there was a total want of regularity even in their arrangements, that they could scarcely quell a common insurrection; and that to enter on a war before they had secured what had been ceded was the extreme of folly and of rashness. The Pratinidhi added that he was a soldier as well as the Peshvā, and when expedient as ready as Bājirāv to head an expedition; that after they had established their collectors and arranged other parts of the country it would be advisable, before pursuing their conquests in the north, to reduce the Karnāṭak and to recover the countries conquered by Shivāji; that Fatehsing Bhonsle's troops could scarcely venture to cross the Kṛshṇā, and that the first efforts should be made in that quarter.

These were probably the real opinions of Shripatrāv. The wisdom of Bājirāv was of a higher order. He comprehended the nature of predatory power; he perceived its growth in the turbulence and anarchy for which the system of distributing the revenue was the first remedy; he foresaw that confusion abroad would tend to order at home; that as commander of distant expeditions he should acquire the direction of a larger force than any other chief of the empire; that the resources of the Deccan would not only improve by withdrawing the hordes of horse which unprofitably consumed them, but must fall under the control of that person who could most readily procure employment and subsistance for the troops. While Bājirāv concealed his private designs and partly admitted the justice of Shripatrāv's views, he endeavoured by his commanding eloquence to arouse enthusiasm or ambition in Shāhu. He went over the conquests of Shāhu's famous grandfather and reminded him of the powerful kings and

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. Bajirav Ballal Peshwa, 1720-1740.

the mighty emperor with whom Shivājī had successfully contended. He painted the present condition of India, the weakness, indolence and imbecility of the Moghals, and the activity, energy and enterprise of the Marāṭhās. If, he said, the great Shivājī had been of the same opinion as the Pratinidhi, he would have thought it necessary before venturing into the Karnāṭak to reduce Bijāpur and Goḷkoṇḍā. As to their domestic quarrels beyond the Kṛshṇā, it would be time to think of them hereafter; by the Rājā's good fortune every desire would be accomplished. Bājirāv ended a speech of considerable length, with the words: Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindus and to gain undying renown. By turning our efforts to North India the Marāṭhā flag shall fly from the Kṛshṇā to the Aṭṭak. You shall plant it, replied Shāhu, in the Kinnar Khaṇḍ beyond the Himālayās; a noble son of a worthy father. Let us strike, said Bājirāv, at the trunk of the withering tree; the branches must fall of themselves.

At what time Shāhu's consent was obtained is not known. The form of obtaining the Rājā's consent on all such occasions was rigidly observed by the Peshvās at a stage when their supremacy was far advanced. By virtue of that authority and their station as *mukhya pradhāns* or chief ministers, even when their usurpation became complete, it befitted their constitutional status to act as nominal servants and real masters to rule the Marāṭhā chiefs as the delegate of their prince[1].

During the early years of his *Peshvāship*, Bājirāv had to tread the ground very carefully; for Bājirāv knew that Nizām-ul-Mulk was not the man who would easily forget that the Marāṭhās had helped Ālam Ali at Bāḷāpur. He had also to encounter Mubāriz Khān who had been specially commissioned by the previous Emperors to punish the Marāṭhās for their encroachments and who therefore bore a bitter enmity towards them. Bājirāv had to make a choice and to decide whom to placate and whom to antagonise. A personal diplomatic meeting with Nizām-ul-Mulk on 4th January 1721 at Chikalṭhān, east of Chāḷisgāṅv yielded no fruitful result. At this hour Nizām-ul-Mulk was called to Delhi by the Emperor for accepting *Wazirship*. After some hesitation he decided to go to Delhi entrusting his charge of the Deccan to Mubāriz Khān. (21st October 1721). He, however, soon realised that he could not hold his position in the flippant atmosphere of Delhi politics and decided to choose the earliest opportunity to return to the Deccan with a view to hold almost an independent position of power there, although he would not mind nominally acknowledging the suzerainty of the Emperor. Accordingly, resigning his *Wazirship* on 27th December 1723 he marched straight to the South, informing the Emperor that he felt it his imperative duty to drive the Marāṭhās from Māḷvā and Gujarāt. By long and rapid marches he reached Ujjain. The enraged Emperor decided to punish the rebel Nizām-ul-Mulk and called upon Mubāriz Khān and Rājā

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 362.

Shāhu to do their best to put him down with all the force at their command. This proved a welcome opportunity for Bājirav, who proceeded to the north, crossed Narmadā on 8th May and arrived in close proximity to the Nizām's camp at Sihore. Mubāriz Khān was for some time undecided as to what course he should take, whether to obey the imperial orders and fight the Nizām or to befriend him. Nizām however took his own decision to placate the Marāṭhās and fight with Mubāriz Khān. At this hour Mubāriz Khān also had opened negotiations with the Marāṭhās when he discovered that he had to face Nizām-ul-Mulk. This gave an opportunity to the Marāṭhās to raise their demands and gain supremacy not only in the Deccan but also in Māḷvā and Gujarāt. There was a formal meeting between Nizām-ul-Mulk and Bājirāv at Nālchhā near Dhār on 18th May 1724 where usual diplomatic formalities were undergone but ultimately each one was left guessing as to what course the other would follow. Nizām now lost no time in proceeding to the south and met his rival Mubāriz Khān in the battle of Sākharkheḍlā on 30th September 1724 where he gained a decisive victory and Mubāriz Khān was killed. The Emperor now made a virtue out of necessity and confirmed Nizām as the *Subhedār* of the Deccan and appointed Girdharbahādur as the *Subhedār* of Māḷvā. The battle of Sākharkheḍlā is a turning point in the history of the Later Moghals as it marks the gradual disintegration of the Moghal Empire; for, Nizām henceforth no longer cared to receive orders from Delhi and followed his own policy in maintaining his own position.

In 1725, Hamid Khān, the uncle of Nizām-ul-Mulk, for the aid he gave him against Mubāriz Khān, granted the *chauth* in Gujarāt to Kaṇṭhāji Kadam Bāṇde and Pilāji Gāikvāḍ, who proceeded to levy their assignments. The division of the money led to prepetual disputes. Pilāji, as the agent of Dābhāḍe, *Senāpati*, considered himself the superior authority in Gujarāt and Kaṇṭhāji as an officer of the Rājā despised his pretensions. An agreement was signed by which the *chauth* east of the Māhi was assigned to Pilāji and that to the west to Kaṇṭhāji[1]. Meanwhile Bājirāv took advantage of the confusion caused by Moghal dissensions to carry his arms into Māḷvā, where, though opposed by Rājā Girdhar, he was successful for two seasons in obtaining plunder and contributions. It is probable that Nizām-ul-Mulk against whom the Imperial forces were acting in Gujarāt, may have connived at his incursions, but there is no proof of any direct communication with the Peshvā. Bājirāv by virtue of the authority vested in him by Shāhu granted deeds to Pavār, Hoḷkar, and Shinde to levy *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* and to keep half the *mokāsā* in payment of their troops. In 1726, the *Peshvā* with a large army under Fatehsing Bhonsle, marched into the Madrās Karnāṭak, plundered the districts, and levied a contribution from Seriṅgapaṭṭam. The Marāṭhas lost a number of men without gaining the expected advantages. Bājirāv had objected to the expedition, and was dissatisfied with the result, and on returning to

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 365.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.*

Sātārā he found more serious reasons of dissatisfaction in the measures pursued by the Pratinidhi. The cause of his displeasure originated in the artful schemes of Nizām-ul-Mulk, which, but for the penetration and vigour of Bājirāv, would probably have unlinked the chain by which Bāḷājī Vishvanāth had joined the interests as well as the inclinations of most of the Hindu chieftains of the Deccan[1].

In 1727 Nizām-ul-Mulk, though relieved from immediate apprehensions from the Delhi Emperor Muhammad Shah whose power was daily declining, became alarmed at the spreading power of the Marāṭhās. He beheld in their systematic and persevering encroachments on the divided revenue of the Deccan and the Karnāṭak, the extinction of his own resources as well as those of the empire, and took measures to avert these evils by endeavouring to consolidate his own power and to create divisions among the Marāṭhās. In these measures he overlooked the ability of his opponent Bājirāv and little thought that the pursuit of his own schemes should strengthen the power of the Peshvā. He had fixed on Hyderābād, the ancient capital of the Kuth Shāhi kings, as fittest for the seat of his new government, and was anxious on any terms to remove the Marāṭhā collectors from that quarter. Although Nizām-ul-Mulk had confirmed the Imperial grant in Shāhu's favour, a great deal of what was yielded was not actually given up. Numerous points had remained unadjusted. Shāhu's part of the agreement to prevent plundering was not fulfilled and constant discussions were the consequence. A new authority for a part of the old territory was granted by Nizām-ul-Mulk, which particularly specified the fixed personal *jāgirs* that Shāhu agreed to exempt from sequestration. *Jāgir* assignments in the old territory about Poonā which the Nizām had given to Rambhāji Nimbāḷkar one of the disaffected officers who had joined him, were exchanged for new grants to the eastward about Karmāḷā, a measure on the part of Nizām-ul-Mulk particularly conciliatory to Shāhu. After this a settlement was concluded through the Pratinidhi by which Shāhu agreed to relinquish the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in the neighbourhood of Hyderābād. An equivalent in money was to be paid for the *chauth*, and for the *sardeshmukhi* Shāhu received some *jagir* territory near Indāpūr in Poonā of which district he was an hereditary *deshmukh*[2], and a *jāgir* in Berār was conferred on the Pratinidhi. Nizām-ul-Mulk had thus effected his first object by negotiation, but the exchange met with the decided disapproval of Bājirāv who was ever an enemy to consolidation and disputes ran so high between him and the Pratinidhi that Nizām-ul-Mulk, encouraged by appearances and the support and alliance of Chandrasen Jādhav, Rāv Rambhā Nimbāḷkar *jāgirdār* of Bārśi, and Sambhājī Rājā of Kolhāpur, resolved to complete the design he

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 367.

[2] Half of this deshmukhi was bought by Shahaji Bhonsle, the father of Shivaji after he entered the service of Mahmud Adil Shah. Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 369, note 2.

had formed. With this view he espoused the cause of Sambhājī and endeavoured to create a complete division in the Marāṭhā government by reviving the former feuds between Shāhu and Sambhajī.

Nizām-ul-Mulk began by formally bearing the claims of Sambhājī in a demand made for an equal division of the revenue; and according to a prevalent custom in the Deccan, sequestrated the property in dispute by removing the collectors of the *sardeshmukhi* and displacing the *mokāsādārs* of Shāhu until their respective rights should be adjusted. Assuming this privilege as viceroy he pretended to become the friend and arbiter of both parties. Bājirāv was not to be duped by the old artifice of engaging the Marāṭhā cousins in an hereditary dispute. He quickly turned the Nizām's weapons to his own advantage, for Shāhu, true to the feeling of a Marāṭhā, of whom even among the peasantry the mildest men became violent when a *vatan* is concerned, though for some time he had been reconciled to Nizām-ul-Mulk, was at once on hearing of this interference roused to implacable resentment against him, and for the time against all who had vindicated or who dared to justify his conduct. He looked to Bājirāv for counsel and for vengeance; for these he would have bartered life, and for these he virtually sold the supremacy of his empire. At first he determined to lead his army, but it was represented that to march in person would place him on an equality with Sambhājī of Kolhāpur; none but the emperor was worthy of contending with the king of the Hindus. Full powers were therefore given to Bājirāv. The great influence which the Peshvā had gained was shown in the promptness with which many of the most unruly and factious of the *Shiledār* families gathered round the standard of the nation.

Nizām-ul-Mulk perceived his mistake, and sought to amend it by writing to Shāhu and the Pratinidhi that he was solely actuated by a wish to benefit the Rājā in order to prevent the usurpation of the Konkaṇi Brāhmaṇs by whose creatures every situation was filled; that the *mokāsādārs* and collectors of the *sardeshmukhi* had been replaced by others belonging to the Rājā's relation, Sambhājī, whom he had appointed the Rājā's deputy, as *Sardeshmukh* of the six *subhās* of the Deccan; and that the Rājā when freed from the control of the Konkaṇi Brāhmaṇs might afterwards appoint agents entirely of his own selection. But Shāhu was too shrewd to be misled by such specious pleas and far from falling a victim to the cunning plans of creating a rift between him and Bājirāv in this manner, they resolved to teach Nizām lesson. Both parties prepared to attack each other as soon as the rains should subside and enable their horse to cross the rivers. In the war that ensued, Bājirāv ravaged Jālnā and Māhur, made a lightening dash into Gujarāt and Khāndesh and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon Nizām at Pālkheḍ near Paiṭhaṇ in 1728, forcing him to agree to negotiations. Bājirāv demanded that Sambhājī should be sent to his camp; that security should be afforded for the future collection of the Marāṭhā shares of the revenue by giving up several fortified places; and that all arrears

[illegible] should be treated with equal respect. It was at last settled that [illegible] guarantee his safe arrival in Panhālā, when Shahu should be at liberty to take what steps he might think proper for the settlement of their family dispute. Battle of Pālkhed is thus an important landmark in the history of the Marāṭhās, as it once for all settled the dispute between Bājirāv and the Pratinidhi, prevented the Nizām from making pretensions to playing the role of a middle-man between the rival parties at the Marāṭhā Court and finally led the Marāṭhā nobility to look to Bājirāv as the maker of Marāṭhā destiny.

[illegible]

Bājirāv was then negotiating with Sar Buland Khān who was then the *Subhedār* of Gujarāt, in hopes of obtaining the cession of the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of that province. After the ratification of the treaty with Nizām-ul-mulk, Chimājī Appā, the Peshvā's brother marched with large army and exacted a heavy contribution from Peṭlāḍ and plundered Dholkā, but on promising that if the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* were yielded the districts should be secured from depredation, Sar Buland Khān agreed to the Peshvā's proposals, and in 1729 granted the *sardeshmukhi* or ten per cent. of the whole revenue both on the land and customs except the port of Surat and the district round it, together with the *chauth* or one-fourth of the whole collections on the land and customs except Surat, and five per cent. on the revenues of the city of Ahmadābad.

In 1729, Muhammad Khān Bangash, the new governor of Māḷvā having entered Bundelkhaṇḍ and established himself in the territory of Rājā Chhatrasāl, the Rajput Prince solicited aid from Bājirāv. Aid was readily granted. Bangash Khān was reduced to the greatest distress and the province was evacuated by his troops. Chhatrasāl in return for this service conferred on Bājirāv a fort and district in the neighbourhood of Rs. 2⅓ *lakhs* of yearly revenue. Grant Duff's story that Chhatrasāl adopted Bājirāv as his son, and at his death, which happened soon after, bestowed on him one-third of his possessions or an equal share with his two sons Jagatrāj and Hirdesā is not borne out by reliable records[1]. In 1734, Rājā Jaysingh was appointed to the government of the provinces of Āgrā and Māḷvā and nothing could be more favourable to the views of Bājirāv. As Jaysingh was situated, the honour of the Rajput was at variance with the subsisting arrangement between him and the Marāṭhās. This may account for his hesitating to comply with their demands; but he at last came to an agreement with Bājirāv and yielded him the government of Māḷvā in the following year, and for the time the emperor, by Jaysingh's persuasions, tacitly acquiesced in the arrangement[2].

[1] D. V. Potdar's essay in Historical and Economic studies p. 7.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 382.

[illegible] Kānhoji Bhonsle, the Senā Sāheb [illegible] had been convicted of disobedience and confined at Sātārā, and Raghuji the son of Kānhoji's cousin Bimbāji had been appointed Senā Sāheb Subhā in his stead (1729). Raghuji had accompanied Shāhu in his excursions and by his boldness and skill as a hunter had ingratiated himself with Shāhu and obtained a great ascendancy over him. Shāhu married him to the sister of one of his own wives of the Shirke family, which, except their having the same surname, and that possibly they may have been originally relations and rivals for the hereditary right or *pāṭil* of their villages, is the only connection which can be traced between the Bhonsle families of Sātārā and Nāgpur[1]. On receiving the *sanads* for Berār, Raghuji gave a bond to maintain a body of 5,000 horses for the service of the State, to pay yearly a sum of Rs. 9 *lakhs* and exclusive of *ghāsdāṇā* or forage money, a tribute which since the time of Rājārām, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā* had been allowed to reserve, and also to pay to the head of the government half of all other tribute, prize, property, and contributions. He also bound himself to raise 10,000 horses when required and to accompany the Peshvā or to proceed to any quarter where he might be ordered. This arrangement was effected during the absence of Shripatrāv Pratinidhi who had been sent into the Konkaṇ by the Rājā. The Pratinidhi being the friend of Kānhoji Bhonsle endeavoured to obtain some mitigation of his sentence, but failed. Kānhoji, who was an officer of great enterprise died at Sātārā in 1734, after having lived there for about four years a prisoner at large[2].

[illegible] MARĀṬHĀ RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Bajirao Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.*

While Bājirāv's presence was necessary in the north to support Chimāji in Gujarāt, Sambhāji Rājā of Kolhāpur, instigated by Udāji Chavhāṇ refused to listen to overtures made by Shāhu and encamped on the north side of the Vārṇā with all his baggage, women and equipments, and began to plunder the country. The Pratinidhi surprised Sambhāji's camp and drove them to Panhāḷā with the loss of the whole of their baggage. Many prisoners were taken, among others Tārābāi and her daughter-in-law Rājasbāi the widow of Shivāji of Kolhāpur. Both these persons were placed in confinement in the fort of Sātārā (1730). This defeat brought on an immediate accommodation between the two brothers. Although Shāhu was victorious he arranged a ceremonious meeting with his brother and conciliated him. Except some forts, the Marāṭhā districts and claims in the tract of which the rivers Vārṇā and Kṛshṇā to the north and the Tuṅgbhadrā to the south as the boundaries were wholly ceded to Sambhāji. Kopal near the Tuṅgbhadrā was relinquished by Shāhu in exchange for Ratnāgiri, and the territory

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 384. There is a tradition of their having been rivals in an hereditary dispute which may have been invented to prejudice the Raja of Satara against the Bhonsles of Nagpur and to prevent their desire to adopt any member of that family. It is a point of honour to maintain the hereditary difference.

[2] He had made some partial conquests in Gondvan and headed one incursion into Cuttak.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.*

of the Konkaṇ, extending from Sālshī to Ankolā in North Kanarā was given over to Sambhājī. In exchange for these places in the south Miraj, Tāsgāṅv, Athṇī, and several villages along the north bank of the Kṛshṇā and some fortified places in Bijāpūr were given to Shāhu. The fort of Vaḍgāṅv occupied by Udāji Chavhāṇ on the south bank of the Vārṇā was destroyed. This treaty of Vārṇā, (13-4-1731), as it is called was an offensive and defensive agreement between the two brothers and provided for the division of further conquests to the south of Tuṅgbhadrā which, on co-operation, were to be equally shared. Grants of *inām* land or hereditary rights conferred by either party within respective boundaries were confirmed.

Although enemies were not wanting to detract from the reputation of the Peshvā and to extol that of his rivals, the success of the Pratinidhi did not materially affect the ascendancy which Bājirāv had attained; but Nizām-ul-Mulk was still bent on opposing him and found a fit instrument for his purpose in Trimbakrāv Dābhāḍe. Ever since the Peshvā had obtained the deeds from Sar Buland Khān, Dābhāḍe had been negotiating with other Marāṭhā chiefs and assembling troops in Gujarāt. At length finding himself at the head of 35,000 men he had resolved to march for the Deccan in the next season.

Bājirāv was well aware of the Senāpati's enmity, but was not alarmed by his preparations until he discovered that Nizām-ul-Mulk was to support him in the Deccan. On learning their intention he at once determined to anticipate them, though, when joined by all his adherents, his whole army did not amount to more than half of that of Dābhāḍe. Dābhāḍe gave out that he was proceeding to protect the Rājā's authority, and was supported by Pilāji Gāikvāḍ, Kaṇṭhāji and Raghuji Kadam Bāṇḍe, Udāji and Ānandrāv Pavār, Chimṇājī Dāmodar and Kuvar Bahādur with many others. Bājirāv proved that Dābhāḍe Senāpati was in alliance with Nizām-ul-Mulk and declared that he was leagued for the purpose of dividing the Marāṭhā sovereignty with the Rājā of Kolhāpur, a measure inconsistent with sound policy and contrary to the divine ordinances of the *Shāstrās*.

The preparations of Nizām-ul-Mulk hastened the march of Bājirāv, and as his army, though so inferior in number, was composed of the old *pāgā* horse or the Rājā's house-hold troops and some of the best Marāṭhā mānkaris, he moved rapidly towards Gujarāt. At the same time he began negotiating from the day he left Pooṇā and continued until the hour of attack. In the battle which took place (1st April) between Baroḍā and Dabhoi in Gujarāt, the death of Trimbakrāv Dābhāḍe the *Senapati* and many who commanded under him left complete victory to Bājirāv with almost unquestioned leadership of the Marāṭhā confederacy. A treaty was concluded in August and at the close of the monsoon the Peshvā returned to

Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.

Sātārā. He would have punished Nizām-ul-Mulk's treachery, but the Nizām warded off the blow which he could with difficulty have withstood by directing its aim against the head of the empire. Bājirāv, readily agreed to the Nizām's views. It suited his favourite policy, and it gave employment to persons likely to disturb the domestic arrangements he aimed at establishing. Troops were immediately sent towards Māḷvā under his brother Chimājī while he himself remained for a time engaged in the interior arrangements of government at Pooṇā and Sātārā. Such appear to have been the rise and progress of the events and intrigues which ended in a secret compact between Bājirāv and Nizām-ul-muḷk which secured to Bājirāv supremacy as Peshvā and to the Nizām a kingdom in the Deccan.

The victory over Dābhāḍe, like the issue of every civil war, left impressions on the minds of many not easily effaced. The Peshvā adopted every means of conciliation in his power. He continued Dābhāḍe's charitable practice called *dakshiṇā* of patronising *Shāstris* and *Vaidiks* according to their merit and feeding thousands of Brāhmaṇs for a few days at Pooṇā. Yeshvantrāv, the son of Trimbakrāv Dābhāḍe, was raised to the rank of *Senāpati,* but being too young to take the management on himself, his mother Umābāi became his guardian and Pilāji Gāikvāḍ their former *Mutālik* or deputy was confirmed in that situation with the title of *Senā Khās Khel* or Captain of the Sovereign Tribe in addition to his hereditary title of *Samsher Bahādur*. An agreement was drawn up under the authority of Shāhu and subscribed by the *Peshvā* and *Senāpati,* that neither party should enter the boundary of the other in Gujarāt and Māḷvā. Within the limits of Gujarāt the *Senāpati* was to have entire management, but he bound himself to pay one-half of the revenue to government through the Peshvā. All contributions levied from countries not specified in the deeds given under the authority of Sar Buland Khān were to be made over to the Rājā after deducting expenses[1].

Perceiving Bājirāv's complete ascendancy, the appointment of the Hindu prince Abhaysingh to supersede Sar Buland Khān, the imbecility of the emperor, and the treachery as well as venality of his courtiers, and knowing also that he had rendered himself in the highest degree obnoxious, Nizām-ul-Mulk had good grounds for apprehending that the Peshvā might be able to obtain the viceroyalty of the Deccan. The plan which under these circumstances he adopted belongs to the higher order of politics. It seems to have been framed for the purpose of diverting the Marāṭhās from destroying the resources of his own country and of making his own power a balance between that of the emperor and the Peshvā. Before invading Māḷvā in person Bājirāv had an interview with Nizām-ul-Muḷk and endeavoured to induce him to advance a subsidy for the aid he was affording, but the Nizām considered the inducement sufficiently strong without paying his auxiliaries. The districts in

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 378.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.*

Khāndesh were to be protected by the present agreement of the Peshvā in his passage to and from Māḷvā and nothing more than the usual tribute was to be levied in the six *subhās* of the Deccan, a proposal to which Bājirāv readily acceded. Bājirāv on crossing the Narmadā assumed command of the army in Māḷvā and sent his brother and Pilāji Jādhav back to Sātārā to maintain his influence at court and to concert measures for settling the Koṅkaṇ which was very disturbed. In Gujarāt Pilāji Gāikvāḍ, who was assassinated by Abhaysingh's emissaries, was succeeded by Damāji (1732).

Kānhoji Bhonsle's disobedience and his consequent confinement at Sātārā, as well as Pratinidhis's sympathy for him have already been referred to above. Whether Nizām-ul-Mulk had made any preparations to take advantage of that situation is uncertain; but Chimājī Appā reasonably felt that Nizām meditated an attack. He therefore pitched his camp about forty miles east of Sātārā, leaving Pilāji Jādhav with an inconsiderable body of horse being the only troops at Sātārā in the immediate interests of the Peshvā. When Bājirāv advanced into Māḷvā, it was his design to engage the Rājā's mind with petty affairs in the Koṅkaṇ. Divisions of authority, contending factions and the turbulent disposition of some of its inhabitants afforded ample field within the small tract from Goā to Bombay for engaging and fatiguing attention. Sāvant, the principal *deshmukh* of Vāḍī occupied his hereditary territory in that quarter but having suffered from Kānhoji Āṅgre's attacks before the late peace (1730) between the Rājās of Sātārā and Kolhāpur he always bore an enmity to Āṅgre's family. Kānhoji Āṅgre's death happened in 1728, and all attempts to reduce his power before that time on the part of the English, the Portuguese, and the Dutch had failed. In the quarrels between his sons which followed Kānhoji's death, Bājirāv helped Mānāji and obtained from him the cession of Koṭāligaḍ in Ṭhāṇā and Rājmāchi in Pooṇā. The Sidi, besides defending against the Marāṭhās, the districts which had been placed under his charge by Auraṅgazeb, including Mahād, Rāygaḍ, Dābhol and Añjanvel, frequently levied contributions from Shāhu's districts. As force was not likely to prevail, the Pratinidhi, Jivāji Khaṇḍerāv Chiṭṇis, and others of the Rājā's ministers formed schemes for ruining the Sidi by intrigue. For this purpose the Pratinidhi gained one Yākub Khān, a daring pirate who possessed the entire confidence of the Sidi. To aid this scheme, a force was sent into the Koṅkaṇ in 1733 under the Pratinidhi, his chief agent Yamāji Shivdev, and Udāji Chavhāṇ. The intrigues were unsuccessful, and war ensued in which the Pratinidhi was worsted and the fort of Govalkoṭ in Ratnāgirī though strongly garrisoned was disgracefully surprised and taken. Chimājī Appā incurred the Rājā's displeasure for not sending assistance to Shripatrāv after repeated orders. Pilāji Jādhav was at length despatched, but as none of the other officers at Sātārā would undertake to support the Pratinidhi except on condition of receiving the conquered districts in *jāgir*, he was compelled to

return to Sātārā, with great loss of reputation. About this time the Sidi died and a quarrel ensued between his sons. Yākub Khān immediately embraced the cause of Sidi Rehmān one of the sons and called on Shāhu for support (1735); but nothing could be done until the return of Bājirāv, who, after leaving Hoḷkar and Shinde in Māḷvā, returned to the Deccan, and on crossing the Godāvari intimated to the Rājā that he should march straight to Daṇḍa-Rājpuri. All the disposable infantry were directed to join the Peshvā, and Pilāji Jādhav was sent off, reinforced with a body of horse. to support Malharrāv Hoḷkar in Māḷvā. Sidi Rehmān and Yākub Khān joined Bājirāv who began operations by attacking some of the forts. Fattehsing Bhonsle and the Pratinidhi proceeded to co-operate, but the only help they gave was to recover Shivājī's capital Rāygaḍ, the commandant of which had been previously corrupted by Yākub Khān. The Peshvā reduced the forts of Taḷā and Ghosāḷā and besieged Jañjirā but was obliged to listen to overtures made by the besieged, who ceded to the Marāṭhās the forts of Rāygaḍ, Taḷā, Ghosāḷā, Avchitgaḍ, and Birvāḍi. After this successful close of hostilities, Bājirāv, with additional power and influence, returned to Sātārā and was appointed *Subhedār* of the late acquisitions[1]. Hoḷkar completely overran Māḷvā and the country south of the Chambaḷ and took possession of several places. Afterwards, on the persuasion of Kanthājī Kadam Bāṇḍe, he made an incursion into Gujarāt, and they both levied contributions as far as the Bānas and plundered several towns to the north of Ahmedābād including Idār and Pālanpur.

In 1736, Bājirāv, owing to the vast army he had kept up to secure his conquests and to overcome his rivals, had become deeply involved in debt. His troops were in arrears; the bankers to whom he already owed a personal debt of many lakhs of rupees, refused to make further advances, and he complained bitterly of the constant mutinies and clamours in his camp which occasioned him much vexation and distress[2]. Part of the distress originated in the high rates of interest which he was obliged to pay in order to outbid Nizām-ul-Mulk and secure the best of the Deccan soldiery. He levied the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* in Māḷvā and applied through Rājā Jaysingh for their formal cession in that province, and likewise for a confirmation of the deeds granted by Sar Buland Khān for Gujarāt. The Turāṇī Moghals who formed a considerable party in the ministry were decidedly against a compromise so disgraceful.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 389.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 390. "I have fallen into that hell of being beset by creditors, and to pacify *savkars* and *shiledars* I am falling at their feet till I have rubbed the skin from my forehead." Thus wrote Bajirav to his *mahapurush*, the Svami of Dhavadshi, a village within a few miles of Satara. The Svami was a much venerated person in the country. The Peshva's letters to the Svami detail the actions of his life in a familiar manner without disguise and are invaluable. Ditto, Vol. I, p. 387.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA. RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.

With the object of achieving his purpose Bājirāv started on a campaign towards the north. First, he wanted to estimate the attitude of the Rajputs and therefore proceeded through Māḷvā and reached Udaipur in February, 1736. The Rāṇā received him very warmly and agreed to pay a lakh and a half annually as *chauth*. During his tour through Rajputānā, presents and tributes poured upon Bājirāv from all quarters. Khān Daurān, the Mir Bakshi of the Moghals, who was usually guided by Jaysingh sent five to ten thousand rupees every day. On the 4th of March, Bājirāv met Jaysingh who offered to pay five lakhs *chauth* annually for Jaipur and promised to obtain from the Emperor written grants for the provinces of Māḷvā and Gujarāt. Efforts were now made to arrange for Bājirāv's personal meeting with the Emperor who however not caring to meet Bājirāv in person at Delhi sent his own agent Yādgār Khān to Jaysingh with certain proposals tending to effect as advantageous a bargain as possible. Bājirāv at once rejected the offer and communicated his counter proposals through his own agent Dhoṇḍo Govind. The Emperor was displeased at this and declined to reply. Bājirāv knew that the Emperor could not be persuaded otherwise except by a trial of strength and he decided to take up the challenge. However as the season was far advanced he retired to the Deccan only to come back again early in January 1736 with all the contingents of Marāṭhā *Sardārs* gathering round his standard. As the advance party under Malhārrāv Hoḷkar crossed Jamunā and got into the *Doāb* evidently for forage and plunder, they were suddenly attacked by the party of Vazir Sādat Khān and driven away. In the scuffle that ensued a number of Marāṭhā soldiers were killed and those that were overtaken by the Moghals were slaughtered. The Vazir became so elated with this success that he wrote boastful letters to the Emperor informing him as to how Marāṭhās had been signally defeated and driven away. When Bājirāv heard of this he resolved to teach the Emperor a wholesome lesson by himself falling upon Delhi and burning its outlying parts. In two long marches he reached Delhi on 28th March but on a second thought desisted from any destructive operations. The presence of Bājirāv at the gates of Delhi was enough to strike terror in the palace and there was a great commotion in the city. Thereupon Bājirāv withdrew a little distance to Jhil Lakę to allay the scare that had been created. A force of 8,000 soldiers despatched by the Emperor against him was completely defeated. No further trial of strength ever took place. Upon a promise of obtaining the government of Māḷvā and Rs. 13 lakhs Bājirāv set out on his return to Sātārā, where he paid his respects to the Rājā and immediately proceeded into the Koṅkaṇ to repulse an attack of the Portuguese on Mānāji Āṅgre (1737). The Peshvā succeeded and took Mānāji under his protection on condition of his paying a yearly sum of Rs. 7,000 and presenting annually to the Rājā, foreign articles from Europe or China to the value of Rs. 3,000 more. The war with the Portuguese led to the invasion of Salsette, and Bājirāv, to secure his conquests in Ṭhāṇā and maintain the war against the Portuguese,

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Shahu, 1707-1749.

Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740

entertained some Arabs and a very large body of infantry principally Māvḷis and Heṭkaries. News from Delhi obliged him to withdraw part of his forces from the Konkaṇ.

In the meanwhile the Emperor sent earnest appeals to Nizām to come to Delhi for saving the situation and was granted all his demands to persuade him to take up the task of warding off the Marāṭhā danger from the north. Nizām now went back upon his promise that he had given to Bājīrāv and proceeded to the North. In fact Bājīrāv had a shrewd suspicion of this development as the two met each other when Bājīrāv was going to the south and Nizām to the north apparently on a spacious plea of offering his submission to the Emperor. Bājīrāv therefore lost no time to proceed to the north again as soon as the rainy season was over. He assembled all the troops he could collect and by the time he reached the Narmadā found himself at the head of 80,000 men, though Yeshvantrāv Dābhāḍe and Raghujī Bhonsle had not joined him (1738). Proceeding further Bājīrāv with his skillful manoeuvering operations was successful in confining Nizām in the fortress of Bhopāḷ and prevent him from gathering supplies from outside. Finding himself in a tight corner Nizām at last sued for peace and on the 7th January 1738 signed a convention at Dorāba Sarāi, 64 miles north of Sironj, promising in his own handwriting to grant to Bājīrāv the whole of Māḷvā and the complete sovereignty of the territory between the Narmadā and the Chambaḷ. To obtain a confirmation of this agreement from the Emperor, and to use every endeavour to procure the payment of a subsidy of Rs. 50 lakhs to defray his expenses[1], the Peshvā remained for a time levying contributions south of the Chambaḷ and carrying on negotiations at court where the threatened invasion of Nādir Shāh was creating alarm. At the same time the war with the Portuguese was being vigorously carried on by the Peshvā's brother Chimājī and several forts in Ṭhāṇā were taken by the Marāṭhās. Raghujī Bhonsle made an incursion to the north as far as Allāhābāḍ, defeated and slew the Subhedār Shujā Khān and returned loaded with booty. These expeditions undertaken without regular sanction were highly resented by Bājīrāv. He marched from Pooṇā for the purpose of punishing Raghujī's misconduct and sent forward Āvji Kāvḍe to plunder in Berar. Āvji was defeated by Raghujī in the end of February 1739. Bājīrāv was preparing to avenge his loss when news reached him of the arrival of Nādir Shāh, the defeat of the Moghals, the death of Khān Daurān, the capture of Sādat Khān, and finally that the victorious Persian was dictating the term of ransom at was defeated by Raghujī in the end of February 1739. Bājīrāv The subsequent intelligence which he received at Nāśirābād in Khāndesh informing him of the imprisonment of the Emperor, the plunder of Delhi, and the dreadful massacre of many of its inhabitants seemed for a time to overwhelm him. Our quarrel with Raghujī Bhonsle is insignificant, said the Peshvā; the war with the

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 399.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749 Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.

Portuguese is as naught; there is but one enemy in Hindustān. He appears to have conceived that Nādir Shāh would establish himself as Emperor, but he was not dismayed when he heard reports that a hundred thousand Persians were advancing to the south. Hindus and Musalmāns, said Bājirāv, the whole power of the Deccan must assemble, and I shall spread our Marāṭhās from the Narmadā to the Chambal. He called on Nāsir Juṅg the Nizām's second son to arm against the common foe, and Chimājī Appā was ordered to desist from the Koṅkaṇ warfare and join him with all speed. Chimājī was now in possession of the whole of Salsette and had begun the siege of Bassein. Notwithstanding offers of submission, Chimājī prosecuted the siege and on the 16th of May Bassein fell. Hoḷkar and Shinde as soon as Bassein fell were sent to join Bājīrav with all speed, but by that time news arrived of the retreat of Nādir Shāh. Nādir Shāh restored the throne to its degraded owner and wrote letters to all the princes of India announcing the event. Among others, he addressed a letter to Shāhu and one to Bājīrāv. He informed Bājīrāv that he had reinstated Muhammad Shah and now considered him as a brother; that although Bājīrāv was an ancient servant possessing a large army, he had not afforded the Emperor assistance; but that all must now attend to Muhammad Shah's commands for if they did not he would return with his army and inflict punishment upon the disobedient[1].

Shortly after the departure of Nādir Shāh, Bājīrāv sent a letter to the Emperor expressive of his submission and obedience, and a *nazar* of 101 gold *mohars*. This was acknowledged in suitable terms and a splendid *khillāt* was sent in return[2]. He was assured by the Emperor that the rank, possessions, and inheritance already conferred on him would be confirmed, and that he might depend on finding his interests best promoted by continuing steadfast in his duty to the Imperial Government.

Although no new *subhedār* nor any deputy of Nizām-ul-Mulk was appointed to Māḷvā, no *sanad* was sent conferring the government on Bājīrāv. This omission the Peshvā considered a breach of faith on the part of Nizām-ul-Mulk; but as the Nizām's army was still in Hindustān, and as some of Bājīrāv's best officers and troops were in the Koṅkaṇ he deferred enforcing his claims until a fitter opportunity. In the meantime he was busy arranging the affairs of the province of Māḷvā and strengthening his connection with the Rajput princes in the western quarter along the banks of the Chambal from Kotā to Allāhābāḍ, but especially with the Rājās of Bundelkhaṇḍ.

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 405.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 406. A khillat comprehends the *shirpao* or head to foot dress, that is clothes for the turban, trousers, girdle and gown complete, and jewels, horse, elephant and arms according to circumstances and rank of the parties. Bajirav received two ornaments of jwels for the turban and a pearl necklace together with a horse and an elephant.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Bajirav Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.

These arrangements to secure the northern frontier were preparatory to a war with Nizām-ul-Mulk or an expedition into the Karṇāṭak. The late success against Nizām-ul-Mulk, his departure from the terms of agreement, his great age, the probability of contentions among his sons encouraged or stimulated the Peshvā to attempt the subjugation of the Deccan. The deficiency of his resources was the chief obstacle which deterred him from this undertaking. On the other hand the prospect of contributions and plunder by which he might liquidate his debts and perhaps some secret encouragement from Arkot, where according to Colonel Wilks the Marāṭhās were invited by the *Divān* of Safdar Ali, were strong allurements for venturing into the Karṇāṭak. But Bājīrāv was critically situated, and circumstances compelled him to choose the Deccan as the theatre of his operations. Dābhāḍe's or rather the Gāikvāḍ's party who possessed very considerable resources was always hostile to the Peshvā; Raghujī Bhons'e was jealous of the Brāhmaṇ ascendency; he meditated a revolution by getting the Rājā into his own power; and as Shāhu had no prospect of an heir, Raghujī might have contemplated the acquisition of Marāthā supremacy by being adopted as his son. Fattehsingh Bhonsle, the only Marāṭhā likely to supersede him in the Rājā's choice, possessed neither ability nor enterprise, and had failed to create power by acquiring popularity among the soldiery. Raghujī had many difficulties to overcome in prosecuting a scheme of the kind. Although a party existed hostile to the Peshvā, Bājīrāv's friends and dependents surrounded the Rājā and possessed his ear, if not his entire confidence; nor could Raghujī Bhonsle or Damāji Gāikvāḍ concert a plan or transact the slightest business without its being known to Peshvā's men. Should Bājīrāv quit the position which he occupied between the territories of those two, there would be no obstacle to their uniting against him. The subsisting difference between Raghujī and Bājīrāv arose from Raghujī's having plundered the province of Allāhābād and not having joined Bājīrāv when he was ordered according to the terms on which he held his lands and title. The Peshvā affirmed that Raghujī had no authority to levy contributions north of the Narmadā and declared his determination, at the time of marching from Pooṇā in the end of 1738, to enforce restitution not to the owners but to the Marāṭhā State and to punish the aggression. A temporary compromise took place on the arrival of the Persians at Delhi; but the dispute was unsettled and nothing but a sense of injury to their mutual interests prevented an open war.

The state of affairs laid the foundation of schemes which had a great effect in extending the spreading but unstable power of the Marāṭhās. Though there are few direct proofs to illustrate this part of their history, it is certain that Bājīrāv and Raghujī had a meeting and that they were reconciled, and there is reason to suppose that Bājīrāv unfolded as much of his schemes to Raghujī as were necessary to engage his co-operation, and the plunder of

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Bajirao Ballal Peshva, 1720-1740.*

the Karnāṭak, an eventual addition to his own territories in the Deccan, and a future partition of Bengal and North India may have been urged by the Peshvā to excite Raghujī's ambition and cupidity. In this conference may also be seen the real source from which a host of Marāṭhās were poured into the Karnāṭak.

In prosecution of his plans of conquest in the Deccan, Bājīrāv seizing the opportunity afforded by the absence of Nizām-ul-Mulk at Delhi, about the end of 1739 began operations against the Nizām's son Nāsir Juṅg. The war proved unprofitable and the Marāṭhās gladly entered on terms of accommodation and a treaty was concluded at Muṅgi-Paiṭhaṇ by which both parties pledged themselves to maintain peace and mutually to refrain from plundering in the Deccan. Handia and Khargoṇ, districts on the banks of the Narmadā, were conferred on Bājīrāv in *jāgir*, and the Peshvā without visiting Pooṇā or Sātārā, in great vexation amounting almost to despair, set off with his army towards North India[1].

Bajirav's Death, 1740.

In the meantime Mānāji Āṅgre attacked by his brother had applied to the Peshvā's son Bāḷājī Bājīrāv, generally called Nānā Sāheb, who was with the Rājā in the neighbourhood of Sātārā. Five hundred men were sent to support the garrison and an express despatched to Chimājī Appā for instructions. Chimājī had ordered his nephew to repair to Kolābā in person and applied to the Governor in Council at Bombay with whom he had concluded a treaty and maintained a friendly intercourse since his late campaign in the Koṅkaṇ to support the garrison at Kolābā. The English and Bāḷājī had succeeded in humbling Sambhājī, Mānājī's brother when Chimājī Appā joined them. They were concerting plans for the reduction of Revdaṇḍā when news reached them of the death of Bājīrāv which happened on the banks of the Narmadā on the 28th of April 1740. On receiving the intelligence, Shaṅkarāji Nārāyaṇ was appointed *Subhedār* of the Koṅkaṇ and Khaṇḍujī Māṇkar was left in command of a body of troops, while Chimājī Appā and his nephew, after the usual mourning ceremonies, returned to Pooṇā and shortly after to Sātārā. Bājīrāv left three sons Bāḷajī Bājīrāv, Raghunāthrāv afterwards so well known to the English, and Janārdan Bābā who died in early youth. He also left one illegitimate son by a Muhammedan mother, whom he bred a Musalmān and named Samsher Bahādur.

The army which entered the Karṇāṭak under the command of Raghujī Bhonsle was composed of troops belonging to the Rājā, the Peshvā, the Pratinidhi, Fattesingh Bhonsle, and various chiefs of lesser

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 411. Thus he wrote to his *mahapurush* about this time : I am involved in difficulties in debts, and in disappointments and like a man ready to swallow poison. Near the Raja are my enemies, and should I at this time go to Satara they will put their feet on my breast. I should be thankful I could meet death.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

note. The Ghorpades of Sondūr and Guṭī were invited to join by letters from Shāhu and the Peshvā; and Murārrāv the grand-nephew of the famous Santājī Ghorpaḍe and the adopted son and heir of Murārrāv of Guṭi appeared under the national standard for the first time since the death of his distinguished and ill-requited relation. The whole force amounted to 50,000 men. Dost Ali, the Navāb of the Karṇāṭak, fell and the Divāṇ was made a prisoner. After this, the Marathās began to levy contributions all over the Karṇāṭak until bought off by the Navāb's son and heir Safdar Ali, with whom, before retiring, they entered into a secret compact to destroy Chandā Sāheb then in possession of Trichinopoli, while the main body of his army remained encamped on the Shivgaṅgā, Raghujī Bhonsle returned to Sātārā and endeavoured to prevent Bāḷājī Bājīrāv's succession as Peshvā by proposing Bābuji Nāik of Bārāmati, a connection but an enemy of the late Peshvā, for the vacant office. Bābuji Nāik was possessed of great wealth and his enmity to Bājīrāv arose from a very common cause that of having lent money which his debtor could not repay. Raghujī's party used the irritated creditor as their tool and proposed to Shāhu that he should be raised to the vacant Peshvāship. But Shāhu turned a deaf ear to Raghujī's proposals and Bāḷājī Bājīrāv was almost immediately invested with the robes of Peshvāship on 25th June, 1740. Raghujī, on finding his schemes abortive, proceeded towards the Karṇāṭak to reap the expected harvest at Trichinopoli accompanied by Shripatrāv, the Pratinidhi and Fattehsingh Bhonsle. Trichinopoli surrendered on the 26th of March 1741, and Chandā Sāheb was brought a prisoner to Sātārā where he remained in the custody of an agent of Raghujī Bhonsle's till he was set free in 1748[1]. Murārrāv Ghorpaḍe was left in command of the fort of Trichinopoli, and a part of his garrison was composed of infantry belonging to the Peshvā. Their expenses were defrayed by Shāhu, besides which it was settled that Rs. 20,000 of the share of tribute from the province of Arkoṭ should be annually paid to Bāḷājī Bājīrāv.

One of the first acts of the new Peshvā was to forward petitions to Delhi respecting various promises made to his father. These applications were transmitted through Jaysingh and Nizām-ul-Mulk A supply of ready money was what Bāḷājī most earnestly craved and Rs. 15 lakhs as a free gift were granted by the Emperor. Proposals for an agreement were then drawn up in the joint names of the Peshvā and Chimājī Appā in which they asked to have the government of Māḷvā, which, on the death of Bājīrāv, was conferred on Āzam-ullā-Khān. If the government of Māḷvā was granted, they promised to pay their respects to the Emperor; to prevent any other Marāṭhā crossing the Narmadā; to send a body

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 422. Chanda Saheb or Husain Dost Khan does not appear to have been confined in the fort nor to have endured a close imprisonment, but merely to have had an attendant guard wherever he went. This supposition is confirmed by the ease with which Dupleix appears to have intrigued with him during his term of imprisonment.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

of 500 horse under an officer of rank to remain in attendance on the Emperor's person; and to ask no more than the gift of money already bestowed. They agreed to send 4,000 horse for service who would punish refractory landholders as far as their numbers would enable them, and they promised not to sequestrate the rent-free lands or *jāgirs* assigned for charitable or religious purposes. No notice seems to have been taken of the application. But Bāḷājī, whose disposition was conciliatory, was anxious to have the government of Māḷvā conferred as a right according to the treaty with his father. With this object when Nizām-ul-Mulk was marching to the Deccan, in order to suppress his son Nāsir Juṅg's revolt, Bāḷājī paid (1741) him a respectful visit near the Narmadā and sent a body of his troops to join him. At this time he sustained a great loss in the death of his uncle Chimājī Appā which happened at the end of January 1741. Eleven days before this event, Khaṇḍujī Māṇkar under Chimājī's direction had reduced Revdaṇḍā, the last place remaining with the Portuguese between Goā and Damaṇ. Chimājī Appā from his successes against the Portuguese has earned a reputation among the Marāṭhās for his ability to conduct military operations. He is also highly respected for his purity of private life, particularly in singular contrast in that respect, to his elder brother.

On the death of his uncle, the Peshvā returned from the northern districts and spent nearly a year in civil arrangements at Pooṇā and Sātārā. Continuing to show the greatest respect for the Rājā, he obtained from Shāhu a grant by which the whole territory conquered from the Portuguese was conferred on him, and also, except in Gujarāt, the exclusive right of collecting the revenues and of levying contributions north of the Narmadā. In 1742, Bhāskarpant, the Divāṇ of Raghujī Bhonsle of Berar, carried his arms eastwards, but the Peshvā, eager to establish his power over those territories for which the authority obtained from the Rājā was as usual assumed as a right, marched though late in the season, towards *Hindustan* and made himself master of Garhā and Muṇḍelā before the rains set in. He was obliged to encamp on the banks of the Narmadā during the rainy season, and probably meditated an expedition into Allāhābād when he was called upon to defend his rights in Māḷvā which was invaded by Damājī Gāikvāḍ and Bāburāv Sadāshiv. This inroad seems to have been instigated by Raghujī to obstruct the Peshvā's progress eastward; and on Bāḷājī's arrival in Māḷvā the army of Gujarāt retired. On this occasion Ānandrāv Paār was confirmed by the Peshvā in the possession of Dhār and the surrounding districts, a politic measure which not only secured Pavār in his interests, but opposed a barrier on the western side of Māḷvā to incursions from Gujarāt. Since the Peshvā's arrival at Muṇḍelā a negotiation had been going on between him and the Emperor through the mediation of Rājā Jaysingh supported by Nizām-ul-Mulk. The *chauth* of the imperial territory was promised and a *khillāt* more splendid than had ever been conferred on his father.

was transmitted to Bāḷājī. It does not appear that any deed for collecting this general *chauth* was ever granted by Muhammad Shāh; sums of money and convenient assignments were the mode of payment. The object in the pending treaty was on the Peshvā's part to obtain *sanads* for the promised government of Māḷvā, and on the part of the court of Delhi to procrastinate and to widen the breach between the Peshvā and Raghujī Bhonsle.

In the meantime Bhāskarpant had invaded Bihār. The Marāṭhā army consisted of 10,000 or 12,200 horse and report had swelled their numbers to nearly four times that number. Bhāskarpant obtained the possession of the town of Hugḷi and most of the towns from Kaṭvā to the neighbourhood of Midnāpur fell into the hands of the Marāṭhās. Raghujī also advanced to Bengal. The Emperor ordered Safdār Juṅg the Navāb of Oudh to drive out Bhāskarpant, and at the same time applied to Bāḷājī Bājīrāv to afford his aid. As inducements to the Peshvā an assignment for the arrears of *chauth* due from Azimābād was sent to him by the Emperor and an assurance of confirming him in the government of Māḷvā. The reward was prized too highly and the service was too desirable to be refused. On Bāḷājī's approach, Raghujī decamped and retreated towards the hills. Bāḷājī overtook, attacked, and defeated Raghujī's army. Bhāskarpant retreated through Orissā and Bāḷājī returned to secure the long-promised government. The Peshvā's conduct left no reasonable excuse on the part of Muhammad Shāh for refusing to perform the engagement; but to save the credit of the imperial name, the feeble palliative of conferring the appointment on the Peshvā as the deputy of Prince Ahmad, the Emperor's son, was adopted. The rest of the treaty differs little from the former proposals made in the joint names of Bāḷājī and his uncle Chimājī, except that instead of 4,000, Bāḷājī promised to furnish 12,000 horse the expense of the additional 8,000 being payable by the Emperor. Jaysingh, between whom and Bāḷājī the most friendly intercourse subsisted, was guarantee for the observance of treaty with Muhammad Shāh. and Malhārrāv Hoḷkar, Rāṇojī Shinde, and Pilājī Jādhav declared in due form that should the Peshvā recede from his duties they would quit his service. The Peshvā returned to Sātārā to pay his respects and go through the form of producing his accounts of the revenue. These accounts were made out by the Peshvā as a general in command of a body of the Rājā's troops[1].

In 1744 Raghujī Bhonsle sent agents to the Peshvā assuring him of his sincere desire of reconciliation and of his conviction that the plans of Bājīrāv were those best suited to his own and to the real interests of the Marāṭhā nation. He continued the same profession with apparent sincerity, but as he was on full march towards Sātārā, the Peshvā thought it necessary to be on his guard, particularly as

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 259. It is a remarkable fact that after the Rajas of Satara had become perfect ciphers in the Maratha Government, the Peshva's accounts continued to the last to be made out in the manner described.

CHAPTER 2. History. MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. Balaji Bajirao Peshva, 1740-61.

Damājī Gāikvāḍ was also approaching. The Pratinidhi had become infirm by sickness, but his *mutālik* Yamājī Shivdev was an active and an able man, adverse to the Peshvā's supremacy, and, although not leagued with Raghujī, intimately connected with the faction of Dābhāḍe. Under these circumstances Bājāji Bājīrāv had to choose between a war with the Marāṭhā chiefs or the resignation of Bengal to Raghujī. The question did not admit of hesitation; he chose the resignation of Bengal to Raghujī At the same time as it was understood that the country north of the Mahānadi as well as of the Narmadā was comprehended in his agreement with the Emperor, he made a merit of conceding his right to levy tribute to Raghujī, and a secret compact in which the Rājā was used as a mediator was finally concluded. The object of the contracting parties seems avowedly to have been not so much an alliance as an agreement to avoid interference with each other. The Rājā's authority was in this instance convenient to both. A *sanad* was given to the Peshvā conferring on him his original *mokāsā*, all the *Jāgirs* bestowed on himself or acquired by his father or grandfather, the governments of the Konkaṇ and Māḷvā, and the shares of revenue or tribute from Allāhābād, Āgrā, and Ajmer; three sub-divisions in the district of Pāṭṇā, Rs. 20,000 from the province of Ārkoṭ, and a few detached villages in Raghujī's districts. On the other hand, it was settled that the revenues and contributions from Lucknow, Pāṭṇā and lower Bengal including Bihār should be collected by Raghujī who was also vested with the sole authority of levying tribute from the whole territory from Berar to Cuṭṭack. It was also agreed that Damāji Gāikvāḍ should be obliged to account to the Peshvā for the amount of the contributions he had levied in Māḷvā, but nothing was urged at this time respecting the large arrears due by Dābhāḍe to the head of the government. It does not appear that any settlement was concluded but Damāji seems to have remained in the Deccan, although his presence was much required in Gujarāt. The Peshvā's southern and eastern boundaries in North India were well defined by the Narmadā, the Soṇ, and the Gaṅgā but the *sanad* delivered on this occasion authorised him to push his conquests northwards as far as practicable[1].

Raghujī Bhonsle was intent on reviving his lost footing in Bengal; and the Peshvā in order to excuse himself to the Emperor for not acting against Raghujī remained in the Deccan. As soon as the season opened Bhāskarpant was sent with 20,000 horse into Bengal by Raghujī, but along with twenty officers was treacherously murdered on 30th March 1744 by Alivardi Khān in an entertainment near Kālvā and the army retreated to Berar in great confusion. Raghujī himself proceeded to the scene of action, and, although partially defeated near Murshidābād while returning, succeeded in maintaining his ho'd over Orissā. Shortly after Raghujī had entered Bengal, Bāḷājī Bājīrāv went (1745) to Māḷvā, addressed letters to the Emperor

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 432.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE. Shahu, 1707-1749. *Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.*

full of assurances of perpetual fidelity, but excused himself from paying his respects in the royal presence. The Peshvā also sent his agents to Alivardi Khān demanding *chauth* in accordance with the Emperor's grant. Thus the Navāb now came to be pressed between two enemies, the Bhonsle and the Peshvā. In 1747 Alivardi Khān was once again severely defeated by Raghuji's son Jānoji at Burdvān. The menace of Bhonsle's invasions thus continued to hang over Bengal till at last the Navāb came to an accommodation with him by a solemn treaty concluded in March 1751 by which Navāb agreed to part with Orissā and pay twelve lakhs of rupees annually by way of *chauth* to be collected from Bengal. As for Peshvā's claims it appears they were never implemented, on the plea put up by the Emperor that Peshvā had failed to protect Alivardi Khān from the attacks of Bhonsle. Soon after 1747 Peshvā came to be far too preoccupied with the affairs at Sātārā to be able to pursue matters relating to Bengal.

In 1746 the Peshvā sent his cousin Sadāshiv Chimājī Bhāū accompanied by Sakhārām Bāpu, the writer of Mahādajipant, Purandare, on an expedition into the Karṇāṭāk to punish some of the *deshmukhs* who had driven out the posts of the Peshvā's old creditor Bābujī Nāik Bārāmatikar. That person by the interest of Raghujī Bhonsle had obtained the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* between the Kṛshṇā and Tuṅgbhadrā in farm from the Rājā for the yearly sum of Rs. 7 lakhs; but the opposition he experienced and the heavy charges for maintaining the troops totally ruined him in a few years. The expense of the present expedition added to his embarrassment, but he would not, as was proposed to him, agree to give up the contract in favour of Sadāshiv Chimājī. Sadāshiv Chimājī levied contributions as far as Tungbhadrā and reduced Bahādur Bheṇḍā to which the Marāṭhās had a claim of long standing. On Sadāshiv Chimāji's return from this expedition, he was invested by the Rājā with the same rank as had been enjoyed by his father, that is second-in-command under the Peshvā, and being ambitious and bolder than his cousin, the Peshvā, he began to assume considerable power. He chose as the writers Vāsudev Joshi and Raghunāth Hari, two able men brought up under Kānhojī Āṅgre. In 1747 the Peshvā himself concluded a new and more specific agreement with the Rājās of Bundelkhaṇḍ, by which, after deducting the district which had been ceded to the late Peshvā, one-third of the territory estimated at Rs. 16½ lakhs was made over to Bāḷājī Bājirāv besides a like share from the profits of the diamond mines of Pannā. During this period of comparative tranquility the Peshvā encouraged agriculture, protected the villagers and grain merchants, and improvement was everywhere visible. But about this time events occurred in North India, in the Deccan, and in the Madrās, Karṇāṭak which were the forerunners of fresh troubles and great revolutions in every part of India.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

In 1749, eastern part of the Deccan which was completely drained of troops presented an inviting field to the Peshvā, but domestic arrangements of the utmost importance demanded his presence at Sātārā. Rājā Shāhu had for some years been in a state of mental imbecility brought on, it was said, through grief for the death of his youngest wife Saguṇābāī of the Mohite family[1]. As his health declined, Shāhu recovered the use of his intellect[2], and the dependents of the Peshvā about his person urged him to adopt a son. The Rājā on the loss of his only child, some time before his derangement, contrary to all his former invectives against him had declared that he would adopt Sambhājī Rājā of Kolhāpur provided he had issue. As Sambhājī had no children, it was proposed that an inquiry should be made for some lineal descendant of Viṭhojī, the brother of Mālojī, the grandfather of the great Shivājī. Search was accordingly made, but none was discovered. It was then suggested that he should take the son of some respectable *shiledār* of the *pāṭil* family. This proposal, Shāhu said, he had a strong reason for declining. For some time he thought of adopting one Mudhojī who was the son of Saguṇābāi's sister and who belonged to the Bhonsle family of Nāgpūr. Tārābāi who had been all the while carefully watching this course of events was quick to see that there was a golden opportunity for her to fish in the troubled waters. She declared that she had a grandson Rāmrājā,[3] Shivājī's posthumous son born in 1726[4] at Panhāḷā whose life she had managed to save by the exchange of another infant born at the same time. Because of the probable danger to his life the prince's existence was kept a secret by getting him conveyed out of the fort of Panhāḷā and sent to a sister of Bhavānibāi. The child was subsequently carried to Tuḷjāpūr and thence to Bārśī in Sholāpur district, where he was brought up in obscurity. The exchanged infant, said Tārābāi, soon expired and as it was widely taken to be the death of the prince,

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 441. Shāhu was for some time afflicted with that harmless silly madness which is sometimes ludicrous, even whilst it excites commisseration. It first appeared on an occasion when he had to receive a visit from two Maratha Sardars in full darbar, by his dressing out his favourite dog in gold brocade, covered with jewels and putting his own turban on the dog. He never resumed any covering for his head after he recovered his senses. This dog had once saved his life when hunting a tiger, and amongst other freaks, he issued *sanads* conferring a *jagir* upon him, and entitling him to use a palanquin in all which the Raja was humoured and palanquin establishment kept.

[2] Shahu had some wit and his reply to a letter about this time from Raja Jaysingh of Jaipur shows that he retained it to the last. The Raja asked what he had performed for the Hindu faith and what charities he had bestowed. I have, replied Shahu, conquered from the Musalmans the whole country from Rameshwar to Delhi and I have given it to the Brahmans. Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 441.

[3] His real name was Rajaram, but as Tarabai according to Hindu custom would not utter the name of her husband, she transposed the terms and made it Ramraja.

[4] Exact birth date of Ramraja is not available: See Sardesai, Marathi Riyasat, Vol. VI, Peshwa Balaji Bajirav (1749-61), p. 19.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Shahu, 1707-1749.

Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

his existence elsewhere remained a well guarded secret. Such an assertion on the part of Tārābāi, did not of course meet with universal credence. Even Shāhu at first hesitated to put implicit faith in the story, but after satisfying himself with some proof and words of faith he came to be inclined to accept the story as true. It was, however, loudly asserted by the partisans of Sambhājī that the so-called son of Shivājī was spurious and plans were pursued to oppose his claims to Sātārā. The elder surviving wife of Shāhu, Sakvārbāi of the Shirke family, on being acquainted with the declaration on the part of Tārābāi which deprived her of all change of power, also incited Sambhājī to oppose the alleged grandson of Tārābāi whom she declared an impostor. She promised to aid Sambhājī to her utmost, and engaged Yamāji Shivdev in her cause. Jagjivan, the younger brother of Shripatrāv who had been appointed Pratinidhi on the death of Shripatrāv in 1747, also promised her all the support in his power. Damājī Gāikvāḍ gave his assent to the proposal, and emissaries were despatched into the Ghāṭmāthā and the Koṅkaṇ, a tract possessing ever prone to solidery, to raise men and be prepared for her purpose. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv repaired to Sātārā with an army of 35,000 men, to guard his own interest as also to prevent any untoward development. While the interested parties were thus busy in their own plans Shāhu lay on his death bed (1749) vigilantly attended by Sakvārbāi, who as has been pointed out was opposed to the accession of Rāmrājā. The Peshvā, however, caught an opportunity to obtain a secret interview with Shāhu whose inclinations he promised to honour and give effect to. The Rājā therefore signed a note empowering the Peshvā to govern the whole Marāṭhā confederacy (Rājmandal, as it is actually called in the note) on condition of his not entertaining the claims of Sambhājī and assuring the Peshvā that whosoever comes as *Chhatrapati* would continue him in the office of the Peshvā[1]. This paper also directed that Kolhāpūr State should always be considered an independent sovereignty; that the *jāgirs* now existing were to be confirmed to the holders, leaving power to the Peshvā to conclude such arrangements with the *jāgirdārs* as might be beneficial for extending Hindu power, for protecting the temples of the God, the cultivators of the fields, and whatsoever was sacred or useful[2]. The Peshvā now

[1] Sardesai (New History of the Marathas' Vol. II, p. 272-73. The text of the note is published in *Kavyetihas Sangraha*).

[2] The question whether Ramraja was or was not the son of Shivaji II and whether the deed of cession to the Peshva, was or was not really executed by Shahu is one that has been much discussed; and the historians Mountstuart Elphinstone and Grant Duff take opposite sides the former doubting and the latter, on the whole maintaining the genuineness of both the letter and the deed. (Elphinstone's History of India, IV edition, p. 642; Grant Duff's Vol. I, p. 443 note). Subsequent research in Maratha history has tended to support Grant Duff in this controversy. It is sufficient to state that Ramraja was eventually acknowledged by the Marathas as the adopted son and successor of Shahu.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.
Shahu, 1707-1749.
Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

resolved to act decisively yet cautiously.[1] Although he knew Tārābāi's capacity of intrigue very well he considered it most expedient to support the assertion of Tārābāi although he might have his own doubts about her avowals, for he knew that the voice of the country was too strong and an heir of the house of Shivājī would have been joined by thousands. Sambhājī at this stage was out of the picture and Sakvārbāi would have liked to adopt a scion from the Nāgpur branch because she could only thus maintain her supremacy after the death of her husband; but Sakvārbāi, to conceal her plot, always gave out that in the event of Shāhu's death she would burn with the body. This declaration proved her ruin, for the interested parties took care to circulate the report until it became so general that its non-fulfilment would, in the eyes of the whole country, have been a reflection on the honour of the family. Shāhu breathed his last on 15th December, 1749. Tārābāi came down from the fort to have a last look at him. Govindrāv Chiṭṇis went and conversed with her. She advised Govindrāv to arrange that Sakvārbāi should become *sati*[2]. The Chiṭṇis reported this proposal to the Peshvā who consulted the Pratinidhi, Fattehsingh Bhonsle and others. They unanimously supported Tārābāi's suggestion about Sakvārbāi becoming *sati*. Her brother Kānhojī Shirke was sent for. He went and communicated the proposal to his sister. Sakvārbāi had not yet recovered from the first emotions of consternation and rage at finding her plans frustrated for, within a few moments of Rājā's death a body of horse had galloped into the town of Sātārā. Every avenue about the town was occupied by troops and a garrison of the Peshvā was placed in the fort, while party was detached to reinforce the escort of Rāmrājā who had not arrived when Shāhu died. In this situation as she revolved in her mind the proposal of her brother, she came to the conclusion that if she refused and lived after her husband she would have to suffer untold miseries at the hands of the Peshvā who was strong enough to control the situation. The

Shahu's Death, 1749.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 442. The following letter from Sadashiv Chimaji to the Peshva throws very useful light on the situation. After compliments: It seems impossible to judge of what will be the result of all this. The Bai's doings are not to be depended upon; keep continually on your guard. The Bai is not a person to blunder in that which she sets about. Let nothing induce you to act contrary to what has hitherto been professed, or let anything appear respecting your intentions; but in the event of the Raja's decease, you must take the upper hand of all. While the Raja is in existence, do not allow so much as a grain of oil-seed to appear different in your conduct. As matters proceed continue to write to me constantly. Despatched 16th Saval.

[2] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 274.

Ram Raja, 1749-1777. *Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.*

brother returned and communicated her assent. Then preparations were made. Along with Sakvārbāi two of Shāhū's concubines, Lakshmi and Sakhu, also burnt themselves on the same pyre[1].

Immediately after Shāhu's death the Peshvā put Sakvārbāi's partisans, the Pratinidhi and his *Mutālik* Yamāji Shivdev, under arrest. Orders were also sent in his name to Yeshvantrav Dābhāḍe and Raghuji Bhonsle requiring their presence at Sātārā. Yeshvantrav Dābhāḍe had become totally imbecile from debauchery, and as had probably been foreseen neither Dābhāḍe nor Damāji Gāikvāḍ the commander of his army attended. Most of the other *jāgirdārs* were present, but if any were disposed to resist the Peshvā's authority, they remained passive until they should see what part Raghuji Bhonsle would play. Raghuji's ambition was now controlled by the caution of age and the teaching of experience. He was not only intent on directing yearly raids into Beṅgāl, but owing to the absence of his son Jānoji in the Karṇāṭak with 10,000 horse and to the number of troops which he was compelled to leave in his own territories he arrived at Sātārā in the month of January 1750, with a force of only 12,000 men. His disposition was pacific towards Bāḷājī but he made some demur in acknowledging Rām Rājā. He required, in testimony of his being Bhonsle and the grandson of Rājārām, that Tārābāi should first eat with him in presence of the caste, deposing on the food they ate together that Rām Rāja was her grandson. When this was complied with in the most solemn manner, Raghuji declared himself satisfied; and after a long conference with the Peshvā he gave his assent to the propriety of the plans submitted for his consideration. As a proof of the good understanding which subsisted between them, Bāḷājī took occasion to proceed in advance to Pooṇā, leaving the Rāja in Raghuji's charge, and requesting that he would accompany him to Pooṇā with the whole of the *jāgirdārs*, for the purpose of concluding the arrangements made by the will of the late Rājā, Shāhu. It may also be noted that in the note left by Shāhu, Raghuji had been expressly excluded from succession. From this period (1750) Poonā took the place of Sātārā as the main centre of activities of the Marāṭhās.

In the success of his schemes, Bāḷājī almost overlooked Tārābāi, who though upwards of seventy years of age, soon convinced him that it was dangerous to slight a woman of her spirit. On pretence of paying her devotions at her husband's tomb in Sinhgaḍ near

[1] A statue of Shahu was afterwards erected on the burning ground where it still stands. Grant Duff is of opinion that Kanhoji was promised by the Peshwa that a *jagir* would be given to him in the Konkan, if he persuaded his sister to burn herself not only for the honour of Shirke family but for the honour of all India under the sway of the late Raja. He further avers that many of the men of those times who knew the secret did not look upon the *Sati* as in conformity with their faith and always mentioned the incident with detestation; (Grant Duff Vol. I. p. 444) but Sardesai differs and says 'When she saw that she could not manage to snatch power out of the Peshwa's hands she preferred to die.' (Sardesai: New History of the Marathas p. 274).

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Ram Raja, 1749-1777.
Balaji Bajirao Peshva, 1740-61.

Pooṇā she went there and endeavoured to persuade the Pant Sachiv to declare for her as head of the Marāṭhā empire[1]. Bāḷājī, after much persuasion, induced her to come to Pooṇā, and having flattered her ambition with the hope of a large share in the administration, at last obtained her influence with Rām Rājā in confirming the many schemes he had now to carry into effect. Raghuji Bhonsle received new deeds for Berār, Goṇḍvan, and Beṅgāl, and some lands which had belonged, to the Pratinidhi adjoining Berār. The title deeds for half of Gujarāt were sent to Yeshvantrāv Dābhāḍe, which, as he had never yet accounted for a share ot the revenue to the state, gave Damāji Gāikvāḍ to understand what he might expect from the growing power of the Peshvā. The whole of Māḷvā estimated to yield about Rs. 150 lakhs of yearly revenue except about Rs. 10 lakhs was divided between Hoḷkar and Shinde, and Rs. 74½ lakhs were conferred on Hoḷkar and Rs. 65½ lakhs on Shinde. The remaining Rs. 10 lakhs were held by various *Jāgirdārs* of whom Ānandrāv Pavār's share was the most considerable. All of them were subservient to the views of the Peshvā and from them he had no opposition to fear. Bāḷājī Bājirāv, without intending to employ them, confirmed the eight *Pradhāns,* and for a short time nominated Gaṅgādhar Shrinivās as Pratinidhi; but on the application of Raghuji Bhonsle and of some other *Jāgirdars,* when about to return to their districts, he made them a promise to release Jagjivan Parashurām and accordingly restored him to his rank and liberty. As the Rājā's establishment was to be much reduced, and it was necessary to secure in his interests such of his officers as he could not employ, the Peshvā reserved a great part of the Pratinidhi's lands as *jāgirs* and assignments to the persons in question, particularly the tract west of Karāḍ between the Urmoḍi and the Vārṇā where he apprehended an insurrection supported by the Rājā of Kolhāpur. Fattehsingh Bhonsle the adopted son of Shāhu was confirmed in the possession of his *jagir,* in various minor claims, in shares of revenue, and in the title of Rājā of Akkalkoṭ, which, except the detached claims alluded to, were being enjoyed by his descendants till the time of merger. An appointment created by Shāhu for a relation of the *Mantri,* and which was termed *Ajahut sardeshmukh* or general agent for collecting the *sardeshmukhi* was nominally preserved; but *jāgir* lands were assigned in lieu of the right of interference in the collection of the ten per cent. on the six *subhās* of the Deccan. The appointment of *Sar Lashkar* was taken from the family of Somvanshi and given to Nimbājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar. All these changes and appointments were made in the name of Rām Rājā, but it was now well understood that the Peshvā's authority was supreme in the state and generally admitted without dissatisfaction. Yamāji Shivdev, who recovered his liberty at the same time with the Pratinidhi, threw himself into the fort of Saṅgolā near Paṇḍharpur where he raised an insurrection and made head

[1] As Sinhgad belonged to the Sachiv and afforded a centre for intrigue against the Peshva, he categorically demanded possession of that fort from the Sachiv. The Sachiv refused to do so and was at once arrested. The fort was surrounded on 6th July and Sachiv was set free. (Sardesai—New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, p. 291).

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Ram Raja, 1749-1777.

Balaji Bajirao Peshva, 1740-61.

against the Peshvā until he was suppressed by the Peshvā's cousin Sadāshiv Chimājī. In the measures which have been detailed the Peshvā owed much of his success to his Divāṇ Mahādajipant, who, next to his cousin Sadāshivrāv, possessed the greatest influence over Bāḷājī Bājīrāv of any of his advisers. Sadāshivrāv on his expedition to Saṅgolā was accompanied by Rām Rājā for the purpose of giving Yamāji Shivdev no excuse for resistance. During their stay at that place, the Rājā is said to have agreed to renounce the entire power and to lend his sanction to whatever measures the Peshvā might pursue, provided a small tract round Sātārā was assigned to his own management, conditions to which Bāḷājī subscribed but which actually were never realised. The Rājā under a strong escort returned from Saṅgolā to Sātārā. The Peshvā in order to soothe Tārabai whose great age did not render her less active and intriguing, incautiously removed his troops from the fort of Sātārā, and having placed in it the *gaḍkaris* and old retainers who had great respect for the widow of Rājārām, gave up the entire management to her. The Rājā was kept with a separate establishment in the town of Sātārā, but perfectly at large, and a splendid provision was assigned to him and his officers, the expense of which amounted to the yearly sum of Rs. 65 lakhs[1].

In 1751, when the Peshvā left for Auraṅgābād, to support the claims of Ghāzi-ud-din, the elder son of the Nizām to the viceroyalty of the Deccan, Tārābāi sounded Rām Rājā in regard to his assuming the control usurped by his servant Bāḷājī the Peshvā; but not finding him fit for her purpose, she pretended to have had no serious intentions in the proposal. At the same time she sent messengers to Damāji Gāikvāḍ, representing the unguarded state of the country and recommending his immediate march to Sātārā to rescue the Rājā and the Marāṭhā state from the power of the Peshvā. Damāji at once acted on this request and Tārābāi, as soon as certain accounts were received of the Gāikvāḍ's approach. invited the Rājā into the fort of Sātārā and made him prisoner. She then reproached him with his want of spirit; regretted that she had ever rescued him from a life of obscurity for which only he could have been destined; declared that he could not be her grandson or the descendant of the great Shivājī; that he was neither a Bhonsle nor a Mohite, but a baseborn Gondhaḷi changed in the house where he had been first conveyed[2], and that she would make atonement on the banks of the holy Kṛishṇā for ever having acknowledged him. She ordered the *Havildār* to fire upon his attendants, most of whom unconscious of what had happened remained near the gate of the fort; and she directed the guns to be pointed at the houses in the town below belonging to the partisans of the Peshvā. Trimbakpant commonly called Nānā Purandare, Govindrāv Chitṇis, and the officers in the Peshvā's interests at Sātārā were at first disposed to ridicule this attempt as that of a mad old woman, but, on hearing of the approach of Damāji Gāikvāḍ from Songaḍ, they quitted the town and assembled troops at the village of Ārḷā on the banks of the Kṛshṇā. On the advance of

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 450.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 452. Ram Raja was first concealed in the house of a Gondhali or a *gondhal* dancer.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Ram Raja, 1749-1777.
Balaji Bajirao Peshva, 1740-61.

the Gāikvāḍ by the Sālpā pass, although they had 20,000 and their opponent only 15,000 men they made an irresolute attack and retired to Nimb about eight miles north of Sātārā where they were followed the next day, attacked, and defeated by the Gujarāt troops. Damāji Gāikvāḍ immediately went to pay his respects to Tārābāi, and several forts in the neighbourhood were given to her. Sātārā was well stored with provisions, and the Pratinidhi promised to aid Tārābāi's cause. News of these proceedings recalled the Peshvā. Before he returned Nānā Purandare had redeemed his lost credit by attacking and compelling the army of Damāji Gāikvāḍ to retire to the *Jore Khorā* (Jore valley) about twenty-five miles north-west of Sātārā where they expected to be joined by the Pratinidhi from Karāḍ and by troops from Gujarāt. In this hope they were disappointed; and as Shankarājīpant *Subhedār* of the Konkaṇ was assembling troops in their rear and the Peshvā's army which had marched nearly 400 miles in thirteen days was close upon them, Damāji sent a messenger to treat with Bāḷājī. Bāḷājī solemnly agreed to abide by the terms proposed and enticed Damāji to encamp in his neighbourhood, where, as soon as he got him into his power, he demanded the payment of all the arrears due from Gujarāt, and the cession of a large portion of his territory. Damāji represented that he was but the agent of Dābhāḍe the *Senāpati*, and had no authority to comply with what was required. On this reply the Peshvā sent private orders to seize some of the family of the Gāikvāḍ and Dābhāḍe who lived at Taḷegāṅv in Pooṇā, and treacherously surrounded, attacked, and plundered the camp of Damāji Gāikvāḍ and sent him into confinement at Pooṇā[1]. This defeat of Damāji, instead of damping the spirits of Tārābāi, only served to incense her still more. The imprisonment of Rām Rājā was made more strict. Guards and servants were made to suffer indescribable hardship on ground of suspicion. Pratinidhi was deprived of his post on ground of incapacity. At the same time she started a low intrigue with the Nizām's Court offering the Peshvāship to his minister, Rāmdāspant. It is difficult to understand how in all this she was serving the Marāṭhā State although on the authority of Grant Duff it must be stated that Marāṭhās of the times were strongly of opinion that she was the rightful regent and that Bāḷājī had usurped the sphere of power and influence that was her due. Perplexing as the affair was Tārābāi's conduct in the end proved advantageous to the Peshvā as it took from him the odium of being the first to confine the Rājā to the fort of Sātārā. Tārabai did not merely confine Rām Rājā to the fort. His prison was a damp stone dungeon and his food was of the coarsest grain. Damāji Gāikvāḍ was the only man whom the Peshvā dreaded, but as he was now a close prisoner at Pooṇā, Bāḷājī proceeded towards Auraṅgābād in prosecution of his engagements with Ghāzi-ud-din. Rāmdāspant, Rāja Raghunāthdās as he was also called, the Divāṇ of Salābat Jung opened a communication from Ahmadnagar with Tārābāi and Sambhājī of Kolhāpur.[2]

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 453. In consequence of this treachery, it is said that Damaji ever after refused to salute the Peshva except with his lefthand.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 454.

Ram Raja, 1749-1777.
Balaji Bajirav Peshva, 1740-61.

During Bāḷājī's absence at Auraṅgābād Tārābai occupied the districts of Wāi and Sātārā aided by 5,000 or 6,000 Marāṭhās and Rāmoshis whom she had entered in her service. A large force was sent to invest Sātārā and starve her into submission. Ānandrāv Jādhav, the commandant of the fort, convinced of the folly of resistance, formed the design of carrying the Rājā out of her power. When this came to her knowledge she ordered him to be beheaded; a sentence which the garrison executed on their own commander, as well as on several others subsequently implicated in a like scheme. Bāburāv Jādhav, a person unconnected with the late commandant and a relation of the Jādhavs of Siṅdkheḍ was appointed to the command of the fort. In 1753, the Peshvā before leaving for the Karṇāṭak endeavoured to pave the way to a compromise with Tārābāi. On his march to the Karṇāṭak he sent to assure Tārābai that if she would submit, the control of the Rājā's person and establishment should remain at her disposal. To this Tārābāi would not listen to unless Bāḷājī Bājīrāv would come to Sātāra, acknowledge her authority, and give, such personal assurances as would satisfy her[1]. Encouraged by the approach to Pooṇā of Jānoji Bhonsle the son and heir of Raghuji Bhonsle, and on assurances of safety and protection from the Peshvā, Tārābāi, leaving the garrison of Sātārā and the custody of Rām Rājā's person to Bāburāv Jādhav repaired to the Peshvā's capital accompanied by Bimbāji Bhonsle the youngest brother of Jānoji who had attached himself to her party and married one of her relations of the Mohite family. At Pooṇā Tārābāi was received with so much attention and consideration that she agreed to the Peshvā's proposals as formerly made, provided he would promise to accompany her to the temple of Jejuri and there solemnly swear to abide by his present declarations. The Peshvā consented on condition that Bāburāv Jādhav should be dismissed to which Tārābāi reluctantly agreed. This reconciliation between Tārābāi and the Peshvā was the result of great tact and restraint on the part of the Peshvā with which he tickled womanly pride and showed to her the futility of any opposition to his designs. Rām Rājā however as per conditions of agreement with her continued to remain in confinement, even in later years up to the time of her death which took place in 1761. On the whole it must be said that Rām Rājā was a prince deficient in ordinary ability, and the miserable thraldom he underwent during the long confinement broke his spirit and ruined his health.[2]

Before Shāhu's death (1749), little improvement had taken place in the civil administration of the country. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv (1740-1761) appointed six *māmlatdars* or *subhedārs* each of whom had charge of several districts. The territory between the Godāvari and the Kṛshṇā including the greater part of Sātārā, the best protected and most productive under Marāṭhā rule, was entrusted to the Peshvā's favourites and courtiers some of whom were his relations. They held absolute charge of the police, the revenue,

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 464.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 472.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Ram Raja, 1749-1777. *Balaji Bajirao Peshva, 1740-61.*

and the civil and criminal judicature, and in the most cases had power of life and death. They were bound to furnish regular accounts, but they always evaded settlement. They governed by deputies and remained at court whether in the capital or in the field in attendance upon the Peshvā. Their districts were in consequence extremely ill-managed and in very great disorder: the supplies furnished for the exigencies of the State were tardy, and in comparison with the established revenues, insignificant. The beginning of a better system is ascribed to Rāmchandra Bābā Shenvi and after his death Sadāshivrāv Bhāu improved on his suggestions. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv Peshvā was sensible of the advantage to be gained from bringing the collectors under control. He had not sufficient energy for the undertaking himself, but he supported his cousin's measures. *Panchāyats*, the ordinary tribunals of civil justice began to improve, because the supreme power if it did not always examine and uphold their decrees, at least did not interfere to prevent the decisions of the community. Most of the principal Brāhmaṇ families of the Deccan date their rise from the time of Bāḷājī Bājīrāv. In short the condition of the whole population was in his time improved and the Marāṭhā peasantry sensible of the comparative comfort which they then enjoyed have ever since blessed the days of Nānā Sāheb Peshvā.

Battle of Panipat, 1761. Madhavrav Peshva, 1761-1772.

In 1761 the Marāṭhās sustained the crushing defeat of Pānipat, and Peshvā Bāḷājī who never recovered from that terrible blow died on June 23, 1761. Immediately after his death Mādhavrāv the second son of the Peshvā Bāḷājī Bājīrāv, then in his seventeenth year, went to Sātārā accompanied by his uncle Raghunāthrāv and received investiture as Peshvā on 19th July, from the nominal Rājā, who remained in precisely the same state of imprisonment under the obdurate Tārābāi, until her death on 9th December 1761 at the age of eighty-six at Sātārā. To the last moment she maintained her inveterate hatred against Bāḷājī Bājīrāv and Sadāshivrāv, declaring that she died contended having lived to hear of their misfortunes in the battle of Pānipat and their death. Thereafter the Peshvā Mādhavrāv I formally crowned Rām Rājā at Shāhunagar on 23rd March 1763[1]. Since then his lot became much improved, although he was not allowed to assert himself as *Chhatrapati*, a role for which he possessed neither the training nor the capacity. He was

[1] *Shahu Roznishi 99.*

At first the management of affairs was entirely in the hands of Raghunathrav but Madhavrav the young Peshva, soon became desirous of having a share in the administration, and disputes arose between him and his uncle. The latter retired and having obtained help from the governor of Aurangabad and collected a large force of Marathas, marched on Poona, defeated his nephew's army and again took charge of the Government. Soon after this Madhavrav acquired the management of the Government, and kept on good terms with his uncle till A. D. 1768, when Raghunath retired from court raised a force and encamped near Dhodap in the Chandor range; but he was soon defeated and taken prisoner, and was kept in custody till the close of Madhav's reign. (Dekhan History. Musalman and Marathas, Part I, by W. W. Lock p. 603, Sardesai—New History of Marathas, pp. 468-72)

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.

Ram Raja, 1749-1777.
Madhavrao Peshva, 1761-1772.

only allowed to appoint agents for the management of his *pāṭil* dues in several villages and the collection of his other hereditary claims as deshmukh of Iṅdpāur.[1]

In 1762,[2] Raghunāthrāv, who had assumed chief control over the young Peshvā, displaced Shrinivās Gaṅgādhar, more commonly known by his original name Bhavānrāv, who had succeeded his uncle Jagjivan Pratinidhi, and raised his infant son Bhāskarrāv to the dignity of Pratinidhi and appointed Nāro Shaṅkar Rājā Bahādur to the office of *mutālik,* which was in effect conferring the office of Pratinidhi upon him. In 1763, when this and other acts of Raghunāthrāv had made him unpopular, Rājā Pratāpvant Viṭṭal Sundar a Yajurvedi Brāhmaṇ the Divāṇ of Nizām Ali, persuaded his master that he had now an opportunity of completely reducing the Marāṭhās, and that his best policy was to overthrow the power of the Peshvā, to depose Rām Rājā as unfit to govern, and to appoint Janoji Bhonsle to act in his place. To this scheme Jānoji readily agreed, but Nizām Ali, whose duplicity rendered him true to no plan while his minister was negotiating, secretly renewed a correspondence with the Rājā of Kolhāpur, by which he intended to have an eventual competitor in reserve in case Jānoji's claims should prove inconvenient.[3] Everything seemed to promise success. Bhavānrāv the dispossessed Pratinidhi and many of the Peshvā's officers joined the Nizām and hostilities were renewed. In the war which followed Jānoji deserted and the Nizām was severely defeated at Rākshasbhuvan on 10th August 1763 his Divāṇ Viṭṭhal Sundar being found among the slain. Throughout the battle the young Peshvā particularly distinguished himself both by personal energy and judicious support which he sent not only to his uncle but to different points of the attack. Nizām, therefore entered into a treaty with Raghunāthrāv, who was much aided by the young Peshvā. Bhavānrāv was restored to the rank of Pratinidhi upon the death of Bhāskarrāv which happened about the same time.[4] Peshvā Mādhavrāv after regaining his power from Raghunāthrāv seized every interval of leisure to improve the civil government of his country. In this laudable object he had to contend with violent prejudices and with general corruption; but the beneficial effects of the reforms he introduced came to be universally acknowledged, and his sincere desire to protect his subjects by the equal administration of justice reflects the highest honour on his reign. His endeavours were aided by the celebrated Rām Shāstri Prabhuṇe a resident of the village of Māhuli near Sātārā. By 1772 the supremacy and gradual usurpation of the Sātārā Rājā's authority also superseded that of the other *Pradhāns* as well as of the Pratinidhi. Forms of respect instituted with their

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 533.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 538.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 540. The letters were addressed to Jijibai the widow of Sambhaji who acted as regent during the minority of her adopted son named Shivaji.

[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, p. 543.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Ram Raja,
1749-1777.
Madhavrao Peshva,
1761-1772.

rank were maintained, but they were only of importance in the state according to the strength and resources of their hereditary *jāgirs* and of a superior description of soldiery, who, on pay much inferior to what they might elsewhere have obtained, adhered to some of them, with that pride in their chief, which caught the fancies of men in all countries and dignified military vassalage. Of all these personages at the period of Mādhavrāv's death, Bhavānrāv, the Pratinidhi was the most considerable both for the greater number of his vassals and for his warlike character.

Narayanrao Peshva, 1772-73.

Mādhavrāv died in November 1772, and Nārāyaṇrāv his younger brother early in December repaired to Sātārā where he was invested as Peshvā by the Rājā. Next year (1773) the commandant of Rāygaḍ in Kolābā who was in rebellion against the Peshvā, on being required to surrender replied that he held the fort for the Rājā of Sātārā and would maintain it against the Peshvā until the Rājā was released. On this an order was caused to be written from Rāmrājā to the commandant who then surrendered the fort to the Peshva[1]. On the murder of Nārāyaṇrāv in the same year, Amṛtrāv the adopted son of Raghunāthrāv attended by Bājābā Purandare was despatched to Sātārā for the robes of office for Raghunāthrāv which was accordingly given[2]. In the troubles which followed, the ministers who had sided with Gaṅgābāi, the widow of Nārāyaṇrāv were on the point of releasing the Rājā of Sātārā as a measure calculated to insure them the aid of many of the Marāṭhā soldiery who were discontended or neutral. But the retreat of Raghunāthrāv caused them to abandon the design. In April 1774 as a son and heir was born to Gaṅgābāi, Sakhārām Bāpu and Nāna Faḍṇis were deputed by Gaṅgābāi to receive the robes of office for her son which were sent from Sātārā by the Rājā in charge of Mādhavrāv Nilkaṇṭh Purandare.[3]

Madhavrao, Peshva, II 1774-1796.

[4]In the reign of Mādhavrāv Ballāḷ (1761-72) Tāsgāṅv and its neighbourhood were taken from Kolhāpur and added to the Peshvā's territory as *jāgirs* of the Paṭvardhans. In 1777 they were temporarily recovered for Kolhāpur but Mahādji Shiṅde succeeded in preventing their permanent loss. At the close of the year (1777) Rām Rājā died at Sātārā having previously adopted a son of Trimbakjī Rājā Bhonsle a *pāṭil* of the village of Vāvī a descendant of Viṭhojī, the brother of Mālojī, the grandfather of the great Shivājī. Trimbakaji Rājā commanded a body of 200 horse with which his son served as a *shiledār* when chosen as heir to the throne but, similar to his predecessor with no power to assert himself. He was styled

Death of Ram Raja, 1777.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 2.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 6-7.

[3] In August 1773 a disturbance arose among some of the troops of Poona and their leaders burst into the palace; Narayanrav took refuge with his uncle Raghunath but was followed and murdered in his presence and there was reason to believe that Raghunath was implicated in the murder (Dekhan History p. 604), Sardesai—New History of Marathas, Vol. III pp. 26-27).

[4] Originally contributed by Mr. J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C. S.

Shahu II, 1777-1810. *Madhavrav Peshva II, 1774-1796.*

Shāhu Mahārāj[1]. At the same time Bhavānrāv Pratinidhi died and was succeeded by his son Parashurām. In 1788 Bājābā Purandare was confined in Vandan by Nānā Faḍṇis as one of Raghunāthrāv's chief adherents. In 1790 Parashurām Bhāu was occupied near Tāsgāṅv raising levies for the Marāṭhā contingent to the army engaged in the first English campaign against Ṭipū. Two battalions of Bombay Native Infantry with Artillery arrived at Kumṭā near Tāsgāṅv on the 18th of June travelling by Saṅgameshvar and the Ambā pass. They seem to have remained in this neighbourhood some three weeks.

In 1792 the phantom Rājā of Sātārā gave the formality of his permission to the Peshvā to assume the dignity of *Vakil-ul-Mutlak* bestowed on him by the no less phantom Moghal emperor of Delhi.

Bajirav Peshva, II 1796-1818.

The Rāstes of Wāi seem at this time to have exercised great influence in the court of the Peshvā at Pooṇā where they sided with the ministerial party against the encroachments of Mahādji Shiṅde. In the September 1795 Parashurām Bhāu, after taking part in the battle of Kharḍā and the subsequent arrangements returned to Tāsgāṅv. Throughout this year, owing to the dread that Mahādji Shiṅde intended to make the Rājā an instrument for suppressing the Peshvā's ascendancy, Nānā Faḍṇis almost entirely confined the Rājā to the fort of Sātārā, where not even his relations were allowed to visit him. Parashurām Bhāu was also summoned in haste from Tāsgāṅv to Pooṇā to cope with the difficulties which had arisen over the succession due to the suicide of Peshvā Mādhavrāv. Nānā's proposal that Bājīrāv Raghunāth should succeed occasioned a rupture with Shinḍe. On the advance of Shinḍe's army Nānā Faḍṇis repaired in alarm to Sātārā with some idea of restoring the Rājā to supremacy. But, owing to his recent treatment of him, Shāhu had no confidence in Nānā and Nānā retired to Wāi. From Wāi he returned to Sātārā to receive the robes of investiture for Chimājī Appā the Peshvā set up by Shinḍe's general Bāḷobā as a rival to Bājīrāv Raghunāth, but suspecting designs against him on the part of Bāḷobā, Nānā remained at Wāi. Chimājī was installed in May and a pretence made at a reconciliation between Nānā and Bāḷobā. But Haripant the eldest son of Parashurām Bhāu who was bringing the message crossed the Nīrā on his way to Wāi at the head of four or five thousand horse[2]. Nānā took alarm and fled to Mahāḍ in Koṅkaṇ throwing a strong garrison into Pratāpgaḍ. Nānā's intrigues were successful in gaining Shinḍe to his

[1] On account of the prevailing ideas as regards purity of blood there was a general feeling that there were only a few old families, with whom the Raja of the Marathas could intermarry. Until a long time afterwards the Raja of Satara would have thought himself degraded by a marriage with the daughter of Nimbalkar and Jadhav although from them Shivaji was descended from the maternal line. This feeling, probably sanctified and strengthened by the Upadhyas and Shastris, explains the reason why it was scarcely known that Shahu was married in Aurangzeb's camp to a daughter of Shinde of Kannaikhed. See also Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 69.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 260.

CHAPTER 2 — History MARATHA RULE. Shahu II, 1777-1810. *Bajirav Peshva II, 1796-1818.*

cause, but his partisans in Shinde's camp betrayed the conspiracy from want of caution and part of them had to take refuge in the hills south of the Nīrā. The troops met at Wāi and shortly afterwards 10,000 men were gathered in the Sahyādris and declared for Bājīrāv. In October the army was joined by the regular battalions in the Peshvā's service under Mr. Boyd. Bājobā was aided by Shinde and the army marched for Pooṇā with Nānā at its head in Bājīrāv's interest. The Paṭvardhan estates near Tāsgāṅv were attacked by the Kolhāpur Rājā at Nānā's instigation and Parashurām Bhāu was made prisoner. Owing to Bājīrāv's treachery this triumph was shortlived, and, in 1797, Nānā was arrested in Pooṇā and subsequently taken to Ahmadnagar as a prisoner, on 6th April 1798. The Rājā of Sātārā at the same time seized the fort and confined Nānā's agent. But to the Peshvā's disgust, when Shivrām Nārāyaṇ Thatte came to receive charge, the Rājā, instigated by Shinde refused to give up the fort. Mādhavrāv Rāste, was sent against the Rājā but had to retire to Mālegāṅv. Parashurām Bhāu, who was then confined at Wāi was released on promise of quelling the disturbance. He soon assembled a considerable force and advanced to Sātārā in the height of the rains crossing the Veṇā by an unknown ford. The Rājā had only a small force which was overcome after a slight struggle in the suburbs. The Rājā, who had thrown himself into the fort, surrendered for want of provisions. His brother Chitursingh as he is popularly called, escaped to Kolhāpur closely pursued by a body of Rāste's troops joined by others of the Pratinidhi which encamped near the Vārṇā for more than a year. In 1798 they were cut off almost to a man by four hundred horse reinforced from Kolhāpur. Chitursingh next made a raid as far as Pāl and took all the guns and dispersed the whole of a force of over 2,000 men collected by Rāste. He again retreated to the Vārṇā and kept 7,000 men continually on the move throughout the Sātārā territories. The Kolhāpur forces also attacked and pillaged Tāsgāṅv the capital of Parashurām Bhāu's *jāgir*. Parashurām Bhāu was determined to avenge the wrong and organised an extensive campaign against Kolhāpur towards the end of 1798. Parashurām Bhāu fixed his camp at Paṭṭaṇkuḍī near Nipāṇi abut 30 miles south of Kolhāpur. This was suddenly attacked by Chhatrapati on 16th September 1799 when Parashurām Bhāu taken unawares was killed fighting for life. This only served to concentrate all the forces of the state in the effort to reduce Kolhāpur which was only saved by distractions at the Peshvā's court in Pooṇā. The southern part of Sātārā must have formed the principal base of these operations which included the investment of the town of Kolhāpur by the armies of the Peshvā.

This struggle of the two Chhatrapatis of Sātārā and Kolhāpur with their common enemies was in a sense an effort to make themselves free from the thraldom and subordination in which they had been held long by the Peshvās. The only function that the Sātārā Chhatrapati was at this time called upon to perform was to supply robes of Peshvāship to anybody at a requisition coming from Pooṇā

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.
Shahu II,
1777-1810.
Bajirao
Peshva II,
1796-1818.

at the sweet will now of Nānā, then of Bājirāv, again of Shinde or Parashurām Bhāu, whether the person to be so invested had fitness to rule the state or not. The Chhatrapati and even more than he, his brother Chitursingh were smarting under these painful conditions. Kolhāpur also was being constantly harassed by the Paṭvardhan Sardārs of the Peshvā. It was no wonder therefore that the two should have combined in a common cause and put up a strong resistance. It cannot however be said that it was any grand piece of diplomacy to bring about a revolution in the Marāṭhā confederacy by which the Chhatrapati could assert his own position in the *Rāj Manḍaļ*. Such a plan even if it were carried out with tact, had little chance of success in those troubled times. As it was, it was no more than a struggle to fish in troubled waters and at best a desperate effort to take mad revenge against their immediate opponents.

In 1802, after Bājirāv's flight from Yeshvantrāv Hoļkar, Shāhu of Sātārā was reluctantly induced by the persuasion of Chitursingh to invest Vināyakrāv the nephew of Bājirāv as Peshvā; but this step proved to be of no avail as towards the end of November 1802 Bājirāv put himself under British protection, a step which changed the whole character of the Pooṇā situation. In 1803 when General Wellesley advanced on Pooṇā he was joined by the Paṭvardhans and the Pāṭankars among other *jāgirdārs* of the Satara territory.

After the war of 1803, the territories of the Peshvā suffered considerably from plundering insurgents and freebooters. The distress was also aggravated by a famine in the Deccan through deficiency of rain which destroyed vast numbers of men and horses, but by the end of 1804 British supremacy had restored order. That year the country of the Paṭvardhans about Tāsgānv was in a state of considerable disturbance which was not quelled till an arrangement was effected in the interests of Bājirāv by Khanḍerāv Rāste. In 1805 the district was the scene of ravages by Fattehsingh Māne a general of Hoļkar's with an army of 10,000 men. He was defeated by Balvantrāv Faḍnis *Mutālik* of Karāḍ aided by Chintāmaṇrāv Paṭvardhan.

The young Pratinidhi, Parashurām Shriniivās, was at this time at Karāḍ, under the restraint of his *Mutālik* or deputy whose doings were supported by the mother of the Pratinidhi and connived at by the Peshvā. In 1806 a quarrel ensued, and Bāpu Gokhale the Peshvā's general was sent with troops to enforce submission, while the Pratinidhi was confined in the mud fort of Masur. Next year the Pratinidhi was rescued by Tāi Teliṇ, his mistress, the wife of an oil-seller. In 1807 this woman gained possession of the fort of Vāsoṭā in the extreme west of Jāvļi and from it descended on Masur and rescued the Pratinidhi. The Pratinidhi declared for the Rājā of Sātārā and against the Peshvā. Many of the people of the district rose with him but his excesses and inability disgusted them. Bāpu Gokhale again went against him; and a slight engagement ensued

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratapsinh 1810-39.
Bajirav Peshva II, 1796-1818.

near Vasantgaḍ. The Pratinidhi was severely wounded and carried to Pooṇā; and his estates sequestrated. His mistress still held out and Bāpu Gokhale had to take the hill forts one by one advancing by the Koynā valley. He met with no difficulty except at Vāsoṭā which held out under Tāi Teliṇ for eight months. On 4th of May 1808 Shāhu[1] the Rājā of Sātārā died and was succeeded by his son Pratāpsinh. Bāpu Ghokale was allowed by the Peshvā to take all the benefit of these conquests. He levied heavy exactions over the whole district and seized all the Pratinidhi's jewels and private property. In 1811 the Peshvā demanded back his territory, which, with that usurped by the Paṭvardhans and Rāstes, was brought under his control by British influence, while Rāste's estate was finally sequestrated by him in 1815. The same year Trimbakji Deṅgḷe was sent into confinement at Vasantgaḍ for allegedly instigating the murder of Gaṅgādhar Shāstri, the Baroḍā minister, and was then delivered to the custody of the British Government. He afterwards escaped and infested, among other places, the Mahādev hills, supported by the Māṅgs and Rāmoshis.

Trimbakji Dengle's Insurrection, 1817.

Trimbakji Deṅgḷe on being given up to the British Government was confined in Ṭhāṇā. He escaped and retired to the hills near Shiṅgṇāpur in east Sātārā. Early in January 1817 he was at Phalṭaṇ, and constantly changing his residence between that place and Paṇḍharpur, extended his range as far as the Mahimāngaḍ and Tāthvaḍ forts. On the 29th January he had 500 men near Berāḍ in Phalṭaṇ and Nāteputā in Māḷśiras, 300 near Shiṅgṇāpur, 600 near Mahimāngaḍ, and 400 near Phalṭaṇ, a total 1,800 men almost all foot and the bulk of them Māṅgs and Rāmoshis. Upto the 18th of February cavalry and infantry continued to join them near Shiṅgaṇāpur while the 18th of March was fixed for the outbreak. Trimbakji's head-quarters were at Berāḍ in Phalṭaṇ, where he used to sleep in the forest guarded by five hundred Rāmoshis. In spite of the large number of troops who were collected, the Peshvā denied the existence of any insurrection or gathering of armed men, and though he sent Bāpu Gokhale into the district with troops they professed to hear no news of insurgents. On the 7th of March after the serious messages addressed to the Peshvā by Mr. Elphinstone the troops were partly dispersed. In April the operations of Colonel Smith drove the insurgents from their haunts in Shiṅgṇāpur, and when Colonel Smith left for Pooṇā, a detachment under Major MacDonald prevented their remaining in Māṇ or in Jath State. In May Pāṇḍavgaḍ was taken by the so-called rebels. But Mr. Elphinstone suspected collusion on the part of the Peshvā's officers for the purpose of eventually delivering the forts to Trimbakji. The Peshvā made the rising a pretext for gaining Mr. Elphinstone's acquiescence to his taking the forts while his forces assembled near Sātārā. The Peshvā's plan was thought to be to retire to Sātārā with his brother, with whom he had effected

[1] The famous Chitnis Bakhar was written by Malharrav Ramrav Chitnis at the instance of Shahu but the work was completed only after his death.

a reconciliation, and thence to Vāsoṭā or to Dhārvad in the Karnāṭak with a force of 10,000 horse and foot under Nāropant Āpṭe. He relied on a successful resort to the old Marāṭhā style of warfare as well as on the improbablity, as he believed, of the English proceeding to extremities. In May followed the treaty of Poonā and subsequently General Smith's troops were drawn to the North Deccan in operations against the Peṇḍhāris. Soon after the Peshvā had an interview with Sir John Malcolm at Māhuli at which Sir John misled by the Peshvā's professions advised him to recruit his army. All this time the Peshvā was actively engaged in his schemes against the British and while at Māhuli appointed Gokhale leader of all his measures investing him with full powers of government by a formal writing under his own seal confirmed with an oath. He did this not only in pursuance of his own policy, but also as security to the chiefs who were afraid to stand by him on account of his vacillation. To aid his preparations Bājirāv gave Gokhale as much as one crore of rupees and he made the Rājā of Sātārā privy to his designs against the English, but having discovered that he was plotting with the English, Bājirav sent him and his family to Vāsoṭā, a remote hill fort on the edge of the Sahyādris. The recruiting and arming of forts rapidly proceeded, the Peshvā returned to Pooṇā, and his power was destroyed on the 5th of November in the battle of Kirkee. General Smith arrived at Kirkee on the 13th and took Pooṇā on the 17th. The Peshvā fled towards Sātārā. After securing Pooṇā General Smith followed on the 22nd. On the 26th he reached the Sālpā pass, halted there on the 27th, and on the 28th ascended the pass without opposition. On the top he was attacked by six hundred horse with a few rockets. But the advance soon drove them back with loss. They gathered strength as they retired, and towards the close of the march showed three to five thousand on the front and as many more in the rear. Gallopper guns, that is light field pieces, were opened in the evening with great effect. The second battalion of the 9th Regiment under Major Thacker had the rear guard and masked a gallopper gun under a division of auxiliaries which the Marāṭhās were preparing to charge. It opened with grape and did great execution. Throughout the day the Marāṭhās lost about one hundred and twenty men while General Smith had only one *havildār* and a sepoy slightly wounded. The next day the Marāṭhās appeared to be somewhat hesitating in the morning but in the evening showed about five thousand horse out of range. Taking advantage of a rise in the ground the English pushed their guns on, within range. They opened with great effect upon the Marāṭhās who stood in a group and inflicted a loss of many men and horses. The war, however, could not be brought to a decisive end because the Marāṭhās would not give a straight fight and that the English suffered from a want of cavalry to keep them at a distance, while the grain supplies for their followers ran short, and owing to the close order which had to be kept on the marches which began at two or three in the morning, the camps could not be reached till two or three in the afternoon. General Smith was now close on

Pratapsinh Imprisoned in Vasota.

Battle of Kirkee, 5th November 1817.

CHAPTER 2.
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratapsinh, 1810-39.
Pursuit of the Peshva, 1818.

the Peshvā who till then had remained at Māhuli. From Māhuli Bājīrāv fled to Paṇḍharpur. He had sent for the Rājā of Sātāra from Vāsoṭā but had to start before he arrived. It was not till the middle of December that he was joined by the Rājā and four thousand horse under Nāropant Āpṭe which had escorted the Rājā from Vāsoṭā. The Peshvā after going as far north as Junnar again turned south and the Rājā was with the Peshvā at the famous battle of Koregāṅv on the Bhīmā river. On the 5th of January 1818 the Peshvā was fleeing towards Sātārā and General Pritzler taking up the pursuit marched direct upon Māhuli by the Sālpā pass. He met with a body of the Marāṭhās on the 8th of January close to Sātārā and killed and wounded sixty men, and took thirty horses and six prisoners. On the 12th General Smith was near Phalṭaṇ and was moving south-east towards Shiṅgṇāpur where he intended to cross the Māṇ near Mārde opposite Mhasvaḍ. Thus he and General Pritzler pursued the Peshvā in hopes of intercepting him if he again turned north. General Smith was just outside the eastern boundary of the district while General Pritzler went by the usual route to Tāsgāṅv. On the 17th of January about ten thousand horse of Gokhale's army in two divisions attempted a reconnaissance of General Pritzler's camp. The cavalry under Major Doveton charged them three times and put them to flight, their loss being forty killed and wounded. The day after, part of Prizler's army was placed under General Smith while Pritzler still moved down the right bank of the Kṛshṇā. About the same time the Peshvā turned north passing Pritzler to the west reached Karāḍ on the 23rd. On 23rd General Smith also turned northwards after the Peshvā reached Kavṭhe two miles south of Tāsgāṅv. About half-way on the march his rear guard was closely pressed by the whole of the Marāṭhā light division not less than fifteen thousand strong and commanded by Appā Desāi, Trimbakji Deṅgle, Viñchurkar, several of the Paṭvardhans, and Gokhale himself. The ground being confined and intersected by water-courses General Smith took ground and moved out to drive off the Marāṭhās. The latter kept their ground firmly for some time behaving with much more spirit than usual. Five six-pounders and a howitzer were kept firing on them for some time and their losses were considerable. Meanwhile the Peshvā had succeeded in passing General Pritzler and his force in the west and on the 23rd was at Karāḍ. By the 27th General Smith's division had reached Pusesāvali while the Peshvā was six miles from Māhuli. The Marāṭhās under Gokhale five thousand strong contended themselves with harassing the troops on the march. General Smith was only six miles from Māhuli by sunset the next day. The Peshvā had arrived at noon. He left at once in the morning of the 29th and did not stop till he reached Hanbād six miles from the Nīrā bridge. Here his advance guard fell in with a force under Captain Boles. He instantly moved on and at 8 p.m. reached Phalṭaṇ leaving many tired men and camels at Hanbād. He only stayed two hours at Phalṭaṇ and marched again in the direction of Pusesāvali. He halted about sixteen miles further on. He had marched about eighty miles in forty hours and in consequence had got

separated from his baggage. He afterwards turned south-east and on the 30th reached Nateputa. Smith started in pursuit of the Peshvā on the 29th. The light division of Gokhale's force attempted to pass him by the short route by Koregānv in order to join the Peshvā but he managed to intercept them and they had to take a more circuitous route further west, as General Smith neared the Sālpā pass. Part of them made another push at a point where the valley is some five or six miles wide, probably not far from Deur. General Smith had just pitched his camp. Gokhale's division was advancing along the opposite side of the valley. The 2nd Cavalry and the Horse Artillery supported by the Grenadiers of the 65th Regiment and part of the Light Infantry were immediately ordered under arms and proceeded with the intention of cutting off this body as they passed between them and the hills. Seeing this the Marāṭhās kept close under the hills and upon the advance of the cavalry and horse artillery at a gallop fled in the greatest consternation to avoid the charge. Their rear was driven back by the road by which they were advancing, while the main body pushed on at speed for some miles. A few with part of the baggage which had preceded the horse took refuge in the hills and numbers crawled up to the top by a path which from below appeared almost perpendicular. The grenadiers and part of the Light Battalion went up and took part of what remained, killing such of the armed men as offered resistance. The rest under Gokhale moved by the Khambāṭkī pass and were joined next day by a body of troops from the eastward below the pass. After waiting at Khaṇḍāḷā Gokhale again retired above the Khambāṭkī pass. On the 30th General Smith joined Colonel Boles with his reserve at Loṇand. He had marched five hundred and seventy miles in forty days with only three halts. General Pritzler returned by the same route after having been driven as far as Galgalā in Bijāpūr, and had marched three hundred miles in eighteen days and altogether twenty-three days without a halt. The scattered English forces were determined to effect a meeting. With this object General Smith again moved south on the 4th of the February and reached Rahimatpur on the 6th. Here General Pritzler joined him from the south and on the 8th, the united force went to Sātārā, and the fort surrendered on the 10th. General Smith then turned towards Paṇḍharpur. At Ashṭī Bāpu Gokhale was overtaken by him and was killed in a stiff action on 19th February 1818. With the death of his faithful commander, the Peshvā lost all hope of recovering his position. He did not wait to witness the result of the action but fled away hurriedly with his wife and three ladies riding with him in a male attire. The Rājā of Sātārā and his party left helpless on the camping ground with all Bājīrāv's treasure valued at about one crore fell into his (General Smith) hand. General Smith wrote the following hurried note to Elphinstone, "I send you a private account of our good luck as the Rājā's family is with me and the poor Gokhale is to be roasted this evening with all ceremony. For he really fought like a soldier. I entreat you to relieve me of the Rājā's family as I cannot keep up any useful pursuit with them." Elphinstone met

Satara Surrendered to the British, 10th February, 1818.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Pratapsinh, 1810-39. Bajirao Peshva II, 1796-1818.

General Smith at Belsār on 4th March and took charge of the Rājā, who was not a little happy at his deliverance[1]. For long since the murder of Gaṅgādhar Shāstri Paṭvardhan and the state of panic following the murder, Pratāpsinh and his mother had made secret approaches to the Resident, requesting his help against Bājīrāv's plans.

Mr. Elphinstone's Manifesto.

In order to hasten the destruction of the Peshvā by inducing his subordinates to quit his service, Elphinstone under orders from the Governor General issued the following proclamation dated 11th February 1818 stating the British case against Bājīrāv.

"In 1796, from the time when Bājīrāv ascended the throne, his country had been a prey to faction and rebellion and there was no efficient government to protect the people. That in 1802 when Bājīrāv was driven from Pooṇā he took refuge at Bassein, and entering into an alliance with the British Government, early in 1805 was restored to his full authority and the supremacy of the British in the Deccan ensured peace. In 1803 when Bājīrāv was restored the country was wasted by war and famine, the people were reduced to misery, and the government drew scarcely any revenue from its lands. From that time, through British protection, in spite of the farming system and the exactions of Bājīrāv's officers, the country had completely recovered, and Bājīrāv had accumulated those treasures which he was now employing against his benefactors. The British Government not only kept peace within the Peshvā's possessions but maintained his rights against his enemies abroad. It could not, without injury to the rights of others, restore his authority over the Marāṭhā chiefs, which had expired long before its alliance with him, but it paid the greatest attention to satisfy his admissible demands and in spite of many difficulties succeeded in adjusting some and putting others in a train of settlement. Among these were Bājīrāv's claims on the Gāikvāḍ. The British Government had prevailed on the Gāikvāḍ to send his prime minister to settle Bājīrāv's demands, and they were on the eve of adjustment with great profit to the Peshvā, when Gaṅgādhar Shāstri, the Gāikvāḍ's agent was murdered by Trimbakji Deṅgḷe, the Peshvā's minister, while in actual attendance on his court and during the solemn pilgrimage of Paṇḍharpur. Strong suspicions rested on Bājīrāv, who was accused by the voice of the whole country, but the British Government unwilling to credit such a charge against a prince and an ally contended itself with demanding the punishment of Trimbakji. This was refused until the British Government had marched an army to support its demands. Yet it made no claim on the Peshvā for its expenses and inflicted no punishment for his protection of a murderer; it simply required the surrender of the criminal, and on Bājīrāv's compliance it restored him to the undiminished enjoyment of all the benefits of the alliance. Notwithstanding this generosity Bājīrāv immediately began a new

[1] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas, Vol. III, p. 493.

CHAPTER 2.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratapsinh, 1810-39.
Mr. Elphinstone's Manifesto.

system of intrigues and used every exertion to turn all the power of India against the British Government. At length he gave the signal for disturbances by fomenting an insurrection in his own dominions, and prepared to support the insurgents by open force. The British Government had no remedy but to arm in turn. Its troops entered Bājirāv's territories at all points and surrounded him in his capital before any of those with whom he had intrigued had time to stir. Bājirāv's life was in the hands of the British Government, but that Government, moved by Bājirāv's professions of gratitude for past favours and of entire dependence on its moderation, once more resolved to continue him on his throne, after imposing such terms on him as might secure it from his future perfidy. The principal of these terms was a commutation of the contingent which the Peshvā was bound to furnish for money equal to the pay of a similar body of troops. When this was agreed to, the British Government restored Bājirāv to its friendship and proceeded to settle the Pendhāris who had so long been the pest of the peaceable inhabitants of India and of none more than of the Peshvā's subjects. Bājirāv affected to enter with zeal into an enterprise so worthy of a great government. He assembled a large army on pretence of cordially aiding in the contest, but, in the midst of his professions, he spared neither pains nor money, to engage the powers of Hindustān to combine against the British. No sooner had the British troops marched, towards the haunts of the Pendhāris, than he seized the opportunity to begin war without a declaration and without even an alleged ground of complaint. He attacked and burnt the house of the British Resident, contrary to the laws of nations and the practice of India, plundered and seized peaceable travellers, and put two British officers to an ignominious death in the vicinity of Talegānv. Bājirāv himself found the last transaction too barbarous to avow; but, as the perpetrators were still unpunished and kept their command in his army, the guilt remained with him. After the beginning of the war, Bājirāv threw off the mask regarding the murder of Gangādhar Shāstri and avowed his participation in the crime by uniting his cause with that of the murderer. By these acts of perfidy and violence, Bājirāv had compelled the British Government to drive him from power and to conquer his dominions. For this purpose a force had gone in pursuit of Bājirāv which would allow him no rest, a second was employed in taking his forts, a third had arrived by way of Ahmadnagar, and the greatest force of all was entering Khāndesh under the personal command of His Excellency Sir Thomas Hislop. A force under General Munro was reducing the Karnātak and a force from Bombay was taking the forts in the Konkan and occupying that country. In a short time no trace of Bājirāv would remain. The Rājā of Satara, who had always been a prisoner in Bājirāv's hands, would be released and placed at the head of an independent state of such an extent as might maintain the Rājā and his family in comfort and dignity. With this view the fort of Sātārā had been taken, the Rājā's flag had been set up in it, and his former ministers had been called into

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Pratapsinh, 1810-39.

Mr. Elphinstone's Manifesto.

employment[1]. Whatever country was assigned to the Rājā would be administered by him and he would be bound to establish justice and order. The rest of the country would be held by the Honourable Company. The revenue would be collected for the Government but all real and personal property would be secured. All *vatan* and *inām* or hereditary lands, *varshāsans* or yearly stipends, and all religious and charitable establishments would be protected, and all religious sects tolerated and their customs maintained as far as was just and reasonable. The revenue-farming system would be abolished. Officers should *be forthwith appointed to collect a regular and moderate revenue on the part of the British Government, to administer justice, and to* encourage the cultivators of the soil. They would be authorized to allow remissions in consideration of the circumstances of the times. All persons were forbidden paying revenue to Bājīrāv or his adherents or aiding them in any way. No reduction would be made from the revenue on account of such payments. *Vatandārs* and other holders of land were required to quit his standard and return to their villages within two months. The *Jamindārs* would report the names of those who remained and all who failed to appear in that time would forfeit their lands and would be pursued without remission until they were crushed. All whether belonging to the enemy or otherwise, who might attempt to lay waste the country or to plunder the roads would be put to death whenever they were found."

Pratapsinh Restored, March 1818.

This proclamation sealed Bājīrāv's fate. The British installed Chhatrapati Pratāpsinh[2] in his seat at Sātārā and Captain Grant Duff[3] the author of the History of the Marāṭhās, was placed with him to aid his councils and direct his conduct. This singular act of diplomacy for a time created an impression that the British looked upon Bājīrāv as their enemy and that they had no designs against the Chhatrapati whose family had been raised from hereditary confinement to power. Besides Pratāpsinh who was in the prime of life, it included two brothers Chitursingh and Shahājī and their mother. Pratāpsinh was described by Elphinstone as a young man of about twenty,[4] good humoured and frank and not destitute of intelligence.

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[1] Elphinstone's motive in not annexing the Maratha power completely can be gauged from his own words. Says he, summarising the British situation at the time, "We never before attempted the complete conquest of a country. Even Mysore was saved by the creation of a Raja. If we fail, (in following such a policy), Sindia will go to war, Holkar rebel, Sikhs and the Gurkhas join in, Haidarabad burst out. The flame expands to other provinces, some fundamental point is touched and our whole Empire tumbles down like a pack of cards. It certainly is a bad plan to *swallow more than we can digest*. By destroying and diminishing so many states, we have increased the sources of discord, which it was our object to remove." (Colebrooke's Life of Elphinstone, Vol. II pp. 40-44).

[2] Blacker's Maratha War, 256.

[3] He was originally Captain Grant. He later added 'Duff' to his original name and hence is known as Grant Duff.

[4] Pratapsinh was born on 18th January 1793.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Pratapsinh, 1810-39.

His mother, who was more ambitious, made large claims stating that she expected that the family would be re-established on the footing it enjoyed in its time of greater fortune[1].

On the 29th of March 1818 after a two days' halt, part of the reserve marched from Sātārā and on the 30th camped at some distance on the high road towards Vāsoṭā[2] which had been Pratāpsinh's prison and where some of his family were still confined. Vāsoṭā stands on one of the Sahyādri hills about 3,000 feet high on the Konkaṇ side and about 2,000 feet above the Deccan plain. Like most Marāṭhā hill-forts it was commanded from neighbouring hills. Its greatest strength lay in its height and in the difficulty of approach. In almost every direction it was surrounded by inaccessible mountains, except a few passes so narrow and rugged as to be easily defended, and extremely difficult though in no way strengthened by art[3]. On the 31st, under Colonel Hewett's command, a detachment of six companies of the European flank battalion, two companies of Rifles, and flank companies of the 2nd

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1 On the 29th of March 1818, Mr. Elphinstone rode with the Raja through the lower part of the valley of Satara. Groves of mango trees, clumps of cocoa-palms so uncommon above the Sahyadris, here and there fine tamarind or *pimpal* trees throwing their deep shade over a temple by the Krishna, and the picturesque hills that surrounded the whole made this the finest part of the Peshwa's country, if not of India. The Raja went into Satara with the pomp of a prince and the delight of a schoolboy. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 30.

2 Blacker's Maratha War, 295-98. The force assembled for this service included two corps of Europeans, the flank battalion of the Bombay European Regiment, half a battalion of European Rifles, four battalions of Native Infantry of the line, that is the 2nd battalion of the 12th Madras, the 2nd battalion of the 7th, and the 2nd battalion of the 9th Bombay, and an auxiliary battalion from Poona. To this force was attached 700 Poona Auxiliary Horse and four companies of Pioneers. The ordnance included twenty-nine pieces, of which four were iron eighteen-pounders and two were iron twelve-pounders. There were one ten-inch and four eight-inch mortars, two heavy five and a half inch howitzers, and two brass twelve-pounders. The rest were field guns and light howitzers. Colonel Dalrymple of the Madras establishment commanded the artillery of which there were 270 Europeans and 317 Natives of both Presidencies. Captain Nutt of the Bombay establishment was Chief Engineer.

3 From the camp near Sudoli, twelve miles from Vasota, Mr. Elphinstone wrote (3rd April): The pass is now a good open road to the top. The scenery was less romantic and the fort less alarming than before. The descent was worse than the ascent. Along the bank of the Koyna, where there was a good road, there were occasionally fine views of the water bordered with trees and surrounded by woody hills. The scenery was romantic. Dr. Coats compared it to Malabar and General Pritzler to St. Domingo. The road to Vasota lay along a valley between high mountains and was quite secluded, as if no one were within a hundred miles. The hill sides had a variety of summits and ravines. In some places were craggy rocks intermingled with trees; in others appeared smooth summits covered with the richest and greenest foliage; in some the forest was on fire, and gusts of smoke drawn through the leafless trees; in others the fire was spent and there remained only the blackened ground and scorched trunks. Towards the west of the valley the bottom and sides of the hills were covered with brushwood or with tall pine-like trees, but all the upper part of the mountain was bare rock or withered grass. The whole was closed by Vasota. Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 31-32.

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratapsinh,
1810-39.

battalion of the 12th and 7th Bombay Native Infantry, was sent forward to Vāsoṭā about twenty miles west of Sātārā. In the afternoon Colonel Hewett's detachment reached Induli a small village within two miles and a half of Vāsoṭā, and drove in an outpost of the garrison. Two companies of the Seventh were left in possession of the fort, and the rest of the force returned to Tāmbiā, five miles fromVāsoṭā as there was no nearer place fit for encampment. The investment was put off till the first of April, when three outposts were established, one at old Vāsoṭā at a distance of 700 yards and commanding the place, the second at the same distance and commanding the road to the gateway, and the third to the right of it at a distance of no more than 400 yards from the walls. A summons was sent to the commandant, but it was refused admittance. On the first and second all the Pioneers and litter-bearers were engaged in making a road. On the 3rd, the head-quarters of the division were moved forward to Tāmbiā, and with the help of elephants the mortars and howitzers were brought across the hills to the same place. Next day a strong working party was employed on the pathway to old Vāsoṭā to complete the work begun on the first, and some light guns and ammunition were got up. The Rājā Pratāpsinh, some of whose family were prisoners in the fort, arrived in the camp, and a detachment of rifles and auxiliary horse was sent into the forests to search for eighteen elephants which their keepers had carried off from Pāṇḍavgaḍ immediately before that place was reduced. On the fifth the battery from old Vāsoṭā opened with good effect and one of the largest buildings in the fort was fired by the bombardment. The garrison returned a few shots from their large guns, but kept up an unremitting fire from their wall-pieces and small arms and were all day busily employed in improving their defences. The bombardment continued on the 6th. As it was found that the arrangements were insufficient to intimidate the commandant, the Pioneers were directed to complete the road from the camp for the advance of the battering guns. This proved unnecessary. On the following morning the garrison surrendered unconditionally and a company of Bombay Native Infantry took possession of the fort. The loss of the enemy amounted to seventeen killed and wounded and that of the British force to only four. Among the prisoners set free were two officers Cornets Morison and Hunter, who were restored to freedom after an almost hopeless confinement. They were the first to meet the party advancing to receive possession of the place, among whom were some intimate friends, but so greatly had their past hardships changed them that they were scarcely recognised. The members of Pratāpsinh's family were also set free and accompanied the chief to Sātārā. Much importance was attached to the fall of Vāsoṭā which was one of the Peshvā's treasure-houses and one of his strongest forts. The 7th was spent in the removal of the mortars and guns from the batteries back to the park and in preparing to re-cross the mountains. The passage was effected during the two following days and on the 10th the force returned to Sātārā having reduced the fortress of Paraḷi by detaching a party of infantry under

a native officer to whom it surrendered. The detachment of rifles and auxiliary horse, which had been sent off a few days before rejoined with the elephants they had gone in search of, after a long and most fatiguing march among the hills. With the usual ceremonies, which the general and the leading officers attended, the Commissioner formally seated Pratāpsinh on the *masnad* or pillow of state. On the 11th of May a halt was called during which visits of ceremony were exchanged with the Rājā, and on the 12th the force began its return southward by the valley of the upper Kṛshṇā to reduce more forts during its progress to join Brigadier-General Munro from Sātārā. On the 13th of May the encampment was at Masur, which, as well as the hill fortress of Vasantgaḍ, surrendered in the course of the day. On arriving at Karāḍ on the 14th the garrison of Kole and Sadāshivgaḍ abandoned those places. At Kopargāṅv, on the following day, the submissions of Machhindragaḍ, Battis Shirāḷā, Islāmpur, Vaṅghī, and Vāḷvā, were received. Garrisons were established in all these as well as in other places. From Vāḷvā the force marched without halt by Islāmpur, Āshṭā, and Siredvār, to Nagar Manoli, General Munro's headquarters which were reached on the 22nd. Dātegad, Makrandgaḍ, Pratāpgaḍ, Bhairavgaḍ, and Jāṅgli Jaygaḍ, also surrendered. The rapid fall of so many places bore out the truth of the well-known saying that forts quickly fall when there is no army to keep the field. The garrisons seemed to want only a pretence for surrendering.

Strong military forces were stationed at Sātārā and Karāḍ. Shortly after a conspiracy was discovered for the release of Chitursingh, the murder of all Europeans at Sātārā and Pooṇā, the surprise of some of the principal forts, and the possession of the Rājā's person. The plot was suppressed and several of the conspirators executed. On the 25th of September 1819 a treaty was concluded under which Pratāpsinh agreed to hold his territory in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. He was neither to increase nor to diminish his military force without its sanction, and as a fundamental condition he was positively forbidden to hold any intercourse with persons not his subjects except through the Resident at Sātārā. The British Government charged itself with the defence of his territory which was to be managed by a British Agent till the Rājā had acquainted himself with the business of Government[1]. Their lands were restored to the great *jāgirdārs* and in most cases at their own request they were placed under the Raja of Sātārā. By the treaty of 1819 Rājā Pratāpsinh was formally installed as ruler of a territory which included the whole of the present district of Sātārā except the sub-division of Tāsgāṅv which then formed part of the Paṭvardhan estates. The Sātārā chief held in addition what are now the sub-divisions of Sāngolā, Māḷśiras, and Paṇḍharpur in Sholāpur, and part of the

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 525.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Pratapsinh, 1810-39.

Bījāpūr district in the neighbourhood of and including the city of Bīpāpūr.*.

These arrangements did not meet with ready approval from the Marāṭhā public of those days, as the Chhatrapatī, was now reduced to a position of a petty chieftain. Captain Grant who had been appointed as his Resident and guardian was himself assisted by Bāḷājīpant Nātu who had been for many years a confidential agent and an informer of Elphinstone. From the very beginning Rājā *Pratapsinh took a dislike to Natu who was known to be selfish and intriguing.*

Captain Grant Duff found Pratāpsinh naturally intelligent and well disposed, but surrounded by profligate men bred among intrigues and ignorant of every thing except court etiquette[1]. All went well so long as Captain Duff remained in sole charge. In 1822 Pratāpsinh was freed from tutelage, and a fresh treaty was concluded in which special stress was laid on the articles regarding foreign intercourse. For a time things went well. In 1829 Sir John Malcolm admired the condition of the country, the chief's devotion to business, and his promotion of useful works. Besides building of a road to Mahābaḷeshvar and part of that to Pooṇā by the Sālpā pass, he also provided funds for the dam and lake at Mahābaḷeshvar, and at Sātārā he made the water works by which the town is supplied from springs in the neighbouring hills of Yavteshvar. He built some large public offices and a fine palace and pleasure gardens and arranged that his territory should be surveyed by Captain Adams. In 1825 Bishop Heber wrote that the chief was a well disposed young man of good understanding. His country was peaceable, orderly, and as prosperous as could be expected after the famine. He was so ardent a professed lover of peace as almost to bring his sincerity in question[2]. In November 1826 Mr. Elphinstone wrote: He is the most civilised Marāṭhā I ever met, has his country in excellent order, and everything to his roads and aqueducts in a style that would credit a European. I was more struck with his private sitting room than anything I saw at Sātārā. It contains a single table covered with green velvet at which the descendant of Shivājī sits in a chair and writes letters as well as a journal of his transactions with his own hand[3].

*The Ramoshis who served in the inferior ranks of Police in the Maratha administration in Satara played an important part under the leadership of *Chitursingh*, An official letter from Bombay (23rd February 1822) refers to the errors of assessment. The turbulence of the people along with the factors inherent in the transfer of power led to the rising of the Ramoshis. They proved to be so turbulent that the Government was forced to condone many of the crimes and even placated them by land grants and recruiting them as hill police (S. B. Chaudhuri—Civil Disturbances pp. 155-56).

In 1845 Koli outrage spread into Purandhar and Satara whose headquarters were in the hilly country to the northwest of Poona. (S. B. Chaudhuri—Civil Disturbances p. 168).

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, p. 510.

[2] Journal, II. 212.

[3] Colebrooke's Elphinstone, II. 187-188.

How Rājā Pratāpsinh gradually developed an anti-British prejudice is an interesting question which has given an undeserved notoriety to his career. A prisoner of the Peshvā during his boyhood, he contracted no vice and grew up to be a plain soldier, generous and outspoken in his manners and punctilious in the observance of the rules of his caste and religion. He was never afraid of giving out whatever was uppermost in his mind, a trial which perhaps ill-accorded with his position as a vassal of the British power. One notices this conflict in his inner thoughts in the entries he has made in his diary, which Captain Grant advised him to write every day regularly and which is now preserved in volumes in the Peshvā's Daftar at Pooṇā. He has herein occasionally reproduced his conversation with the Governors and British officials of note. The diary discloses his kindness to his younger brother and his fondness for hunting. He opened schools in his territory and thus made the first beginning of popular education in Satara, Captain Grant retired in 1822 but Pratāpsinh long continued his contact with him by regular correspondence. He often ordered from England rare articles and curios of foreign manufacture making regular remittances for their cost. He was made a member of the Royal Asiatic Society of England. Thus he received quite a healthy start in life with a distinct promise of increasing advancement in the future. His senāpati Bāḷāsāheb was a spirited youth devoted to his master and acted as his executive officer[1].

At the instance of Colonel Briggs, the next Resident, Pratāpsinh built as has been said above a strong permanent road to the plateau of Mahābaḷeshvar which formed a part of his dominion and in which was established a suitable summer resort for European and Indian visitors. The road was later extended to Mahāḍ and the sea coast on the west. This hill resort of Mahābaḷeshvar was handed over to the British Government by a special agreement executed in 1829. A bazar was opened on the hill and given the name of *Malcolm Peth*. In return, the fort of Pratāpgaḍ, with the shrine of Bhavānī founded there by Shivājī, was handed over to the Rājā's possession. The Governors of Bombay paid visits to Pratāpsinh at Sātārā and complimented him on the healthy progressive line of his newly established rule. The home authorities in England appreciated his services by sending him a jewelled sword with a laudatory certificate in 1835. By the time these tokens reached India, the relations of the Rājā with the Government of Bombay had become strained and the tokens were withheld. This development deserves to be explained.

The condition in the treaty of 1819 restraining Pratāpsinh from communication with the outside world was found irksome and prevented the Rājā from undertaking even marriage negotiations and ceremonial exchanges outside his own jurisdiction. The regimes of the first four Residents, Grant, Briggs, Robertson and Lodwick

[1] Sardesai: New History of Marathas, Vol. III. p. 511-512.

CHAPTER 6. History, MARATHA RULE. Pratāpsinh, 1810-39.

[illegible] fairly smooth but when Col. Ovans took charge in 1837 the habitual cordiality between the two began to wane. In fact even before these Rājā Pratāpsinh had been rather cold shouldered by sir Robert Grant, the then Governor of Bombay. It appears that he was instrumental in withholding from the Rājā some of the decisions of the Court of Directors which had been in Rājā's favour and also managed to postpone forwarding to the court of Directors, some of the representations made by the Rājā through him, taking care all the while to conceal his real intentions behind a facade of ceremonious and courtly behaviour. The Rājā thereupon resolved to make the representation direct to the Court of Directors in England through his own acredited agent. This upset Sir Robert Grant very much and he argued that the Rājā's action in sending his agent direct to the Directors without Resident's knowledge was contrary to the treaty of 1822. Whether through the encouragement of his masters or through sheer vicious ambition Bāḷājipant Nātu was engaged in *concocting evidence of Rājā's complicity in this or that subversive action and the Rājā became a suspect in the eyes of his* masters.

In November 1835 Bāḷājīpant Nātu informed Colonel Lodwick that Pratāpsinh was in the habit of talking of the probable fall of the British Government and making other treasonable remarks. Bāḷājī had also heard rumours of a plot among the chiefs which he thought that Pratāpsinh might be induced to join. Colonel Lodwick regarded these accusations as the result of intrigue and did not report them to Government. Colonel Lodwick no doubt had some idea of the discontent brewing in the Rājā's mind. Pratāpsinh wrote in his diary of 4th April, 1837 stating that the Resident asked him to omit the words, 'This is pressure of the English, would like to commit suicide. Pratāpsinh, however refused to accede to his suggestion'[1]. According to General Lodwick the Rājā's feelings were embittered by delay in settling the question of his rights to the lapsed estates of the great *Jāgirdārs*, and that he was further annoyed by the Governor's refusal to pay a return visit to him at Sātārā. Again it was further reported that he communicated direct with various Europeans and natives in Bombay and that his disloyalty and bad faith went further. His minister Govindrāv was employed to interview Shaikh Gulāmsingh and Guljār Missar, two *Subhedārs* of the 23rd Regiment then at Sātārā and tempt them from their allegiance. On the 21st of July, 1836 one Antājīpant took the *Subhedārs* to the minister's house, and they were shown to Pratāpsinh who secretly recognised them. Ten days later Antājī told them that the Rājā called them to private interview. During August, matters went no further. On the 8th of September, the *Subhedārs* were summoned in disguise to the Rājā who told them that the signal for rising was to be disturbances in Bombay and Belgānv, the arrival at Sātārā of an army from Hyderābaḍ, and at the Narmadā of an army from Hindustān. On the 18th of September

[1] *Vide* selections from Peshva Dafter Vol. 42 p. 100.

Antāji met the *Subhedārs* for the last time and had a long and treasonable conversation with them. Next day Antāji was enticed into the lines and arrested, and when Pratāpsinh was told of the accusations against him the minister was given up. On the 10th of October 1836 a commission consisting of Colonel Ovans, Mr. Willoughby, and the Resident Colonel Lodwick met to inquire into the extent of the conspiracy and of Rājā's connection with it. The procedure of the inquiry was defective in many respects. For although the Rājā asked times without number for copies of the evidence of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission to make the statements implicating him in the crime. they were never supplied to him on the ground that the Commission was a secret one and hence no part of its proceedings could be made public. The Commission fully believed the *Subhedārs* statements. They were satisfied that Pratāpsinh secretly recognised the *Subhedārs* and afterwards held private and treasonable conversations with them. That Pratāpsinh was party to a conspiracy was for the Commission, proved beyond doubt. As to the extent of the conspiracy, it appeared that during the interview hints were thrown out, of aid from Shinde and of a Moghal emissary. Some attempt also was made to show that Pratāpsinh had been in communication with Mudhoji Bhonsle, the ex-Rājā of Nāgpūr, and that he even thought of corresponding with Russia. The commission rejected the evidence of so widespread a plot as untrustworthy, and held that, though there could be no doubt of the Rājā's hostile feelings to the British Government, he had no defined or intelligible plan of action. Much of this disloyal conduct was due to exaggerated notions of his consequence and to the designs of evil men by whom he was surrounded. Of the minister Govindrāv's and Antāji's guilt there could be no doubt. Both were imprisoned, the minister at Ahmadnagar.

History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratāpsinh,
1810-39.

More Charges Against Pratapsinh.

Colonel Ovans further brought forth an evidence of a bundle of letters seeking to prove that contrary to the belief of the Commission, Pratāpsinh had commuuicated both with the Viceroy of of Goā and with Āppa Sāheb, the ex-Rājā of Nāgpūr. The Goā intrigues. it was alleged, had began as far back as 1826-27 when a certain Nāgo Devrāv was sent to Goā to conduct communications with the Portuguese Viceroy Dom Manoel. In that year a draft treaty was prepared at Sātārā. Negotiations were continued till 1828-29, and an agent named Erculann Dettora was sent to Sātārā to ascertain whether Pratāpsinh acknowledged Nāgo Devrāv as his agent. He returned with presents and satisfactory assurances from Pratāpsinh. The object of the intrigues with Goā was to enter into an offensive and defensive alliance with Portugal against the British Government. The principal conditions of the alliance proposed by Pratāpsinh were: That Portugal was to furnish an army for the recovery of the territories which fornely belonged to the Marāthās; that Pratāpsinh was to bear the cost of the army, and that when the conquest was completed the Portuguese were to be rewarded in money and territory and a portion of their army was to be subsidised at Sātārā. The evidence sought to prove that

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Pratapsinh,
1810-39.

Pratāpsinh hoped to gain possession of the whole territories which had been under the last Peshvā Bājirāv and additional conquests in Southern India. The evidence further suggested that the participants in the plot also entertained an idea uniting, France, Russia, and Austria in the alliance against the English. It should, however be remembered that none of the documents presented bore either the signature of Pratāpsinh or Dom Manoel. Seven of the letters alleged to have been written by the Rājā and three of them said to have been written by the Portuguese Governor to be in the same handwriting, which almost convincingly proved their forged character. The seals on the letters going from Pratāpsinh were found to have been faked ones. It is further worthy of note that the British government never once registered any complaint to the Government of Portugal for the serious subversive activities in which the Portuguese Governor at Goa was alleged to have been involved. In spite of all this, the Commission no doubt was convinced that the evidence was conclusive enough. Pratāpsinh and probably the agents on his side, were said to have believed that their scheme was feasible, and that the Portuguese Viceroy and his agents, besides their feeling of hostility to the English, encouraged and continued the plot for the sake of Pratāpsinh's large disbursements. The last act of this alleged conspiracy was a mission of Mādhavrāv Shirke on the departure of Dom Manoel in 1835-36. The whole was said to have been disclosed by voluntary information after the seizure of the minister Govindrāv in the *Subhedārs'* case. The third intrigue attributed to Pratāpsinh was with Āppā Sāheb, the ex-Rājā of Nāgpūr. Though he was destitute and under restraint in Jodhpur, the alleged plan was that Āppā Sāheb should raise Rs. 20 *lakhs* to enable the Portuguese to replace him in power. At Sātārā the intention to link this with the Goā conspiracy was evident, but no direct communications between Goā and Jodhpur were proved. Once Āppā Sāheb Mahādik of Tārḷe took a sword of the Bhonsles to Āppā Sāheb at Jodhpur and brought back a mare and letters. The exchange of letters lasted over about eight years, and the correspondence ceased only with the seizure of the minister Govindrāv at which time a messenger of Āppā Sāheb was found hid at a village near Sātārā. In addition genuine letters were said to have been discovered from Pratāpsinh to the native soldiery urging them to rise. As the Bombay Government was thus feverishly busy in collecting evidence against Pratāpsinh he saw no prospect and hope of his obtaining any justice at the hand of the Authorities of Bombay. He therefore tried to represent his case to the Governor-General at Calcutta and the Directors of the East India Company in England. In Bombay there were many Englishmen of unimpeachable character who were quite convinced of the innocence of the Rājā. Amongst them were Dr. Milne, Captain Cogan and Mr. Macdonald, the editor of the Bombay Gazette. Dr. Milne wrote several letters to the Governments of Bombay and India but no attention was paid to them. The only accredited agents of the Rājā sent to England to represent his case were four in numbers viz.

Syed Mir Afzil Ali, Yeshvantrāv Rāje Shirke, Bhagvantrāv Viṭṭhal and Rango Bāpuji. Of these four, the first did not present his case although his departure to England proved to be a cause of a great annoyance to the Authorities in India. Great obstacles were placed in the way of the other three and much delay was caused; but they overcame all difficulties and reached England only to find that the Directors of the East India Company would not recognise them and bade them return whence they came unheard[1]. As a result of the inquiry carried on by the Commission in its own way both the Government of India and the Court of Directors held that the evidence of Pratāpsinh's guilt was complete. Pratāpsinh was therefore called for a final explanation of his conduct. In the course of his reply, Pratāpsinh made no real attempt to meet the charges because he had not been allowed to see and examine the original copies of the evidence brought against him. Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay (1839-1841) more than once asked him to bind himself strictly and in good faith to act up to the articles of 1819. Pratāpsinh refused to promise this, because he felt that any binding of that character indirectly meant an acceptance of the charges levelled against him. To agree, he said, would lower him to the position of Māmlatdār. British Government felt that the Rājā had shown such ingratitude and ill-feeling towards the British Government, and that he was so full of absurd ambitions and pretensions that it would be misplaced clemency to overlook his treason and his want of contrition. On the 5th of September 1839 Pratāpsinh was deposed. He was thereafter deported to Kāshī, his jāilors inflicting heart rending hardships upon him and his suite, during the long overland journey. Bāḷāsāheb, the chief commandant of the Rājā could not bear the strain of the journey and died on the way, his pregnant wife giving birth to a posthumous child on a road side at Sāngvi in Khāndesh district. A request for a halt on the way for

Pratapsinh Deposed. September 1839.

[1] Of the four agents that went to England to plead the case of Satara, Rango Bapuji deserves a place of honour. He reached there in 1839 and spent fourteen years of his life in England, unceasingly advocating the cause first of the Pratapsinh, so long as he lived and then of his adopted son Shahu Even after the death of Shahaji *alias* Appasaheb, and the subsequent annexation of Satara, Rango Bapuji persisted in his efforts writing with sincerity and vigour that made the persons in power restive in their position. In one of his letters addressed to Right Hon. J. C. Herries he says "suppose yourself an English gentleman, dwelling at Peking for the same time as I have dwelt in London and advocating among the Chinese as I have humbly done here .... the stainless innocence of your Queen who had been secretly accused and deposed by a Chinese Emperor". (Basu : Story of Satara, p. 338). He knocked at the doors of both the Houses of Parliament and at last became literally penniless losing his own money in the cause; but alas with no effect! It must however be said to the credit of a few Englishmen of note, that they admired his unfaltering devotion to his master and presented him with a silver casket on which the names of the subscribers have been inscribed. The disappointed Rango Bapuji reached India in 1854, the British Government having paid him Rs. 25,000 and his passage money, perhaps to make themselves free from the activities of one who may be described as the first great foreign ambassador of India.

CHAPTER 2. — History. MARATHA RULE. Pratapsinh, 1810-39.

the purpose was refused and the party marched on. On the deposition of Pratāpsinh, Lord Auckland, the Governor-General, proposed that the Company should resume the state. But the Court of Directors decided to give it into the hands of the Rājā's younger brother Shahājī as the other brother, the gallant Chitursingh, had died in 1821.

Pratāpsinh dragged a wearisome existence at Kāshī till his death on the 14th October 1847. On 2nd December 1844 he addressed a strong remonstrance to the Governor-General Lord Hardinge, in which he forcefully described the unjust treatment meted out to him. The document is a rare specimen of language and argument, having been drafted by Pratāpsinh's agent George Thompson.

The deposition and persecution of Chhatrapati Pratāpsinh released a wave of discontent and revolt all over the country. The region round about Sātārā was naturally much affected and a chain of disturbances followed the deposition. They were inspired and organised by Dhārrāv Pavār of Karāḍ. The most noteworthy of these revolts was planned and executed by Narsappā Dattātraya Peṭkar, *alias* Nimbāji or Narsiṅgrāv of Islāmpur. He had an interview with the Chhatrapati at Nimb when the latter was on his way to Kāshī. Later he contacted an Arab jamādār, Koberān, another Arab, Tālib bin Ali and with their help collected over a thousand men at Rāichur, led an attack against the fort of Badāmī in 1841, captured it and hoisted the flag of Sātārā Rājā on it. Thereupon Company's divisions from Dhārvār and Belgānv suddenly rushed to the place and recaptured the fort. Narsiṅgrav was sentenced to transportation for life and he died in 1862 in Ahmadābād jail. In the course of another similar attempt under the leadership of one Jagmohan and Benarban (Brindaban ?) Colonel Ovans, the Sātārā Resident was waylaid and put into confinement for about two weeks. The rising was suppressed in 1844. It is however difficult to say what part Chhatrapati Pratāpsinh played in these attempts.[1]

Shahaji, 1839-48.

Although Government were convinced of the clearness and completeness of the evidence against Pratāpsinh there were not a few who made every effort to discredit the discoveries of the Resident Colonel Ovans. The principal informants, even Colonel Ovans himself, were accused before the Court of Directors of taking bribes to trump up a case against Pratāpsinh, and the chief papers were said to be forgeries. Shahājī the successor to the chiefship hated his brother Pratāpsinh, and Pratāpsinh's advocates declared that many of the accusations brought against their client were due to Shahājī's malice and ambition; Pratāpsinh's case was taken up as has been said above by Dr. Milne, ex-president of the Medical Board of Bombay, and a pensioner of the Bombay Government, as also by several proprietors of East India Stock, and General Lodwick the

[1] History of Freedom Movement in India: Bombay Government Publication, pp. 55-58.

former Resident of Sātārā. The cry reached Parliament. But the explanations of Colonel Ovans and his colleagues in the Commission of 1836 were considered entirely satisfactory. Nothing came of the agitation except three years delay between Pratāpsinh's conviction and his punishment.

Till the end Pratāpsinh's management of the state was excellent. His strength and practical sense as a governor only highlights his desire to be given a fair trial. His schemes, however, unlikely to succeed, were viewed by Government as neither the blind follies of an ignorant tool nor the empty aspirations of a visionary.

After his succession to power Shahājī's submissive attitude in resigning all his claims over the *Jāgirdārs* as also his loyalty to the British Government strongly contrasted with Pratāpsinh's insistence on asserting his claims and his unceasing efforts to seek a fair trial.

Under a treaty dated the 4th of September 1839 all the provisions of the treaty of 1819 not expressly repealed were confirmed. The chief change was that the great estate-holders or *Jāgirdārs* were placed under the direct control of the British Government instead of under the chief of Sātārā. Shahājī built and supported a civil hospital and schools and was liberal in expenditure on roads, bridges, and other public works which were executed out of the balance found in Pratāpsinh's treasury and by savings in the military establishment. He abolished transit duties and introduced the Company's rupee. The rite of *satī* or widow-burning had become very common under Pratāpsinh's administration, and in spite of the Resident's remonstrances, British subjects had been allowed to come to Sātārā to perform the rite. On his accession Shahājī of his own accord abolished *satī* by proclamation and at a later period interferred to prevent a woman burning herself. During the first Afghāṇ war (1841-42) Shahāji offered his troops, and during the 1845 insurrection in Kolhāpur and Sāvaṅtvāḍī he kept his territories in order, sent a detachment of his troops to act against the rebels, and did valuable service by forwarding supplies and keeping open communications. His expenditure on public works including those above named amounted to nearly Rs. 11 lakhs. Of this, nearly Rs. 2 lakhs were for improving the Sātārā water works and another Rs. 2 lakhs for two fine bridges across the rivers Veṇā and Kṛshṇā on the Pooṇā road by the Sālpī pass. He also finished the magnificent court room and buildings known as the New Palace and now used as the Sātārā court of justice. In March 1848, in the midst of his plans of usefulness, Shahāji was attacked with serious illness. He for some time had taken under his protection a boy of obscure birth on whom he had conferred the name of Baḷvantrāv Bhonsle and the title of Rājādnyā. On the 1st of April as his sickness increased Shahājī sent for the Resident Mr., the late Sir Bartle Frere, and more than once engaged in long conversation with him regarding the succession. He expressed the wish to make so

CHAPTER 2.

History.

MARATHA RULE.

Shahaji, 1839-48.

extravagant a provision for Rājādnyā that Mr. Frere formed the idea that he was anxious to adopt him as his son. Mr. Frere remarked that so low born a child was unsuitable to succeed him, and Shahājī stated that he intended to choose from any branch of the Bhonsle family except those of Kolhāpur, as they had married into the less pure family of the Shindes and of Vāvī. Because his brother Pratāpsinh had adopted a boy from their family, he expressed a strong unwillingness to recognise Pratāpsinh's adopted son. He hinted that if he was suddenly overtaken by death he would adopt and trust to the generosity of Government to recognise adoption. *On the 5th of April the Resident left for Mahâbaleshvar. He was brought back by a note telling him that the Rājā despaired of life and had declared his purpose of adopting a son.* The adoption took place in the presence of Dr. Murray, the Civil Surgeon of Sātārā. The lad who was named Veṅkājī, was of the house of Sheḍgāṅv which traces its origin to Sharifjī the uncle of the great Shivājī. The Rājā made Dr. Murray write in English, as he spoke in Marāṭhī, a memorandum of his adoption of Veṅkājī whom he named Veṅkājī Rājā after Shivājī's younger brother. There can be no doubt that all through these proceedings Shahājī was anxious to defer to the British Government in every possible way, and that nothing but the near approach of death led him to make an adoption without their sanction.

Shahaji's Death, 5th April 1848.

Mr. Frere arrived at Sātārā at ten in the evening. He went straight to the palace and explained to the Rāṇis and assembled chieftains that the decision of the Supreme Government must be awaited as to the course of succession; that till then he could not recognise the adoption; and that the government of the Sātārā territory would be conducted by the same agency as before under the Resident's control. All expressed their confidence in and willingness to defer to the wishes of the Supreme Government. On the 12th of April 1848 the Resident wrote to Government, 'No act is so trifling but' it has been interpreted in various ways, favourable or unfavourable to the continuance of the state, according to the hopes or fears of the party. Government will not be surprised at this when it is considered that the bread of almost every one in the city depends more or less on this decision. Besides the holders of land and other grants who may feel more or less secure according to the tenure on which they hold, at least 10,000 persons are supported directly by salaries from the court, and most of these have probably many dependents. Few of the people of Sātārā, even of those whom the change would not directly affect, would be indifferent to the passing away of Shivājī's dynasty.'

Intrigue was at once opened with Pratāpsinh's family at Banāres. Reports were circulated and letters written stating that the late Rājā had asked the Resident to send for Pratāpsinh's adopted son, that, though this was not the case, Pratāpsinh's choice was nearer by blood to the Rājā's line than Shahājī's choice, that Bābājīpant forced Shahajī to adopt Veṅkājī, and that Shahājī was insensible

when the adoption took place. The presence of Dr. Murray and the precautions taken by the Rājā and the Resident in specifying the Rājā's intentions gave the lie to these reports. The British Government had to decide what was to be done with Sātārā. Their decision turned on three leading points: (1) Was Shahājī's adoption valid without recognition by the British Government?, (2) If it was not valid was the Bombay Government bound in justice or expediency to recognise it? and (3) What were the claims of Pratāpsinh's adopted son and the members of the house of Shahājī? The opinion was generally accepted that as regards private estates the adoption was valid without the recognition of Government. Whether the adoption was valid as regards the political powers conferred by the treaty of 1819 was a point on which opinions differed. All members of the Government both of Bombay and India held that the sanction of the paramount power was required to render an adoption to a principality valid. But Sir George Clerke, Governor of Bombay (1847-1848) held that in the case of Sātārā the right of sanction could not without injustice be exercised to the extent of forbidding adoption. The other members of the Bombay Government and all the members of the Government of India were of opinion that to confer or to withhold the sanction was at the option of the British Government as the paramount power, and that the only question was one of expediency. On financial, military, and political grounds it was decided that it was regarded as expedient to withhold the sanction of Government to the adoption[1]. It was thought that the country would benefit by the annexation of Sātārā, and that the condition of the Deccan no longer made it necessary to maintain native states like Sātārā as a safety valve for characters who would be discontended under direct British rule.

It was held that no other members of the family of Shivājī had any claim to the succession. The treaty of 1819 was with Pratāpsinh and his heirs and successors. All his ancestry were passed by, no right was confirmed to them. The other branches of the family could have no pretension to the territorial rights which were created in favour of Pratāpsinh. The arrangement of 1839 especially admitted Pratāpsinh's brother Shahājī to that settlement, and the adopted son of the last recognised possessor of the throne must have a better right than the adopted son of the deposed chief or of any other claimant. When the discussion was shifted to England certain advocates argued that political powers conferred

[1] Some light is thrown on the so-called grounds of expediency through a letter dated 24th December 1847 written by Sir John Hobhouse, the President of the Board of Control to Lord Dalhousie the Governor-General. Says the President "The death of the ex-Raja of Satara certainly comes at a very opportune moment. The reigning Raja is, I hear, in very bad health and it is not at all impossible we may soon have to decide upon the fate of his territory. I have a very strong opinion that on the death of the present prince without a son no adoption should be permitted, this pretty principality should be merged in the British Empire; and if the question is decided in my day I shall leave no stone unturned, to bring about that result.

CHAPTER 2.
—
History.
MARATHA RULE.
Shahaji, 1839-48.

on the Sātārā state differed from the tenure *of all those persons to whom the right of adoption to territorial possessions had been* refused, and that, as regards Sātārā, the title of Paramount Power as applied to the British Government was misplaced. That therefore if the adoption were legal according to the usages of the state it was valid independent of British sanction. It was further argued that if British sanction was required it was contrary to the treaty to refuse it; that even if the adoption was invalid for want of sanction or for any other cause, the collaterals had claims under the treaty, the terms of which did not necessarily restrict the succession to lineal heirs and that at any rate the claims of collaterals should not be barred without giving them a chance of stating them. The able management of the state by both Rājās, and the loyalty of the second Rājā, were urged as reasons for showing consideration to Shahājī's wishes. A well governed state, it was argued, was a source of strength to the British empire. Only five members of the Court of Directors dissented from the annexation of Sātārā.

British Rule.

BRITISH RULE.
1848-1947.

Satara Annexed, 1st May 1849.

EARLY IN MAY THE RESIDENT RECEIVED A LETTER DATED THE 1ST MAY 1849, stating that it had been resolved that from failure of heirs the Sātārā territory had lapsed to the power which had bestowed it. On the 6th of June following Mr. Frere reported to Government that the Notification of the annexation had been received loyally but despondently by the subjects and servants of the late Rājā. The senior Rāṇī protested strongly but showed no active opposition to the decision of Government.

Every thing went quietly till May 1850 when the decision of Government as to the provision to be made for the family of the late Rājā was communicated to the Rāṇīs. They rejected the terms offered, and stipulated for the continuance of the household of the late Rājā in their service, and intrigued in the hopes of gaining indirectly what they failed to procure by direct means. Finally they withdrew their demands and their affairs were settled in December 1851. Their lands and allowances and the private property left by Shahājī, valued at upwards of 15 lakhs were restored and distributed among them in proportions fixed by Government, and separate apartments in the palace were assigned to each of the Rāṇīs and to their adopted son Veṅkājī Rāje. Besides a large amount of jewels, furniture, and equipages, the Rāṇīs gave to Veṇkājī the whole of their hereditary lands and villages yielding a net yearly revenue of over Rs. 20,000 and added to it portions of their own allowances which raised his income to more than Rs. 60,000 a year. The parties interested were satisfied and all excitement was allayed. Every individual belonging to the household of the late Rājā, not retained in the service of their Highnesses the Rāṇīs or of Baḷvantrāv Bhonsle, the boy whom the late Rājā had taken under his protection, was pensioned, employed, or discharged

with a gratuity. Since the settlement of their affairs their Highnesses the Rāṇis abstained from giving further trouble to Government. The final arrangement made may be thus summarised. The late Rājā's private debts amounting to Rs. 2,35,450 and the expenses attending his visit at Kolhāpur amounting to a further sum of Rs. 58,750 were discharged by advances from the public treasury. A balance of Rs. 25,000 remaining in the hands of the architect of the new palace was assigned for the improvement of the aqueduct built by Shāhu Rājā of Sātārā, and a further balance of Rs. 35,860, chiefly saving out of the pay to his late Highness's cavalry, was also devoted after the manner of the late Government to public works. The yearly life allowance of Rs. 1,00,000 settled on the Rāṇī was divided among them in the following proportions, Rs. 45,000 to the senior Rāṇī, Rs. 30,000 to the second Rāṇī, and Rs. 25,000 to the third Rāṇī. The private movable and immovable property was unreservedly given up by Government to the Rāṇīs and they were allowed to keep a life possession of the old and new palaces, which with all other public buildings were declared to be the property of Government. Baḷvantrāv Bhonsle was allowed to keep property worth about Rs. 1,42,470 that had been given to him, and in deference to the wishes of His late Highness a further monthly allowance of Rs. 600 was settled on him. Pratāpsinh's widow and adopted son were each allowed monthly pensions of Rs. 1,200 and the widow was also granted a sum of Rs. 12,000 to meet the expenses of her journey from Banāres to Sātārā where the Governor-General had allowed her to live. She reached Sātārā in 1854 and lived in the same palace together with the widow and the adopted son of Shahājī. To Gojrāsāheb, Pratāpsinh's daughter and only child was assigned a monthly pension of Rs. 1,200 with a monthly remainder of Rs. 1,000 to her male heirs. On her leaving Banāres for Sātārā in October 1848, the Government of India granted Gojrāsaheb Rs. 20,000 to meet the expenses of her journey, as well as several months' arrears amounting Rs. 9,000 on account of herself and followers. On the death of the lady, on the 30th of August 1853, Government granted her family the sum Rs. 5,000 to meet the cost of her funeral rites.

Uprisings, 1857.

From 1849 Sātārā was directly under the British Government though the Regulations were not introduced till 1863. No signs of discontent appeared till the disordered state of the country during the 1857 uprising stirred some members of Pratāpsinh's family to seditious intrigue. No outbreak occurred at Sātārā during the uprising, but evidence was discovered of a widespread conspiracy only a week before the date fixed for the rising. A *Rāmoshī* named Nānā Rāghu Chavhāṇ, who about 1831 had received Rs. 10,000 from Government for the arrest of the great Rāmoshī bandit Umājī Nāik, told a dismissed agent of the Pant Sachiv that a conspircy was on foot in Sātārā. The Pānt Sachiv's agent told Mr. Rose, the District Magistrate on the 10th June 1857. Inquiry showed that armed Marāṭhās had gathered at Bāgarvāḍī a village near Bhor, the Prant Sachiv's capital, that they had started

CHAPTER 2.
History.
BRITISH RULE.
1848-1947.
Uprisings, 1857.

for Sātārā, and had arranged for Rāmoshī and others to follow them. As there was a large Rāmoshī population near Bāgarvāḍī, thirty of the Southern Marāṭhā Irregular Horse were sent under Lieutenant Kerr, accompanied by the First Assistant Commissioner Lieutenant Sandford, to intercept them. The party marched forty-five miles in sixteen hours over difficult rugged ground, but were seen by some of the Marāṭhās who returned from Sātārā and the greater number of the men escaped to the hills. Thirteen Marāṭhās were seized, but of the thirteen, only one was a man of consequence. All confessed that they had come together for the purpose of attacking the station at Sātārā. In consequence of this intelligence the magistrate asked for a detachment of European troops from Poona which arrived towards the end of the month. On the day after the intellignece was received from Bhor, a Rajput messenger on the establishment of the Sātārā Judge's court was arrested in the lines of the 22nd Regiment native Infantry at Sātārā, endeavouring to corrupt a *Subhedār* and through him all the Indian men of the regiment. The magistrate Mr. Rose was empowered to try him by special commission and he was executed on the 20th of June. On the scaffold he harangued the people present telling them that the English had less hold on the country than when they set foot in it, and urging them as the sons of Hindus and Musalmāns not to remain quiet. A short time before a gang robbery had taken place near Paraḷī behind the Sātārā fort. It was then reported that this gang formed a detachment from a considerable body of men who had gathered in the neighbouring forests but had dispersed on the return of the troops from Persia. It was now ascertained that Pratāpsinh's agent Raṅgo Bāpujī had been living for six weeks in Paraḷī, and that he had gathered this body of men to act with the band assembled in the Bhor country and with armed men hid in Sātārā The plot was mainly directed by Raṅgo Bāpuji. The intention was at the same time to attack Sātārā, Yavateshvar, and Mahābaḷeshvar, to massacre all Europeans, and to plunder the treasury and the town and to install Shāhu, the adopted son of Pratāpsinh, on the *Gādi*. Besides circulating news of the rising in Hindustan. Raṅgo Bāpujī set a foot absurd but widely believed stories: The Governor of Bombay had commissioned Raṅgo to restore Pratāpsinh's family and had ordered him to seize all Europeans who were to be released if they agreed to the arrangement and if they refused to agree were to be massacred. Meetings of conspirators had begun as far back as January 1857. Matters had failed to come to a head merely for want of concert, and the failure of one or other of the number to bring his contingent at the proper moment. At their last meeting the ringleaders had solemnly sworn over the sweetmeats which they ate together never again to fail. At the time the information was received every thing was ripe for an attack. In Sātārā the organisation was incomplete as at the last, conspirators were short of ammunition. In Bhor were large stores of powder, lead, and cannon balls, and in Sātārā 820 bullets were found ready cast in one house. According to the evidence at the trials, after the last meeting 2,000 men were ready for the attack and arrangements

Uprisings, 1857.

had been made for opening the jail and for letting out the 300 convicts. The Pant Sachiv was deeply involved in the plot[1] and the other feudatories were believed to be no less guilty, and members of Pratāpsinh's family who were living at the old palace were proved to be closely implicated. One night the horses of Shāhu, Pratāpsinh's adopted son and of Durgāsingh, the Senāpati's adopted son were saddled, that the young Rājās might head the attack. Antāji Rāje Shirke, known as Bāvāsāheb, the native head of the Sātārā police, who was then drawing Rs. 600 a month, was completely corrupted by the elder Rāṇī, and had engaged to keep the local police inactive. It also came out that during the previous year Bāvāsāheb had been intriguing to bring 40,000 Rohillās to Sātārā. The inquiry further showed that Shahāji's adopted son Veṅkājī Bhonsle had knowledge of the treasonable designs against the British Government. It was uncertain whether he was under the influence of Pratāpsinh's family or of the great estate-holders. The impression formed by Government was that he was trimming between the two parties, fearing that unless he fell in with their designs, if Pratāpsinh's party succeeded he would be in a worse position than he was under the British Government. Secret levies were being raised in all parts of the district from Bhor to the furthest part of Khānāpūr. Vāḷvā, on the line of communication with Kolhāpur, was the seat of much intrigue. Raṅgo Bāpujī used to boast that he could bring over a thousand men from Beḷgāṅv and that Kolhāpur would also rise. The event proved that as regards Kolhāpur his boast was well founded. Besides this, if the confessions of Pratāpsinh's adopted son are to be believed, encouraged by Hoḷkar and Raṅgo Bāpūjī, the Rāṇis had been plotting ever since their return from Benāres in 1854. The province, as it was then called, of Sātārā was ripe for sedition. With one exception the feudatories were without male issue, and in consequence of the non-recognition of Shahāji's adoption were afraid that at their deaths their estates would be lost to their families. Government had also decided that alienations made by the last two Rājās without the Resident's consent were to be resumed on the death of present holders. These sources of discontent had much less influence on the people than a feeling which, since their return to Sātārā in 1854, had sprung up in favour of Pratāpsinh's family. The first news of the mutinies in Upper India came to Sātārā in a private letter to an obscure Brāhmaṇ. The Brāhmaṇ took the letter to Pratāpsinh's chief Rāṇī and prayed for her favour when she came into power. The letter was read publicly in the native library. The receiver was warned to burn it and the matter was kept a close secret. One of the reasons for a rising on which Raṅgo Bāpūjī dwelt ever since his return from England was England's embroilment with Russia. This, he said, gave the best possible chance for gathering levies and raising the people against the British power in India. He said that

[1] A very suggestive letter of Chimnaji Raghunath Sachiv to Rango Bapuji has been published on page 397 of 'History of Freedom Movement in India.'

CHAPTER 2. — History. BRITISH RULE. 1848-1947. Uprisings, 1857

all the discontented people in the Deccan looked to Sātārā, the ancient seat of the Marāṭhā empire, as the place which should first free itself from the British yoke.

Several arrests were made in July including the son of Raṅgo Bāpūjī in Kolhāpur territory. Though a reward of Rs. 500 was offered for his apprehension Raṅgo Bāpūjī escaped and has never been heard of. The detachment of Europeans reached Sātārā at the end of June and for about a fortnight all remained quiet. On the 19th of July a desperate attack was made on the office and treasury of the Mamlatdar of Paṇḍharpur, then in Sātārā, with the further object of raising the eastern districts on the Nizām's border. The attempt was made with only a few men and the attack was successfully repelled by the local police with a loss of four killed including the Mamlatdar of Paṇḍharpur. Two of the six leaders were killed in the attack, the other four were captured and blown from guns at Sātārā with two of their followers. The rest were transported. On the 27th of August a special commission sat for the trial of seventeen persons concerned in the plot, including the son and another relation of Raṅgo Bāpūjī[1]. These persons were convicted and executed on the 8th of September. On the 6th of August, by order of Government, Shāhu, the adopted son and the two Rāṇīs of Pratāpsinh, the adopted son Bāḷāsāheb *Senāpati*, and a cousin of Shāhu were removed for confinement to Butcher's Island in Bombay harbour. This measure was urgently necessary in consequence of the uneasy state of the province owing to the rising at Kolhāpur on the 31st of July. Guns were taken to and pointed on the palace in the early morning and the family were removed in closed carriages. Heavy roads made the journey tedious, but it was successful. In the same month the disarming of the district was ordered and begun. All the cannon and wall-pieces in possession of the feudatory chiefs were taken, except two small pieces which they were allowed to keep for occasions of festivity and rejoicing. By the end of June 1858 over 32,000 small arms had been discovered, 130 guns and wall-pieces had been destroyed, and over Rs. 2,000 taken in fines for concealment of arms. No further disturbance occurred. But the insurrection at Kolhāpur in December 1857 necessitated the despatch of small parties of troops. Seventy-five were sent to Āshṭā then the head-quarters of the Vāḷvā sub-division and twenty-five to Shirāḷā, a strong mud fort to check any rising on the southern frontier. These troops were kept at these stations till August 1858 when they were sent to Tāsgāṅv to join 200 men of the 22nd Native Infantry lately sent there from Sātārā to overawe the Southern Marāṭhā chiefs and to check the rising which it was thought might follow the annexation of the Paṭvardhan chiefs' territories on his decease without male issue. No disturbance took place and the troops returned at the beginning of the fair season. The political prisoners Rājasbāi and Guṇvantabāi the widows, and Shāhu and Durgāsingh the adopted sons of Pratāpsinh

[1] Some papers of the trial have been published in 1957, in "History of Freedom Movement in India", a Bombay Government publication on pp. 179-193 under the caption "Satara Treason Case".

CHAPTER 2.

History.
BRITISH RULE.
1848-1947.
Uprisings, 1857

and Bālāsāheb were kept at Butcher's Island till March 1857. In December 1857 Mr. Rose went to Butcher's Island and induced the adopted sons and Kākā Sāheb a relation of Sāhu's to make confession of their part in the intrigues. In March 1858 they were removed to Karāchi in Sind and were kept in residences separate from the Rānis, who proved incurable intriguers.

Shāhu, the adopted son of Pratāpsinh, was allowed to return to Sātārā where he was joined by his wife Ānandībāi. Veṅkāji, Shahāji's adopted son, was removed first to Ahmadābād and then to Ahmadnagar in 1859 and 1860 respectively. Monthly allowances of Rs. 100 were granted to Shāhu, of Rs. 50 to Durgāsingh, and of Rs. 30 to Kākāsāheb; to the Raṇī Rājasbāi Rs. 100 and Guṇvantabāi Rs. 40. Certain old servants of Pratāpsinh were pensioned at a total monthly cost of Rs. 780 while others were discharged with gratuities amounting to Rs. 1,530. Yeshvant Malhār Chiṭṇis,, who induced the young Rājā and *Senāpati* to make their confessions, received Rs. 3,000 and certain palace servants who aided were given small gratuities. The *Subhedār* who resisted the rebels' overtures was invested with the third class order of merit, and Sadāshiv Khaṇḍerāv, the Bhor *Kārbhāri* who conveyed the first information was restored to his office, presented with a dress of honour worth Rs. 600, and given a village worth Rs. 500 a year. Veṅkāji died in 1864, and Shahāji's widow adopted another son Rājārām, who was popularly known as Ābāsāheb. Since 1859 except for one or two gang robberies Sātārā has enjoyed a period of comparative peace. In 1874 Shahāji's widow submitted an appeal to the British Government against the East India Company's high-handed behaviour in taking possession of many of the houses belonging to her family. The appeal was drafted by the famous pleader of Bombay V. N. Maṇḍlik with the help of G. S. Khāmbete of Sātārā. Her efforts however were not destined to bear any fruit. Within a few days after the submission of the appeal, the palace caught fire and a portion of it, known as *Raṅg Mahāl*, was burnt to ashes. This gave a great shock to the lady and she died on 24th March 1874. Ābāsāheb her adopted son was versatile both in oriental learning as also in military exercises and was fond of patronising wrestlers. He died on 8th April 1904 leaving behind two sons Shivāji *alias* Āppāsāheb and Pratāpsinh *alias* Bhāusāheb. During his life-time he was deprived of the hereditary title "Mahārāj." and he was only classed as a first class *sardār*. He died in 1914 and his younger brother Pratāpsinh succeeded to his estates. He died childless in 1925 and his widow adopted a son who was named Shāhu. He took to a military career in the course of the Second World War and was very fond of hunting, in which pursuit he died of an accident in 1950. He is succeeded by his eldest son Pratāpsinh.

Shāhu the adopted son belonging to the other branch who had been transferred to Karāchi was allowed to return to the Deccan in 1865. He stayed in Poona, became the follower of a Brāhmo sect and died in 1892. His inherited property recently lapsed to the Sātārā branch as per rules of succession.

CHAPTER 2.

History.

SATARA DURING THE BRITISH RULE AND AFTER

As THE NINETEENTH CENTURY ADVANCED, historical centre of gravity shifted from the doings of the royal house to the movements of those who had received the benefits of modern education. As in other parts of the country so in Sātārā the establishment of British rule, far from being looked upon as a curse, was welcomed by the people. Strict adherence to rules and regulations so characteristic of a bureaucratic yet constitutional Government as the British Government was, had influenced even the *Chhatrapatis* of Sātārā so much that we find Pratāpsinh and his successor Shāhu submitting petitions after petitions to the Court of Directors with a hope that their line might be restored. As has been said above, Rango Bāpūjī staked everything to plead the case of the *Chhatrapatis* in England but with no effect. The same policy of constitutional agitation was followed by the earlier generation of educated people to get their grievances redressed. There is a reference to the District Association submitting an application signed by hundreds of people concerned, on 18th December 1868, against a certain land legislation.[1] This was followed by another association established on 26th June 1870 at a meeting held in the public library at Sātārā[2]. Amongst the leaders of those days, one finds a reference to Gaṇesh Vasudev Joshi who later became famous in Pooṇā by the term "*Sārvajanik Kākā*", who took the lead in establishing an arbitration (*Lavād*) court at Sātārā in 1876[3]. Interesting as it might appear, two persons of Sātārā, G. G. Paṇḍit and V. M. Gokhale took the lead in 1882, to start a textile mill at Ahmadābād for the manufacture of *chintz*.[4] Enlightened public of Sātārā expressed its reaction to the deposition of Malhārrāv Gāikvāḍ of Baroḍā in 1875 and later they also came out with a petition that the editor of the "*Kesari*" and the "*Mahratta*" should be excused from punishment for their journalistic activities in 1882. In the same year Raghunāth Pāṇḍuraṅg Karandikar, the famous pleader and leader of Sātārā in a speech at a public meeting extended a hearty welcome to the local self-government reforms introduced by Lord Ripon. In 1885 was established the Indian National Congress and we find a reference to the people of Sātārā being actuated with a desire to establish its branches all over the district. It was felt that the grievances of the uneducated tax-payer, the peasant and the worker would thus be conveyed to the Indian National Congress which would present it to government officials in a crystallised and well defined form. Interesting as all these events are, considerations of space prevent us from referring to each one of these in greater details. A bare chronological presentation of important events bearing testimony to the public-spiritedness in the district will tell its own tale.

In 1892, the editor of "*Pratoda*" was sentenced to six months imprisonment for having criticised the then forest officer Mr. Fagane.[5]

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[1] "Bhausaheb Soman": by P. P. Gokhale, p. 9.

[2] Ibid., p. 9.

[3] Ibid., p. 10.

[4] *Jagrit Sātārā*, by P. P. Gokhale, p. 21.

[5] "Bhausaheb Soman" by P. P. Gokhale, p. 13.

In 1893 the people of Wāi resolved to present an address to Dādābhāi Naoroji and accordingly the local leaders went to Bombay on 16th of December for the purpose[2].

In 1895 Lokmānya Tiḷak was presented with an address at a public meeting held in Sātārā on 27th of August[3].

In 1897, R. V. Kuḷkarṇi who was working as a Kuḷkarṇi was warned by Government not to participate in any public activity. Rather than submit to the order he resigned his post[4].

In the same year Bhāushāstri Lele of Wāī, a great Sanskṛit Scholar of nationalistic bent of mind was sentenced to nine months of imprisonment for his criticism against Government through the columns of *Modavṛtta*.

In 1900, was held the Bombay provincial political conference at Sātārā on behalf of the 'Ratepayers Association' established in the previous year.

In 1903, R. C. Dutt, was presented with an address in reply to which he drew attention of the people to the greatness and glory of ancient Indian Culture[5].

The first phase of constitutional agitation in the form of submitting petitions to Government under the leadership of 'moderate' leaders having been chilled, due to the unresponsive attitude of the bureaucracy, people began to organise and agitate under the leadership of nationalists who were proverbially called the 'extremists'. The agitation took diverse forms such as organising Shivājī and Gaṇapati festivals, starting of national schools, independent of government control and inaugurating the *Svadeshi* movement by encouraging consumption of goods of local production. It also took the form of a field to field survey in rural areas, the object being, it must be said, more to rouse the people against foreign rule, rather than bringing about any systematic reconstruction or relief to the rayat. There was also a party of revolutionaries in Sātārā who were prosecuted in what is popularly called the 'Aundh Bomb Case' and the conspirators like Hiṅge and Dr. V. V. Aṭhalye were sentenced to a rigorous imprisonment of eight to ten years in 1910. The political atmosphere of the period can be best described in a statement made by the then Governor General Lord Minto. Says he :

"We have a party small in numbers but of considerable influence and inspired by convictions strongly and even fanatically held, who are opposed to the circumstance of British rule. The party may be divided into two classes. The first consists of those who desire autonomy but seek to obtain it by passive resistance and the continual sapping of the foundations of loyalty by means of

[2] "Bhausaheb Soman" by P. P. Gokhale, p. 13.
[3] Ibid, p. 14.
[4] Ibid, p. 15.
[5] *Jagrit Satara* : by P. P. Gokhale, p. 47.

CHAPTER 2.
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History.
SATARA DURING THE BRITISH RULE AND AFTER.

attacks in the press, on the platform and on more private occasions. They do not oridinarily resort to violence though many of them secretly sympathise with courage and assassination and all alike care to be unwilling to assist in the suppression of political crime".

The second comprise those who advocate and practice methods of terrorism, directed against servants, European and Indian, "against all persons assisting justice with information, evidence etc. Youths are bounded together in societies (in Bengāl, Bombay, C.P. etc.) with no central body to control[1]". The police sometimes showed their excessive enthusiasm, and tried to incriminate popular leaders, as it happened in Sātārā in 1909, in a case which was investigated and ultimately set aside with a confidential remark made in their report by the Sātārā C.I.D. that "a false bomb case was got up to injure pleader named Phaṇsāḷkar[2]". The political atmosphere that prevailed in Sātārā was more or less influenced by the activities of the extremists, the moderates and to a certain extent the revolutionaries also, on the lines described above, with this peculiarity that the moderates and the extremists in Sātārā, with all their honest political differences often used to come together with a spirit of compromise on a common platform for social and other purposes. This is indicated by the holding of the provincial political conference in Sātārā in 1914 in which leaders of different shades of political opinion had participated.

Political development in Sātārā in post 1914 period followed closely along the lines developing elsewhere. With the rise of Mahātmā Gāndhi in 1920, Sātārā cheerfully responded to his leadership and it is pertinent to note that erstwhile revolutionaries like Dr. Aṭhalye became strong adherents of the Gāndhi School of thought and participated in the famous Civil Disobedience Movement known as '*Shiroḍā Satyāgriha*" where the people asserted right of collecting salt from the backwaters of the sea. A new leader of political thought, the late Mr. Shankarrāo Jāvḍekar, emerged at this time and revealed to the people the true significance of the Gāndhian movement. He hailed from Islāmpur and it may said without exaggeration that Mahārāshṭra hardly produced in that age a man with a similar depth of political understanding.

Turning to the aspect of social awakening during this period the pride of place must be given to the Late Rāv Bahādur, R. R. Kāḷe, who was on the vanguard of such movements as the uplift of women and the abolition of caste system. He was a staunch supporter of the New English School started by the Deccan Education Society in 1899. It continued to make steady progress until at last in point of efficiency it soon rivalled and outshone the Government High School at Sātārā. It is on record that it was constantly hampered in its onward march by the systematic subdued opposition coming from Government officials of the Education department[3]'. Later,

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[1] 'Bhausaheb Smaran' by: P. P. Gokhale, pp. 31-32.

[2] *Ibid* p. 34.

[3] Fergusson College Magazine, July 1919, pp. 17-29.

Kale gave a substantial donation of more than a lakh of rupees and laid the foundation of the Gokhale School of Economics and Politics in the premises of the Servants of India Society's Home at Poona. He also donated a big house of his own to the Girls' High School at Sātārā which has been named after his wife Satyabhāmābāi and is now managed by Maharshi Karve's Hinge Mahilāshram.

Sātārā has ever given the lead in making pioneering efforts to start a variety of industries. As early as in 1899, ink manufacture was attempted at Viṭe in Sātārā district and Menthol and Soap production was started at Sātārā in 1905[1]. Karāḍ was known in the second decade of the 20th Century for having taken the lead in starting a match factory; besides these earlier efforts of an experimental character, which are only indicative of the sincerity and enthusiasm of their pioneers, the pride of place undoubtedly must go to the Western India Life Insurance Company started at Sātārā in 1913 by the late Āṇṇāsāheb Chirmule. The company ever continued to make sound progress during the next half a century, until it was recently acquired by Government and amalgamated in the Life Insurance Corporation during the post-Independence period. Besides this, the Kirloskar Iron & Steel Manufacturing Company started in 1910 has been the most important pioneering industrial concern in southern Mahārāshṭra. Its managers first began starting a small house-organ known as '*Kirloskar Khabar*' which later developed into the most popular and most widely read magazine in Mahārāshṭra known as simply 'Kirloskar' and was coupled with two other magazines known as *Stree* and *Manohar*. Ogale Brothers having acquired their early training at Taḷegāṅv Glass Works, started their own Glass Factory at Ogalevāḍī near Karāḍ in 1916. They were soon able to manufacture hurricane lanterns which could successfully compete with similar foreign productions. Another industrial concern started in 1922 near Sātārā Railway Station is known as Cooper Engineering Ltd. It began by manufacturing iron ploughs in its initial stages and is now manufacturing diesel engines, which have a wide demand all over the country.

Vitality of Sātārā could be estimated from some of the educational institutions which have a peculiarity of their own. The most important of them is the *Rayat Shikshaṇ Sanisthā* started in 1919 by the late Bhāurāv Pāṭil, who, it may be said without exaggeration, brought about a revolution in the field of education which is only to be equalled by a similar one brought about fifty years ago by Vishṇushāstri Chipḷuṇkar by starting the New English School at Poona. The genesis of the 'Pāṭil movement' lies in taking education to the masses by making it simpler and cheaper and breaking the conventional bonds of caste and creed. Bhāurāv's was a truly liberal spirit translating the philosophy of Āgarkar and giving it a concrete form in the shape of educational institutions. Never since Chhatrapati Shāhu of Kolhāpur had initiated an equalitarian movement towards social and educational reform could there be found

[1] '*Jagrit Satara*' by: P. P. Gokhale, p. 50.

CHAPTER 2.
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History.
SATARA DURING THE BRITISH RULE AND AFTER.

anything that could match the activities of Bhāurāv. He was education of the masses in carnate. The *Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṁsthā* has now a net work of a number of boarding houses, high schools and colleges in a number of places in Sātārā district. Another peculiar institution started in 1920, at Wāi is 'The Prajnya Pāṭha Shāḷā' by Nārāyaṇshāstri Marāṭhe also known as Kevalānand. The institution concentrated upon the study of Sanskṛit and Oriental Philosophy and aimed at systematising, if not codifying the labyrinth of conflicting religious commandments in the Hindu *Dharma Shāstrās*. Tarktirth Laxmaṇshāstri Joshi is its guiding spirit at present. The institution has come out with a number of scholarly works, on matters religious. A similar spirit of oriental revival was also to be noticed at Sātārā where an Ayurvedic College known as *Aryaṅgla Mahāvidyālaya* was started, thanks to the efforts of Dr. Āgāshe. The revivalist made their contribution in the field of historical research as is indicated by the efforts of the late Shri D. B. Parasnis who made a rich collection of rare historic documents and pictures and conducted a journal known as *Itihās Saṅgriha* for a number of years. The spirit of general awakening was carried among the masses, thanks to the efforts of the followers of *Satyshodhak Samāj* which sometimes allowed its enthusiasm to outrun its discretion and developed a communal turn. With all its industries Sātārā is largely an agricultural district where the peasantry often showed litigious tendency which not many a time took a criminal form. In recent times the 'Quit India' movement of 1942 found a leader for it in Sātārā district in Nānā Pātil whose simple straight and rustic flow of language and arguments often created great enthusiasm among the masses.

There were two important States, Aundh and Phalṭaṇ included in Sātārā district. They have been recently amalgamated in the course of the merger movement and have now become corporate parts of Sātārā. The former ruler of Aundh, Bāḷāsāheb Pratinidhi was a cultured ruler who was wise enough to read the signs of time and liberally shared the political responsibility with popular leaders. He was instrumental in encouraging the Kirloskars in the initial stages of their development. Shri Mālojirāv Nimbāḷkar of Phalṭaṇ outdid himself by voluntary resignation and joined the Congress movement as an ordinary citizen. He rose to the rank of becoming a Minister of State and has shown by his example as to how one could cheerfully respond to the changing times.

Standing on the threshold of the mid-twentieth century, one can look back with pride on the achievements of Sātārā in all fields, political, religious, educational and industrial. An average Sātārā middle class man wears a simple dress which conceals, in him, the fire of the coming age. He can be depended upon to be a worthy citizen of democratic India. The average farmer is looking upon agricultural litigation as a thing of the past and is responding to the co-operative movement through which he hopes to be emotionally integrated with the successive five year plans that plan to raise his standard of life.

CHAPTER 3—PEOPLE

DETAILS OF 1951 CENSUS.

ACCORDING TO THE 1951 CENSUS THE POPULATION OF THE SATARA DISTRICT (including the newly merged areas) is 11,75,309 or 292·17 to the square mile (*m.* 5,72,967; *f.* 6,02,342). Of these Hindus number 11,30,592 (*m.* 5,50,069; *f.* 5,80,523) or 96·2 per cent; Sikhs 128 (*m.* 75; *f.* 53); Jains 5,301 (*m.* 2,822; *f.* 2,479) or 0·4 per cent.; Buddhists 1 (*m.* 1); Zoroastrians 489 (*m.* 216; *f.* 273); Muslims 37,084 (*m.* 18,952; *f.* 18,132) or 3·2 per cent; Christians 1,689 (*m.* 818; *f.* 871) *or* 0·14 per cent.; Jews 20 (*m.* 9; *f.* 11) and the rest 638 or 0·06 per cent. The census has also enumerated separately 1,32,648 (*m.* 64,614; *f.* 68,034) belonging to "Scheduled Castes", 2,536 (*m.* 1,345; *f.* 1,191) belonging to "Scheduled tribes", 600 (*m.* 304; *f.* 296) as "Displaced Persons from Pakistan" and 5 (*m.* 5) as "Non-Indian" nationals. The percentage of males in the total population is 48·8 and of females 51·2. The corresponding returns for 1881 were a total of 10,62,350 or 212·98 to the square mile, of whom Hindus numbered 10,24,897 or 96·44 per cent.; Muslims 36,712 or 3·45 per cent.; Christians 886 or 0·08 per cent.; Parsis 99; Sikhs 29; and others 27. The proportion of males in the total population was 50·12 and of females 49·87. Compared with the 1881 returns the 1951 returns show an increase of 1,12,959 or 10·6 per cent.

The tract-wise distribution of the population over the district is as follows :—

Rural tracts.—Sātārā and Karāḍ—2,90,21 (*m.* 1,41,662; *f.* 1,49,059; Pāṭaṇ and Jāvḷī—2,17,777 (*m.* 1,03,123; *f.* 1,14,654); Koregaon, Khaṭāv, Māṇ, Phalṭaṇ, Wāī, Khaṇḍālā and Mahābaḷeshvar—5,06,472 (*m.* 2,46,575; *f.* 2,59,897). Total—10,14,870 (*m.* 4,97,860, *f.* 5,23,010).

Urban tracts.—Sātārā and Karāḍ—79,721 (*m.* 40,904; *f.* 38,817); Koregaon, Khaṭāv, Mān, Phaltan, Wāi and Mahābaleshvar—80,618 (*m.* 40,703; *f.* 39,915). Total—1,60,339 (*m.* 81,607; *f.* 78,732).

LIVELIHOOD PATTERN.

According to occupation, the 1951 census returns divide the population into eight classes.

Agricultural Classes.—(1) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents—7,96,371 (*m.* 3,84,504; *f.* 4,11,867), (2) Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their

CHAPTER 3. — The People. LIVELIHOOD PATTERN.

dependents – 22,646 (*m.* 11,490; *f.* 11,156), (3) Cultivating labourers and their dependents – 46,456 (*m.* 22,400; *f.* 24,056), (4) Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents – 41,692 (*m.* 17,766; *f.* 23,926). Total of all classes – 9,07,165 (*m.* 4,36,160; *f.* 4,71,005).

Non-agricultural Classes.—Persons (including dependents) who derive their principal means of livelihood from (5) Production other than cultivation – 1,04,422 (*m.* 53,305; *f.* 51,117), (6) Commerce 42,950 (*m.* 21,965; *f.* 20,985), (7) Transport – 7,277 (*m.* 3,644; *f.* 3,633), (8) Other services and miscellaneous sources – 1,13,522 (*m.* 57,893; *f.* 55,629). Total of all classes – 2,68,171 (*m.* 1,36,807; *f.* 1,31,364).

The 1881 census divided the population into six livelihood classes :—

(i) In Government Service; Learned Professions; Literature and Arts, 18,469 or 1·74 per cent. of the population.

(ii) In Home Service 6,435 or 0·6 per cent.

(iii) In Trade and Commerce 4,349 or 0·4 per cent.

(iv) In Agriculture 3,74,950 or 35·29 per cent.

(v) In Crafts and Industries 55,009 or 6·11 per cent.

(vi) In Indefinite and Unproductive occupations including children 5,93,138 or 55·83 per cent.

URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION.

Like most districts of the State, Sātārā is predominantly a rural district. Of the 1,167 inhabited places in the district 1,152 are villages (excluding uninhabited villages and villages which form part of Municipal areas) and 15 towns including the city of Sātārā. The distribution of the total district population in the urban and rural areas is 1,60,339 and 10,14,970 respectively. The corresponding figures for 1881 were 1,331 villages with 9,46,712 inhabitants and 12 towns with 1,15,638 inhabitants. There are only two towns *viz.*, Karāḍ and Sātārā with a population of over 25,000 (Karāḍ 27,223 and Sātārā 38,521). The rest of the towns arranged in the order of their population are as under: Wāi (16,099), Phalṭaṇ (12,142), Mhaswaḍ (9,145), Rahimatpūr (8,055), Koregaon (7,230), Kāle (7,116), Vaḍuj (6,838), Sātārā Road (Pāḍaḷi) (6,447), Masur (5,814), Kaledhoṇ (5,152), Mahābaḷeshvar (4,942), Pāñchagaṇī, 4,538 and Sātārā suburb (2,549). Of the 1,152 villages 493 had less than 500 people; 298 between 500 and 1,000; 254 between 1,000 and 2,000; 104 between 2,000 and 5,000; and 3 between 5,000 and 10,000.

The corresponding figures for the 1881 census returns were 12 towns (including four with a population of more than 10,000), inhabiting more than 5,000 people and 1,331 villages of which 110 had less than 100 people; 179 between 100 and 200; 410 between 200 and 500; 331 between 500 and 1,000; 224 between 1,000 and 2,000; 49 between 2,000 and 3,000 and 28 between 3,000 and 5,000. These villages are typically representative of the general pattern of

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION.

the district atmosphere. Most of them were formerly walled but today only the remnants of these fortifications are seen. The hutments, all built in bricks and mud and having thatched roofs are scattered over the village site. A masonry structure with Mangalore tiles is rare. The streets are all *katchā* murum, littered with every possible rubbish presenting a not too healthy sight to the eye. Kuṇbīs or husbandmen and Marāṭhās form the bulk of the population. Dhangars (shepherds) and other herdsmen live with their herds in the surrounding hills. On the outskirts of the villages are the quarters of Harijans such as Mahārs, Māṅgs, Chāmbhārs and Ḍhors.

Except for the tendency on the part of well-built, able-bodied males who go to Bombay in search of work chiefly in the docks or railways as porters and others who join the army, no drift towards industrial cities as such is noticeable among the Kuṇbīs and Marāṭhās or Mahārs in this district. They have generally chosen to stick to their ancestral agricultural occupations. Very few displaced persons from Pakistan have chosen this district as their habitation. Some agriculturists who were displaced on account of the Koynā project were generally provided with alternate lands in the neighbouring district of Kolābā, where they are settling down. Only English educated people leave the district for distant places in the State or the Indian Union in pursuit of jobs.

The following tabular statements give the population statistics regarding :—

1. Area, Houses and Population from 1901 to 1951 ;

2. Civil condition in different age groups during 1911, 1831 and 1951 ;

3. Comparative picture of the composition of different languages spoken during 1911, 1931 and 1951 ;

4. Classification of population according to various religions from 1901 to 1951 ;

5. Division of population according to taluka from 1901-1951 ;

6. Figures of Houses and Inmates in urban area in 1951 ;

7. Houses and Inmates in rural area in 1951 ;

8. Area, Houses and Population in 1951.

CHAPTER 3.
The People.
POPULATION.

TABLE No. I.

AREA, HOUSES AND POPULATION FROM 1901-1951.

DISTRICT SATARA.

Census years.	Area in square miles.	Towns.	Villages.	Occupied Houses.		Population.			
				Urban.	Rural.	Urban.		Rural.	
						Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1901	4,825	8	1,335	17,467	1,97,795	49,673	49,087	5,19,410	5,28,389
1911	4,818	11	1,335	16,826	2,20,234	41,460	39,986	4,97,601	5,02,222
1921	4,910	11	1,331	19,581	2,22,920	47,844	45,629	4,63,636	4,69,150
1931	5,063	11	1,330	22,518	2,35,704	58,537	53,770	5,33,766	5,33,639
1941	4,891	11	1,333	31,514	2,81,179	66,692	64,525	5,90,950	6,05,082
1951	4,022·6	15	1,152	23,800	1,79,377	81,607	78,732	4,91,360	5,23,610

TABLE No. II.

Civil condition by Age Periods (all Communities)

District Satara.

1911

Age Periods.	Total Population.		Married.		Unmarried.		Widowed.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0—5 ..	74,880	77,454	2,652	4,131	72,203	73,258	25	65
5—10 ..	72,546	67,929	3,768	17,136	68,695	50,213	83	580
10—15 ..	67,258	52,867	7,370	37,031	59,126	13,484	262	2,352
15—20 ..	41,116	30,183	13,351	33,619	27,329	1,952	436	3,612
20—40 ..	1,56,859	1,73,514	1,23,599	1,28,572	25,298	5,745	7,962	39,197
40—60 ..	96,535	97,022	75,526	38,861	4,263	1,743	16,746	56,418
60 and over ..	29,876	34,239	17,558	3,610	982	258	11,336	30,371
Total ..	5,39,070	5,42,208	2,44,324	2,62,960	2,57,896	1,46,653	36,850	1,32,595

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
POPULATION.

TABLE No. II—*contd.*

1931*

Age Periods.	Total Population.		Married.		Unmarried.		Widowed.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0— 1 ..	696	719	4	23	692	696	....	....
1— 5 ..	2,690	2,709	21	137	2,669	2,571	....	1
5—10 ..	3,037	2,859	67	461	2,969	2,388	1	10
10—15 ..	2,672	2,474	127	855	2,540	1,595	5	24
15—20 ..	1,874	1,820	596	1,542	1,259	229	19	49
20—30 ..	3,629	3,627	2,458	3,134	1,070	198	101	295
30—40 ..	2,985	2,682	2,587	1,913	195	142	203	627
40—50 ..	2,047	1,825	1,716	854	72	53	259	918
50—60 ..	1,338	1,130	1,011	284	31	26	296	820
60 and over	1,010	1,043	645	190	17	12	348	841
Total ..	21,978	20,888	9,232	9,393	11,514	7,910	1,232	3,585

*Based on data collected from the 10 per cent. sample slips of the general population.

TABLE No. 11—*concld.*

1951*

Age Periods.	Total Population.		Unmarried.		Married.		Widowed and Divorced.	
	Males	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5—14 ..	17,008	14,199	16,823	12,220	182	1,927	3	52
15—24 ..	8,302	10,383	5,781	910	2,500	9,041	21	432
25—34 ..	6,562	10,329	1,902	64	4,533	9,180	127	1,085
35—44 ..	5,607	7,076	290	35	5,071	5,442	246	1,599
45—54 ..	4,654	4,704	420	14	3,749	2,337	485	2,353
55—64 ..	3,177	3,206	392	10	2,223	804	562	2,392
65—74 ..	1,287	1,496	23	4	750	211	514	1,281
75 and over..	594	571	8	....	330	34	256	537
Age not stated	5	5	4	2	....	3	1	....
Total .	47,196	51,969	25,643	13,259	19,338	28,979	2,215	9,731

*Based on data collected from the 10 per cent. sample slips of the general population.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
LANGUAGE.

TABLE No. III.

LANGUAGE (MOTHER-TONGUE)

DISTRICT SATARA.

Serial No.	Languages.	1911. Males.	1911. Females.	1931. Males.	1931. Females.	1951. Males.	1951. Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Marathi	5,11,639	5,16,435	5,56,664	5,54,444	5,47,470	5,78,257
2	Gujarati	1,909	1,697	2,212	1,831	2,549	2,526
3	Hindi	15,708	15,045	21,108	19,834	21,098	1,863
4	Rajasthani	545	406	1,014	761	719	439
5	Urdu	....	....	....	....	12,899	14,173
6	Kannada	6,080	....	6,944	6,708	1,997	962
7	Tamil	....	....	....	....	23	28
8	Telugu	....	....	....	....	4,676	3,618
9	Malyalam	....	....	8	....	....	....
10	Punjabi	123	1	5	4	40	20

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
POPULATION.

11	Sindhi	..	41	50	4	....	152	124
12	Konkani	..	...	...	130	56	133	99
13	Kachchhi	..	....	....	150	37	30	....
14	Tulu	..	...	....	3,291	3,038	24	...
15	Naipali	..	...	....	....	....	28	3
16	Bengali	..	....	....	....	....	18	22
17	Gipsy	..	211	216	....	....	....	....
18	Other Indian Languages	..	2,474	2,428	31	44	....	....
19	Arabic	..	....	....	84	....	4	11
20	Persian	..	10	3	20	....	23	33
21	Pashto	..	35	5	55	1	6	1
22	Burmese	..	....	....	....	....	....	1
23	Other Asian Languages	..	2	....	8	12	....	....
24	English	..	264	272	44	51	55	144
25	Portuguese	..	20	11	....	....	11	4
26	German	..	....	....	....	....	1	6
27	Russian	..	....	....	....	....	....	2
28	Italian	..	....	....	...	....	....	....
29	Dutch	..	....	....	....	....	....	1
30	Other European Languages	..	1	2	9	161	....	....

TABLE No. IV.

POPULATION BY RELIGION
DISTRICT SATARA.
1901—1951.

Religion.	1901.		1911.		1921.		1931.		1941.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Hindus ..	5,38,016	5,47,382	5,11,674	5,16,502	4,83,403	4,88,459	5,59,579	5,56,943	6,19,191	6,32,848	5,50,069	5,80,523
Sikhs ..	3	14	6	..	..	..	12	4	26	1	75	53
Jains ..	9,616	8,867	7,845	7,038	8,104	7,197	9,082	8,140	9,586	8,687	2,822	2,479
Buddhists ..	4	2	..	..	1	..	2	..	..	..	1	..
Zoroastrians ..	118	112	122	87	261	237	269	230	..	..	216	273
Muslims ..	20,464	20,424	18,729	17,959	18,337	17,652	21,978	20,787	25,168	24,422	18,952	18,132
Christians ..	849	655	684	611	1,344	1,208	1,370	1,297	2,678	2,477	818	871
Jews ..	13	20	9	11	..	..	11	8	..	..	9	11
Animistics ..	..	..	1	1	30	26	..	..	..	..	..	..
Others ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	484	667	5	..
Tribes ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	509	505	..	..
Total ..	5,69,083	5,77,476	5,39,070	5,42,209	5,11,480	5,14,779	5,92,303	5,87,409	6,57,642	6,69,607	5,72,967	6,02,342

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

POPULATION.

TABLE No. V.

POPULATION BY TALUKA

DISTRICT SATARA.

1901–1951.

Taluka.	1901.		1911.		1921.		1931.		1941.		1951.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1 Javli ..	25,566	27,286	26,388	28,814	24,602	27,412	27,396	30,306	29,910	34,014	32,660	38,426
2 Malcolmpeth	6,496	6,239	5,993	5,763	8,211	7,619	8,650	7,840	9,600	9,114	103,981	103,932
3 Karad ..	67,561	67,386	67,157	65,374	66,067	64,639	73,925	70,067	83,394	82,608	23,279	13,816
4 Khatav ..	47,656	48,760	44,336	44,885	39,255	40,169	46,595	45,953	51,373	52,204	56,286	59,403
5 Koregaon.	40,259	43,116	38,111	40,045	25,081	36,298	46,488	47,367	44,596	47,180	10,070	10,378
6 Man ..	32.162	32,527	31,780	32,721	27,725	28,193	34,289	34,477	38,464	39,025	41,387	42,091
7 Patan ..	51,606	52,561	57,727	57,874	56,740	57,129	60,092	61,230	64,129	67,758	70,463	76,228
8 Satara ..	62,695	65,696	56,374	58,263	55,119	56,779	61,926	62,609	69,503	73,300	50,095	49,686
9 Wai ..	34,435	37,210	29,584	32,255	28,415	31,299	41,258	43,875	51,083	55,390	41,709	46,530
10 Khandala.	10,923	11,809	12,329	13,289	10,775	11,603	..	..	..	..	..	..
*11 Tasgaon ..	46,661	45,751	41,563	39,842	40,156	38,670	49,833	47,530	56,310	54,299	78,585	83,944
*12 Khanapur.	43,217	42,832	42,597	41,324	37,121	37,053	45,353	44,208	49,795	50,202	64,452	66,908
*13 Walva ..	72,852	70,918	58,063	53,867	55,621	52,406	67,356	63,338	76,079	71,458	..	..
*14 Shirala ..	26,794	26,125	28,268	27,892	26,592	26,510	29,142	28,609	33,406	33,055	..	..
Total ..	5,69,083	5,78,216	5,40,270	5,42,208	5,01,480	5,15,779	5,92,303	5,87,469	6,57,642	6,69,607	5,72,967	5,91,342

* The last four talukas now form part of the Sangli District.

TABLE No. VI.

URBAN AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES, 1951.

DISTRICT SATARA.

Serial No.	Name of the Taluka.	Name of the Town.	Area of town in Sq. miles.	Number of houses.	Number of house-holds.	Total number of Enumerated Persons.			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.		Number of houses per Sq. mile.	Number of house-holds per Sq. mile.
						Persons.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Karad ..	Kale ..	11·8	880	1,355	7,116	3,614	3,502	81	72	74·57	114·83
2	Do. ..	Karad M. ..	8·8	2,024	4,810	25,721	13,342	12,379	313	244	230·00	546·59
3	Do. ..	Masur ..	9·8	916	1,176	5,814	2,949	2,865	25	18	93·46	120·00
4	Khatav ..	Kaledhon ..	22·5	990	990	5,152	2,552	2,600	..	..	44·00	44·00
5	Do. ..	Vaduj ..	23·0	1,310	1,310	6,838	3,423	3,415	..	..	56·95	56·95
6	Koregaon ..	Koregaon ..	9·0	1,240	1,399	7,230	3,701	3,529	68	60	137·77	155·44
7	Do. ..	Rahimatpur M·	2·3	1,355	1,464	8,055	4,007	4,048	200	172	589·13	636·52

8	Do.	.. Satara Rd. ..	7·6	1,244	1,327	6,447	3,400	3,047	13	9	163·68	1[illegible]4·60
9	Mahabaleshvar	Mahabaleshvar M.	11·3	621	1,020	4,972	2,553	2,419	..	..	54·95	90·26
10	Do.	.. Panchagani M.	1·3	449	812	4,538	2,279	2,259	372	268	345·38	62·46
11	Man	.. Mhasavd M.	34·6	1,693	1,851	9,145	4,534	4,611	..	..	48·93	53·49
12	Phaltan	.. Phaltan M. .	30·3	2,092	2,447	12,142	6,297	5,845	21	16	60·04	8·75
13	Satara	.. Satara City M.	1·3	5,641	8,185	38,521	19,631	18,890	301	68	4,339·23	6,296·15
14	Do.	.. Satara Suburban M.	4·3	764	820	2,489	1,308	1,181	134	33	177·67	190·69
15	Wai	.. Wai M. ..	1·3	2,577	3,044	16,099	7,957	8,142	341	217	1,982·30	2,341·53
		Total for Towns ..	179.2	23,796	32,010	1,60,279	81,547	78,732	1,869	1,177	126·03	169·54

TABLE No. VII.

Rural Area, Houses and Inmates, 1951.

District Satara.

Serial No.	Name of Taluka.		Number of Villages.	Area in Sq. miles	Number of houses	Number of households	Total number of Enumerated Persons.			Number of inmates of institutions and houseless persons.		Number of houses per sq. miles.	Number of house-holds per sq. mile.
							Persons	Males	Females	Males	Females		
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Javli	..	196	344·7	12,738	15,114	71,086	32,660	36,426	693	744	36·95	43·84
2	Karad	..	114	375·4	28,904	32,025	1,69,262	84,076	85,186	1,807	1,525	76·99	85·30
3	Khandala	..	45	203·3	9,114	10,032	48,095	23,279	24,816	59	53	44·83	49·34
4	Khatav	..	86	463·6	20,397	22,295	1,19,370	58,477	60,893	314	244	43·99	48·09
5	Koregaon	..	76	335·7	14,744	17,917	93,957	45,178	48,779	347	356	43·92	53·37
6	Mahabaleshvar		55	74·7	2,133	2,358	10,938	5,238	5,700	24	14	28·55	31·56
7	Man	..	71	521·5	13,598	14,837	74,333	36,853	37,480	195	138	26·07	28·45
8	Patan	..	203	513·5	28,325	30,563	1,46,691	70,463	76,228	482	443	55·16	59·51
9	Phaltan	..	79	425·5	15,352	17,450	87,639	43,798	43,841	239	236	36·07	38·66
10	Satara	..	153	348·1	21,440	24,595	1,21,459	57,586	63,873	1,627	1,421	61·59	70·65
11	Wai	..	89	227·8	12,632	14,556	72,140	33,752	38,388	455	408	55·45	63·89
	Total	..	1,167	3,833·8	1,79,377	2,01,742	10,14,970	4,91,360	5,23,610	6,242	5,582	46·79	52·62

TABLE VIII.

Area, Houses and Population, 1951.

District Satara.

Serial No.	Taluka or Peta	Area in square miles	Towns	Villages	Occupied Houses		Population			
							Urban		Rural	
					Urban	Rural	Males	Females	Males	Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Javli ..	344·7	..	196	....	12,738	....	....	32,660	38,426
2	Karad ..	405·8	3	111	3,820	28,904	19,905	18,746	84,076	85,186
3	Khandala ..	203·3	..	45	....	9,114	....	....	23,279	24,816
4	Khatav ..	509·1	2	84	2,300	20,397	5,975	6,015	58,477	60,893
5	Koregaon ..	364·6	3	73	3,839	14,744	11,108	10,624	45,178	48,779
6	Mahabaleshvar ..	87·3	2	53	1,070	2,133	4,832	4,678	5,238	5,700
7	Man ..	556·0	1	70	1,693	13,598	4,534	4,611	36,853	37,480
8	Patan ..	513·5	..	203	....	28,325	....	....	70,463	76,228
9	Phaltan .	455·8	1	78	2,092	15,352	61,297	5,845	43,798	43,841
10	Satara ..	353·4	2	151	6,409	21,440	20,999	20,071	57,586	63,873
11	Wai ..	229·1	1	88	2,577	12,632	7,957	8,142	33,752	38,388
	Total ..	4022·6	15	1,152	23,800	1,79,377	1,36,607	78,732	4,91,360	5,23,610

TABLE No. IX.

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION (TALUKAWISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1951.

DISTRICT SATARA.

Serial No.	Taluka	Rural Population		Urban Population		Total Population	Percentage of Rural Population to Total Population	Percentage of Urban Population to Total Population.
		Males	Females	Males	Females			
1.	Javli ..	32,660	38,426	....	....	71,086	100·00	....
2.	Karad ..	84,076	85,186	19,905	18,746	2,07,913	81·41	18·59
3.	Khandala ..	23,279	24,816	....	....	48,095	100·00	....
4.	Khatav ..	58,477	60,893	5,975	6,015	1,31,360	90·87	9·13
5.	Koregaon ..	45,178	48,779	11,108	10,624	1,15,689	81·22	18·78
6.	Mahabaleshvar ..	5,238	5,700	4,832	4,678	20,448	53·49	46·51
7.	Man ..	36,853	37,480	4,534	4,611	83,478	89·05	10·95
8.	Patan ..	70,463	76,228	....	....	1,46,691	100·00	....
9.	Phaltan ..	43,798	43,841	6,297	5,845	99,781	87·83	12·17
10.	Satara ..	57,586	63,873	20,999	20,071	1,62,529	74·73	25·27
11.	Wai ..	33,752	38,388	7,957	8,142	88,239	81·76	18·24
	Total ..	4,91,360	5,23,610	81,607	78,732	11,75,309	86·36	13·64

In the following pages are described some of the customs and distinguishing cultural traits of the community groups — Hindus and Muslims in the district, Hindus being further sub-divided into Vedic and non-Vedic and Jains. A separate section is devoted to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

LANGUAGE.

The principal and almost only language spoken in the district is Marathi. The Muslim population of the district speaks a mixed Urdu-Marathi and the very small number of Zoroastrians maintain Gujarati as a domestic tongue. Urdu is learnt in Primary Schools by the Muslim children. The Marāṭhī spoken by the peasantry and artisan classes in various talukas differs from place to place in accent and intonation so as to be pretty indistinguishable from what may be called literary Marāṭhī, but this phenomenon is not peculiar to this district. It is met with all over the world and in the case of all standardised languages.

The Devanāgari script in which the mother of most Indian languages, Sanskrit, is written is the script followed for all Marāṭhī writing and printing. The *modī* script was in vogue till recently and it has to be learnt specially if old documents and historical papers are to be deciphered. This script has practically fallen into disuse in Government offices as well as in private firms and households.

English is taught in High Schools and Colleges as a compulsory language and so among the educated people from all castes and communities English is fairly well understood and occasionally spoken. Familiarity with it is kept up chiefly by Government employees, medical practitioners, legal practitioners, industrial and commercial organisations, and generally by the professional classes. The English daily newspapers from Bombay read in the urban centres of the district help these people to keep up fair acquaintance with the English language.

RELIGION AND CASTE (HINDUS).

The Census tables previously given show that the Hindus professing Vedic and non-Vedic beliefs predominate in the district in point of numbers. The only other important minority groups are Muslims and Jains. The census does not enumerate Hindus caste-wise of late. But caste has not ceased to exist, though its rigour has certainly decreased. Sub-castes are showing a clear tendency to merge in a single caste and this may eventually lead to abolition of caste altogether. It is only inter-caste marriages on a considerable scale that can lead to the end of the caste-system but such marriages are by no means numerous at present. Castes have generally conformed to occupational divisions. It is the craft or the occupation followed by families for generations that have given those families the name of a particular caste among Hindus. Quite many of them are on the same cultural plane and their co-mingling is feasible under the forces released by modern life and education. Relations between the various castes are not unfriendly in normal times. All of them get on well together and social intercourse is restricted only so far as

CHAPTER 3.

The People.
RELIGION AND CASTE (HINDUS).

inter-marrying and inter-dining is concerned. The latter has already lost much of its rigidity, but the former still persists practically unabated. Smoking, *Pān*-chewing and even taking tea, in common has been prevalent for years among members of different castes, the railways and bus transport having accelerated the process. Untouchability has been legally and constitutionally abolished in the Indian Union and social reformers have, for years, exerted to eradicate it. In the rural areas it is not so strictly observed now. Once upon a time untouchability meant in practice even unapproachability and unseeability, if such expressions might be used. Some untouchable village communities, particularly, the Mahārs have embraced Buddhism, under the influence of the late Dr. B. R. Ambedkar and they now call themselves Nava-Bauddhas. This has not, however, resulted in raising them in social status, to an appreciable extent.

Castes.

There is no getting away from the fact that castes are still there. Brāhmaṇs belonging to all sub-castes among them are not more than five per cent. of the total Hindu population in the district. The Kuṇbīs and the Marāṭhās together constitute the biggest group. There is not much to distinguish between the Kuṇbīs and the Marāṭhās except that the former form a poorer section and the latter a better placed section of the community. Some Marāṭhā families are said to have a larger strain of north Indian or Rajput blood than the Kuṇbīs, though this is not always the case. The distinction between them is almost entirely social, the Marāṭhā as a rule preferring military or police or messenger service to husbandry. The Sātārā Marāṭhās do not seem to have historic or legendary evidence as to when or from where they came into the district. They are somewhat fairer in complexion and more refined in manners, but they cannot be distinguished from the Kuṇbīs with whom all eat and the poorer marry. Now-a-days they all pass under the name Marāṭhās.

There are besides, several groups conforming chiefly to the occupations they have traditionally followed, who are neither Kuṇbīs nor Marāṭhās but now are classified as similar communities. They are the Māḷīs or Gardeners, Beldārs or Quarry-men, Buruḍs or Bamboo-workers, Ghisāḍīs or Tinkers, Kanjāris or Weaving Brush-makers, Kāranjikars or Fountain makers otherwise known as Dalsingars or Jingars, Kāsars or Bangle-makers, Koshṭīs or Weavers, Kumbhārs or Potters, Lohārs or Black-smiths, Loṇāris or Cement-markers, Otāris or Casters, Pātharwaṭs or Stone-dressers, Paṭvekars or Tassel-makers, Rangāris or Dyers, Rāuḷs or Tape makers, Sāḷis or Weavers, Saṇgars or Wool-weavers, Shimpis or Tailors, Sonārs or Goldsmiths, Sutārs or Carpenters, Telis or Oilmen, Vaḍārs or Earth-diggers, Ghaḍśis or Musicians, Guravs or Priests, Holars or Fieldmen, Nhāvis or Barbers, Pariṭs or Washermen, Dhangars or Shepherds, Gavḷīs or milkmen, Bhois or Fishers who used to be Palanquin-carriers, Koḷīs or Ferrymen, Pardeshis or Outsiders i.e. Upper India Men and Thakurs or Chiefs. People belonging to what were known as Unsettled Tribes like the Kaikāḍis, Rāmoshis and Vañjāris have lost their traditional occupations and they are gradually

merging among the Kuṇbīs i.e. agriculturists, whether as farm labourers, tenant-cultivators or peasant proprietors. Formerly, the Kaikāḍis were basket-makers, the Ramoshis were sentinels and the Vanjāris were caravan-men.

Scheduled Castes.

The case of the scheduled castes is on a different footing. Although held to be generally belonging to the Hindu fold, they have been classed apart as specially backward and needing special help for their uplift in society. Seats have been reserved for them in the local bodies like the village panchayats, district local board, the State legislature and the Indian Parliament. Special educational facilities, are also offered to them. Those belonging to this group in Sātārā are the Bhaṅgis or Night-soil men, Māṅgs and Mahārs. The last two are said to be hereditary rivals. The Māṅgs worked as useful and trustworthy village watchmen as also scavengers, hangmen, musicians and songsters. They still make and sell brooms and baskets, ropes of sisal-hemp and leather. Among the Mahārs there are many sub-castes such as Murli Mahārs, Gavai Mahārs and Jogti Mahārs. All these sub-divisions eat together but do not intermarry.

Mendicants Castes.

Sātārā villages are still familiar with what might be called beggars who go from place to place and earn their livelihood on alms and fees for their other skills. Bhāṭs or Bards, who speak Hindustani and Marāṭhi, were formerly in the service of the Rājās of Sātārā and the Marāṭhā nobility. They had minute knowledge of the family trees of their patrons and composed and recited crude but forceful poems in their honour with much gusto and gesture. Except for their long and shabby, greasy coat and necklaces of *Cowrie* shells they cannot be distinguished from the average Kuṇbīs. They are called upon to settle social disputes at caste meetings an indication of what prestige they enjoy as honest, impartial judges. The Chitrakathis or picture showmen chiefly hail from Tasgaon but wander from place to place. The Gondhaḷis or Gondhaḷ dancers are worshippers of Ambābāi in whose honour they sing and dance. It is customary to requisition their services in Hindu households after some joyful event such as birth of a son or a wedding, for performing a *gondhaḷ* dance. Gopāls or cowherds are found in Jāvḷi and Sātārā. They sing, dance and wrestle and amuse people. Gosāvis or Passion Lords claim descent from the sage Kapila, but their ranks are in fact swelled from all Hindu castes. They let their hair and beards grow like the Sikhs and speak Hindustani; they claim to be vegetarians and refrain from eating meat and drinking liquor, but are hemp and opium addicts. They rub themselves with ashes and wear ochre-coloured robes. They now live only by begging but formerly took service as soldiers and had a good name for bravery and loyalty. In 1789, Mahādaji Shinde enlisted large numbers of these people, formed them into a distinct body and placed them under the command of Himat Bahadur who was both their captain and religious leader. Jaṅgams or Liṅgāyats are seen here and there all over the district and are worshippers of Shiva. Round their necks, they wear a silver or copper casket with an emblem of Shiva. Their head who is called

CHAPTER 8. — The People. RELIGION AND CASTE (HINDUS). Mendicants Castes.

a *swāmi* has a monastery in Karāḍ. The Joshis or astrologers tell fortunes by reading palms and while doing so, speak in tones so solemn, serious and respectful that the listener is greatly impressed.

The Kolhāṭis or tumblers constitute a strange set of an itinerant tribe. They are a light, active, intelligent people with fair skins, dark eyes and short black hair. They speak a mixture of Gujarāti, Marāṭhī and Hindustani; they have no settled homes anywhere; they generally move in gangs of about 20, carrying small mat huts and cots on the backs of donkeys or ponies or on their own heads. They pass the rainy season in some dry part of the country. They eat the flesh of almost any animal and are excessively fond of drink. Prohibition scarcely seems to have affected them. Both men and women are tumblers. Yet they hold the cow in great sanctity.* Their priests are village Brāhmaṇs and they use charms and believe in witchcraft. They also worship Muslim saints and Pirs. Mānbhāvas or Respectables have now become practically extinct, but they were supposed to have come to the district about 600 years ago and later divided themselves into two sects known as Bairagis and Gharvasis, that is to say, celebrates and married. Among the Bairagis were both monks and nuns. Tirmalis or Bullock showmen have also disappeared but their original home was in Andhra Desha and their home tongue was Telugu. Uchlās or Pickpockets, literally lifters, also spoke Telugu. As their name indicated they indulged in petty thieving and pilfering whatever they could lay hands on but were not helped in their calling by their wives. They also settled down to agriculture or merged in other callings. Vaidus are drug hawkers. When they go about their work, they sling across their shoulders a bamboo pole hung with one or two bags containing healing roots, herbs, hides and poisons. They are ready to cure anything from a common cold to consuming diseases by some medicine in their bags. Their origin also is presumably Andhra Desh as they still speak Telugu at home and corrupt Marāṭhī with others. Vāsudevs are wandering beggars. Their begging dress is a long crown adorned with peacock feathers, a long coat having numerous folds and trousers, but have now become almost scarce.

Religion.

All these numerous Hindu castes and sub-castes live in peace with one another, following their traditions loyally and believing that whatever was ordained for them by time-honoured customs was good enough for them. As Hindus, they are believers, holding that there is only one Almighty governing this universe and he could be worshipped in any of his manifestations according to individual

* What might be called rather a damaging description of this wandering tribe was given in all seriousness in the old Sātārā District Gazetter. It said, "On coming of age, a Kolhati girl is called upon to choose between marriage and prostitution. If she chooses marriage, she is closely looked after; if she prefers prostitution her parents call a caste meeting, feast them, and declare that their daughter is a prostitute." The account also adds, "All Kolhati women, whether married or single are watched by the police and that "They steal and kidnap high caste girls to bring them up as prostitutes and so are under the eye of the police."

taste and family tradition. This code of conduct does not make for a life of strife and competition. Contentment with one's lot is also a traditional teaching to which all are generally reconciled. Ordinarily, this is the way of life of the common people. But Western education which gradually spread all over the country during the British regime and is spreading faster still in the nooks and corners of the country, with the advent of Svarāj, modern concepts about social equality and justice, individual freedom and religious ideas are gripping the mind of rising generations. In all spheres of life, including the social and religious, static ways are yielding place to dynamic ways and as a result a transformation of life is in progress. Effects of this process are noticeable in the customs of all Hindus.

CUSTOMS.
Saṁskāras

The majority of Hindu customs and traditions consist of ritualistic practices related to various religious observances known as *saṁskāras* or sacraments. They are, in theory, purifying rites, conducted under the direction of Brāhmaṇ priesthood, according to orthodox practice. Regarding the exact number of these *saṁskāras*, the writers of *Smṛtis* are not agreed. According to some of these law-givers, 16 of these sacraments are compulsory and 24 more optional. *Nitya* and *Naimittika* are the Sanskrit words used to convey this meaning. Of late, even the 16 have been reduced to about half a dozen in most of the Hindu communities. These rituals are performed at birth, thread-girding, marriage, pregnancy and death. Thread-girding is peculiar only to the twice-born i.e. the *dwijas*, now consisting of all Brahman sub-divisions, some Marāṭhā families and Vaishyas. *Garbhādhāna*, signalising the child-bearing capacity of the girl-wife, which used to be once performed separately and with much fan-fare and tom-tom as girls were then married at an early age, has now become extinct and forms part of the marriage rite.

Marriage.

The most important and far-reaching in its effects on every individual Hindu, man or woman, is the marital rite. Till lately, this was observed most ceremoniously, but under the stress of modern thought, economic necessity and reformist religious teaching even this rite has been reduced to the minimum by the Dharma Shāstra Nirṇaya Maṇḍaḷ. Even well-to-do and conservatively minded Hindus now resort to what has come to be designated as the Vedic marital ritual. As a matter of fact even what prevailed before was also Vedic as distinguished from the registered marriage system under which the parties to the marriage could belong to different religions and still join in wedlock as man and wife. The four-day wedding ceremonies, interspersed with a number of dinner parties thrown by the people of both the bride and bride-groom have become a matter of the past and the ritual has been made brief, with just one reception to friends and relatives, but the religious requirements like *Saptapadi*, *Kanyādāna*, *Vivāha-homa* being preserved in their pristine glory in keeping with the injunctions of the *shāstras* and *smṛtis*. The Brāhmaṇs have led the way in bringing this reform in vogue. Other Hindu communities have willingly followed them.

CHAPTER 8. — The People. SOCIAL LIFE.

(i) The joint family under the protection of a grand-father and a grand-mother with not only brothers and sisters, but even cousins under the same roof and a house with a score of rooms and balconies and galleries will only be rarely met with in some villages of the district. Even brothers when married now live together in a few instances, but the joint family has positively broken down. The matriarchal system nowhere prevails. The patriarch also is now extinct. Ancestral property according to Hindu usage is divided equally among sons and if in the life-time of a father, his sons and he begin to live apart, the property has to be equally shared. With recent amendments in Hindu law even a sister has a share in the father's property when it is ancestral. In the case of self-acquired property, the owner of it can dispose it of in any way he likes. He need not, if he so chooses leave, anything to his sons or daughters and gift it away to any charitable or religious or any other purpose. This could be done by leaving will behind. The issue-less parents used to adopt sons, but even that tendency is now weakening under the stress of modern ideas. Instances of a widowed mother and her adopted son coming to loggerheads are by no means rare and the old idea of having one's family name perpetuated is no longer found fascinating enough to go in for adoptions. The other-worldly consideration of having a son to perform the *shrāddha* etc. for the benefit of the dead in after-death life(?) does not also carry much weight with men who under the influence of modern education are developing a materialistic outlook on life and affairs.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

(ii) Marriage is among the most sacred and significant of obligations according to Hindu religion, ethics and philosophy to which human life is subject. According to Hindu view, marriage is not a contract but a sacrament which is indissoluble. Members of the same caste and even sub-caste could alone be partners of the marital union. The injunction further was that such union must not take place between members of the same *gotra*, which may be described as an enlarged family clan. There must be at least a minimum measure of astrological agreement, between the horoscopes as determined by the position of the planets at the time of birth of the proposed bride and groom. Marriages had to be only during particular months of the year and at particular hours held to be auspicious in keeping with the horoscopes. Over and above these pre-requisites, a number of customs and practices grew around the marriage ceremony. The celebrations spread over about a week and some consequential ceremonies extended even to a whole year.

In the age of reason, education and social transformation ushered by modern times, many of the non-essentials have dropped down. Several were considered even stupid and frivolous. Public opinion gradually but unmistakably underwent a change which was reflected in the new attitude towards social reform. It found expression in a great deal of legislation passed by the representative and democratic legislative bodies of the country. Thus child marriage was abolished.

The justice and the desirability of the contractual element even in holy wedlock was recognised and divorce under certain specified conditions is now permissible. Freedom to marry beyond one's caste has been conceded and recognised as quite in order and even the *gotra* barrier has crumbled down. Marriages between members of sub-castes have become common enough. Marriages between members of different castes are no longer sensational, though they are not yet frequent. They have ceased to be topics of criticism and antagonism previously leading to social ostracism. At least in urban areas, they do not rouse even idle curiosity and inconsequential comment they once did. Under the stress of conditions created by industrial progress and modern education, rapid advance in the same direction may be made. The marriage customs of the so-called higher and lower caste groups among Hindus do not differ in important details. Only the ritual among the former is conducted according to Vedic *mantras* and among the latter according to Puranic *mantras*. Polyandry does not exist anywhere in Mahārāshṭra. Polygamy was current enough and cases may be found even today in which a man has taken two or even three wives, but polygamy has now been legally banned. According to time-honoured ways of life, rules of endogamy prohibit marriage outside a caste or sub-caste; rules of exogamy prohibit marriage between *sagotras*, *sapiṇḍas* and *sapravaras*. Brāhmans claim *gotras* and *pravaras* and abide by *gotra* and *pravara* exogamy. Marāṭhās claim *kuḷi* (stock) or *devak* (marriage guardians) as well as *gotras* but among them as among Prabhus the same is not necessarily a bar to marriage, the chief restrictions being sameness of *kuḷi* and *devak*. Many non-Brāhman communities have *kuḷi*, *devak* and surnames as exogamous divisions. *Sagotra* and *Sapravara* marriages even among Brāhmans are now valid under the Hindu Marriage Disabilities Removal Act (XXVIII of 1946). The prohibited degrees of kindred for marriage beyond agnates vary according to the custom of the community concerned. As regards cross-cousin unions, except that of the brother's daughter with the sister's son, which is not only tolerated, but even sedulously sought among the Sārasvat and Deshastha Brāhmans, other types are disallowed. Marriage with a wife's sister is allowed and a brother may also marry his brother's wife's sister i.e. sisters can become sisters-in-law.

Marriage ceremony

*All marriage agreements may conveniently be reduced to five types. In *sālaṅkṛt kanyādāna*, the bride's father bedecks her with ornaments and jewellery and stands the expenses incidental to the marriage including travelling expenses of the groom's side. In *kanyādāna*, the bride's father's expenses are limited to his own side. In *varapakṣa-vadhūpakṣa* form, the parties bear their own expenses and consider it honourable to exchange suitable gifts and dinner parties according to the means of either. In the *huṇḍā* form, the bride's father pays a heavy *varadakṣiṇā*, so that the groom is, as it were, purchased and in the *deja* form, the proposal is made from the

*The described ceremony holds good among Marāthās and others who are in large majority in the district.

CHAPTER 3 — The People. MARRIAGE AND MORALS. Marriage ceremony.

groom's side with a price for the bride. Variations suited to mutual convenience in all these forms are made in individual instances.

The process of the marriage ceremony consists of a number of stages. It begins with *māgaṇī*. Among the poor and backward communities, it is the father of the groom or some near elderly relative who starts the negotiations. In the case of the well-to-do they are usually initiated by the bride's father or his representative. If there is no initial hitch, the family priests who are usually astrologers come on the scene and compare the horoscopes of the bride and the bridegroom. If they agree, marriage terms follow and a betrothal day is fixed. *Pānsupārī* is distributed to the friends and relatives invited for the auspicious occasion and the marriage is taken as settled. It is considered dishonourable to go back on this settlement unless some extraordinary event unsettles it. This is followed by what is called *sākharpuḍā* or *sākharsāḍī*. On a mutually selected day, the groom's father or a close relative of his and friends go to the bride's house to present her with a *sāḍī* and bodice cloth and some ornaments. Five *suvāsinīs* i.e. women with their husbands living mark the bride's forehead with *kuṅkū* and present the *sāḍī*, *khaṇ* and ornament to her, with a packet of sweets. The others are given *pānsupārī* and a light feast. This ceremony is known as *sākharpuḍā*. Some days later, the bride's relatives go to the groom's house for the *ṭiḷā* ceremony when the groom is presented with a suitable headdress, clothes and a gold ring. The groom's forehead is marked with a *ṭiḷā*. The *sākharpuḍā* and the *ṭiḷā* together constitute the betrothal. These are followed by *patrikāpūjana* which means worshipping the papers on which the names of the bride and bridegroom are written by their respective priests with the God Gaṇesh as witness. After this all the family and local gods and goddesses are specifically invited to bless the contemplated marriage by placing a few rice grains before each of the idols. This is often done by a procession of friends and relatives going to the various temples.

A day before the marriage day, a symbolic ceremony known as *ghāṇā* is held. Though it does not form part of the religious procedure, it is performed in the houses of both the bride and the bridegroom. A turmeric root, some wheat and an areca-nut are tied in a piece of new cloth to the handle of a *jāte* (grinding stone) by married and unwidowed women. Next the women grind some wheat and turmeric by the handmill to the accompaniment of prayer songs to Gaṇesh and Sarasvati. Two wooden pestles are then tied together with a piece of new cloth containing turmeric root, a betelnut and a little wheat; some wheat is put into a bamboo basket and pounded with these pestles. The provisions for the marriage are supposed to be prepared after this ceremony but it is not really observed in practice. The grinding stone and the pestles used for the ceremony are kept in the same position till all functions in connection with the marriage are over. This is usually done in the early hours of the morning. The next item is that of *halad* and *telvan*. A party of *suvāsinīs* from the groom's house go to the house

of the bride to the accompaniment of music, taking with them in a basket turmeric paste, articles of dress, etc. The bride is smeared with oil and this paste and given a hot water bath. She is presented a new green *sāḍi* and *choḷi*. What remains of the turmeric paste and oil is taken to the groom's house. He is rubbed with these and given a similar bath. The bride's father presents him a dress which he puts on when he starts for the bride's house in a procession for the actual marriage ceremony.

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The People.
MARATHAS AND [illegible].
Marriage ceremony.

On the marriage-day a number of propitiatory rites are gone through in the camps of the bride and the bridegroom. They are called *maṇḍapa-pratiṣṭhā* and *devakapratiṣṭhā* and include *Gaṇapati pūjana, puṇyāhavācana, nāndīśrāddha* and *grahamakha*. A spot in the marriage-booth is cow-dunged. *Suvāsinis* decorate it with *rāngoḷi* quartz powder) and arrange three *pāṭs* (low wooden stools) in a line and cover them with rich velvet or woollen material. The parents of the bride and bridegroom take bath, put on silk apparel and seat themselves on the *pāṭs* with their faces to the east. Next, because *saṁskāras* which ought to have been performed on the bride or the groom, but were not, are made to undergo a *prāyascitta* (penance). The father of the bride or the groom declares solemnly: "I am going to marry my son or daughter named so and so in order to be free from the debt of gods and ancestors and to continue the performance of righteous deeds and to propagate offspring fit to perform these deeds." In this declaration is contained the essence of marriage as a social and sociological duty. In order that the whole marriage procedure may pass of without any inauspicious occurrence, prayers in propitiation of Gaṇapati, the family deities, Mṛtyuñjaya and the ill-favoured stars of the party are held through priests. These prayers commence before and end after the marriage and are known as *anuṣṭhān*. *Gaḍagner* or *keḷvaṇ* are felicitations accompanied by dinners thrown at home and at relatives' on the eve of the marriage.

There is a ceremony which is peculiar only to those Marāṭhā families in which some warrior-ancestor gloriously died on the battlefield. An elderly male member belonging to a *kūḷ*, different from that of the party to be married is made to take part of the *Veera Purusha*. He is ceremoniously taken to the bank of a river. Water nymphs and the *Veera Purusha* are worshipped. He is presented a dress and he holds a sword in his hand. He is then brought back to the house and smeared with red powder. At the entrance of the house, rice mixed with curds and cocoanut are waved near his person. The sword in his hand is then taken and placed near the house-gods. The *Veera Purusha* has then to remain in the house till the marriage ceremony is over.

A formal declaration of the marriage settlement in the presence of friends, relatives and invited guests is held on the eve or on the same day of marriage at the bride's house. It is called *vāgdāna* or *vāṅniścaya*. The groom's father, accompanied by a party of

CHAPTER 8

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The People.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

Marriage ceremony.

men and women goes in ceremony to the bride's house. After they are welcomed and seated, the bride dressed in rich clothes is brought and seated on a *pāṭ*. The groom's father gives into her hands a cocoanut and a betel-leaf packet and says thrice addressing her father : "I shall accept your daughter in marriage for my son." The bride's father says to him : "Please do" also thrice. Both of them then embrace each other and the ceremony is over. When the time for marriage draws near, the bridegroom is dressed in the dress presented to him at the time of *haḷad* ceremony by the bride's father. His brow is decked with a *bāśiṅg* or marriage coronet. His left cheek is touched with lamp-black and he carries in his hand a dagger with a lemon stuck on its point. He must not part with it, till the marriage is over. He rides a horse or is even seated in a car. Musicians and drum-beaters walk in front and behind them walk all the men of the party followed by the bridegroom. Behind the bridegroom walks his sister holding the *śakundivā* (lucky lamp) laid in a dish and another woman follows her with a metal or earthen pot holding rice, betel-nut and water, covered with a mango-branch and a coconut set on a heap of rice in a bamboo basket. Other ladies and women servants follow. The party halts at the place previously fixed upon for performing what is known as *sīmānta-pūjan*, worship at the boundary. Then the bridegroom's brother or some other relative rides the groom's horse and advances to the bride's house to announce the bridegroom's arrival. For doing this service he is called *varadhāvā* or the groom's messenger. He is treated with special respect and given a present by the bride's father. The bridegroom is then worshipped by the bride's father and the combined party proceeds to the bride's house for the marriage. On reaching the bride's house, one or two *suvāsinis* pour water on the hoofs of the horse on which the bridegroom has come. The groom then dismounts and is welcomed by the bride's mother at the entrance of the marriage booth with a dish holding two wheat flour lamps, waves small rice balls and the lamps round the bridegroom, throws the rice balls to one side and lays the lamps at his feet. Another *suvāsini* pours a dish full of water mixed with lime and turmeric on his feet. The bridegroom presents her with a *saḍi* and bodice-cloth, the bride's father hands him a cocoanut and leads him by hand to a place prepared for him near the *bahulē* (altar). The guests are received and seated in the marriage hall where music is kept going. The family priest keeps a close watch on the water-clock or *ghaṭikāpātra* kept by his side and notes the approach of the auspicious moment for the marriage. While all this goes on the bride is given a bath, is dressed in a special marriage dress and seated before what is known as *Gaurihara* and asked to pray to god Siva and goddess Pārvatī and Indrāṇī, the wife of Indra, head of the celestial world.

A little before the auspicious moment, the bride's father worships the paper on which the *muhurta* has been written. Then two small heaps of rice grains are made near the marriage altar by the priest and a cloth with a central cross-mark is held between the heaps.

The bridegroom stands on one heap and the bride on the other, the former facing west and the latter east. A mixture of rice grains, *jire* (cumin seeds) and sugar is given into the hands of both. The maternal uncles of the bride and the groom stand behind them, in the case of the Marāṭhās and those who called them Kshatriyas with naked swords crossed over their heads. The priests stand on either side of the curtain and tell the pair to look at the lucky cross and pray to their family gods. The priests recite auspicious verses and throw rice, mixed with *kuṅkū*, on both. One of the priests distributes red rice to the guests, which they throw over the bride and groom at the end of each verse. When the auspicious moment arrives, the astrologer claps his hands. This is a signal for all to start clapping and the musicians to play on their instruments and the *śiṅgī* to blow his horn. The priests draw aside the curtain and the bride and groom place a little of the mixture of rice grains over each other's head and garland each other. This is followed by what is called *madhuparka*. The bride's father and mother sit on two *pāṭs* in front of the bridegroom who is seated on a slightly higher seat, a *cauraṅga* and wash his feet, the mother helping in pouring water and the father scrubbing. The father then worships the bridegroom and pours on his right hand a spoonful of honey mixed with curds which is called *madhuparka*. The bridegroom sips it. If the parents have a senior son-in-law or sons-in-law, they are offered *madhuparka* first in order of their seniority. The hands of the bride and the bridegroom are then joined by the father, a pot of bell metal is held under them by the priest and the bride's mother pours water with some coins in it over their clasped hands. This completes the *kanyādān* or giving over the girl. This is considered a highly meritorious act on the part of a house-holder because the priests keep saying *kanyā tārayatu, puṇyam vardhatām*. This means "May the daughter save her father and let his merit increase". The bride's father then presents new clothes, ornaments and other articles to the bridegroom. He puts round the bride's neck a lucky necklace called *Maṅgalasūtra* which is made of black glass beads and some gold beads and a locket. Gaṇapati is worshipped by them and Brāhmaṇs are given *dakṣiṇā*. The couple also worships Lakshmī, Indrāṇi and Pārvatī. While all this is in progress the guests in the hall are given *pānsupāri*, cocoanuts, sweets, flowers, *attar*, rose-water etc., as witnesses to the wedding. This done, they disperse. *Vivāha homa* i.e. marital sacrifice is then lighted and *saptapadi* i.e. going seven times round this fire on the part of the bride and bridegroom makes the marriage valid. But in order that it should be final and irrevocable, one more rite remains. That is known as *pāṇigrahaṇa*. *Kankaṇa* or marriage wristlets are tied to the wrists of the couple and they are shown the *Dhruvatārā* or the Pole Star while they hold each other's hands. This is a symbol of remaining steadfastly loyal to each other. The concluding social event is the *varāt* i.e. the ceremonial, homeward return of the bridegroom accompanied by his newly-wed wife. This is usually done the same night or the next day's night. In the old days, when boys and girls were married at a very young

CHAPTER 3. — The People. MARRIAGE.

age, parents and other elders of the family derived considerable fun by making the newly-weds go through a number of funny and frivolous situations. With grown-up boys and girls as parties to the marriage, this vulgarity has almost completely disappeared. Yet, they are made to sit to dinner in the same plate and feed each other. After *varāt*, another socially significant ceremony is held at the groom's house. It is the welcome extended to the daughter-in-law by the mother-in-law. It is called *sunmukhdarshan*, literally seeing the daughter-in-law's face. She presents the daughter-in-law new clothes and ornaments and puts sugar in her mouth. The last religious ceremony is *devakothāpana* or unshrining of the *devak*. It is performed on the 2nd, 4th, 5th, 7th, 8th or 10th day of the marriage. The details are the same as those observed while installing the *devak*. When this is over, Brāhmaṇs and priests are rewarded for their services. It is a custom among Sātārā Marāṭhās and similar communities to treat guests with a sweet feast during the marriage period and a hot feast after the *devakothāpana*. It chiefly consists of meat, mutton and fowl.

During the last thirty years conditions of life have enormously changed. The marriage age of boys and girls has considerably risen. The economy of the country has undergone a transformation, resulting in increasing urbanisation, overcrowding in cities and a much faster tempo of day-to-day life. The old, elaborate and leisurely ritual, whether, religious or social, connected with an event like the marriage is found to have no place in the altered circumstances. Attempts have been made to rationalise and abridge the whole ceremonial. Needless to say that the other several *saṁskāras* have also been abolished or abridged. *Upanayana* still remains only in name, but in most cases the sacred thread is given up almost as soon as it is adopted. Collective *Upanayanas* have come into vogue in certain places which show that people still care for the nominal initiation of children into the student stage with some religious ceremony. The only other *saṁskāras* are those in connection with birth, death and pregnancy that are still cared for and observed.

PREGNANCY AND CHILD BIRTH.

The prospect of a baby in the offing for a newly wed bride is greeted with enthusiasm both by her parents and at her husbands. A woman without a child is an imperfect and immature woman and is looked upon as ominous. No Hindu woman is happy if within a reasonable period after marriage, she does not become enceinte. But when happy omens of a coming child are noticed, there is joy in the family and every one desires that the first arrival should be a male babe. For this purpose the sacrament of *puṁsavana* was devised while the young wife was in the third or fourth month of pregnancy. But whether because it has been found ineffective or unnecessary it has fallen into disuse. The prospective mother's longing, *dohāḷe* as they are called, are fondly noticed and promptly satisfied by the elderly members of the husband's family. If a child is born with some birthmarks or congenital defects, they are ascribed to non-fulfilment of the longings. It is customary for a newly wed

PREGNANCY AND CHILD BIRTH.

to go to her parents for the first confinement. All arrangements including the engagement of a midwife known to the family are made. She looks after the young mother for ten days after delivery.

All rural communities are particular about the fifth or sixth day worship as they are believed to be full of danger to the new born. The belief is that convulsive seizures and most other forms of disease are the work of spirits and they can be warded off only by worshipping the Mothers Fifth and Sixth. The elderly women of the house are particular about keeping a lamp constantly burning in the confinement room and the mother is never left alone during the ten days. On the fifth day of child-birth, friends and relatives are asked for a dinner. In the name of the *Pāñcavi* a betel-nut, a sword or sickle are placed on a *pāṭ* and sandal-paste and flowers are offered. The mother bows before the goddess with the child in her arms and prays her to protect the child from evil spirits. On the sixth day, a blank sheet of paper and a reed pen and ink are placed on a *pāṭ* and Saṭvai or Mother Sixth is worshipped as on the previous day and a few friends are treated to a feast.

During the ten days, the mother is considered untouchable and only the midwife touches her. The family observes *suher* for the period as *sutak* is observed in the case of a death. On the 11th day mother and baby are given a purificatory bath, their clothes are washed and the whole house is cleaned. The male members of the house-hold then put on new sacred threads. The midwife is presented with a *lugaḍē*, bodice cloth and some money as her fee. The mother is cleansed from impurity by spraying *tulsi* water over her.

Of late, with the practice of sending expectant mothers to maternity and nursing homes, many of the old practices have become moribund On the 12th day, is the naming ceremony of the child. Women friends and relatives are invited for the purpose. They bring presents, the musicians play, the baby is put in the cradle and the christening is gone through. This ceremony is called *bārsē*. The lobes of the child's ears are pierced by a gold thread, generally by a goldsmith. If the boy is subject to a vow, his right nostril is also pierced and a gold ring put there. *Cuḍākarma* or first hair-cut was also a *saṁskāra*, performed traditionally after a male child was two or three years old, but it has now died out.

MUNJA.

Upanayana, *Vratabandha* and *Mauñjibandhana* are the Sanskrit names of what is popularly known as the *muñja* sacrament, intended only for the three varṇas *viz.*, Brāhmaṇa, Kshatriya and Vaishya. Whoever can claim classification in one of these three from among the numerous castes and sub-castes of today can have it performed in the case of their male issues. In theory, it is a purificatory rite initiating a boy into *Brahmacaryāśrama* or studenthood. It has to be performed when a boy is from 8 to 12 years of age. It is customary to perform it in only five months of the year *viz.*, Māgha, Phālguna, Chaitra, Vaishākha and Jyestha with due regard to astrological considerations.

CHAPTER 3. — The People. MUNJA.

Mauñjībandhana means girding the waist of a boy by a thread made from the *muñja* grass. Its religious or cultural significance is now almost wholly lost and it has now become an occasion for a social get-to-gether for relatives and friends. It is more a festive than serious function. Preparations for it begin a few days before the auspicious day fixed for the ceremony. A booth is raised in front of the house and its posts are decorated with plantain trees, mango twigs and flowers. Invitations are sent far and wide to friends and relatives. As in the case of marriage, *gaḍagners* or *keḷvaṇs* i.e. congratulatory feasts are given to the boy and his parents by friends and relatives. A day or two before the ceremony, the boy's parents and the family priest visit temples and houses of friends and relatives to extend personal invitations to God and man for blessing the boy. This ceremonial invitation extending is called *akṣat*.

On the thread-ceremony day, the *ghāṇā* is performed as in the case of marriage. Drummers and pipers start playing on their instruments. One of the priests sets up the *ghaṭikā* (water-clock) with due ceremony. The usual propitiatory rites are gone through. Gaṇapatī and the Matṛkās are worshipped and *puṇyāhavācana* is performed. It is a prayer offered for the day proving full of blessings. This is the hour for friends and relatives to offer presents to the boy and his parents. After this is performed what is known as *nāndīśrāddha*. Twenty-seven betel-nuts representing joy-bringing guardians are placed in a winnowing fan and worshipped with *kuṅkū* and flowers. It is then taken in the family god-room. Brāhmaṇas, men and women are fed and are given *dakṣiṇā*. Mother and boy are then annointed and bathed together and there is a ceremonial (now-a-days nominal) cutting of the boys hair by a barber who is given a turban, a kerchief rice, betel and cocoanut. The boy is again bathed and there is a ceremonial tiffin when for the last time the boy eats from his mother's plate. Boys of his age called *baṭus* participate in the tiffin and are given *dakṣiṇā*. The boy is again given a bath and made ready for the *upanayana* ceremony.

As the *muhurta* (auspicious moment) approaches, friends and relations and all invitees gather together in the booth and take their seats. The father sits on a *pāṭ* with his face to the east and the boy stands before him facing west. A curtain is held between them by the priests. The boy's sister stands behind him with a lighted lamp and, a cocoanut in her hands. The priests recite *maṅgalāṣṭakas* (lucky verses) and the guests present throw *akṣatās* (unbroken red rice grains) at the boy and his father. At the exact lucky moment (*muhurta*) the curtain is withdrawn, guests clap their palms, musicians play with double effort and the boy lays his head at the feet of his father. The father blesses him and seats him on his right thigh. *Pān-supārī, attar-gulab* and flowers are distributed to all present. It is customary to hand a cocoanut to each person while departing. The new custom on the part of guests, now-a-days is to make some present to the boy.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

MUNJA.

The religious ritual begins soon. The boy is seated to the father's right. A *sthaṇḍila* (earthen altar) is traced in front of the father, blades of *darbha* (sacred grass) are spread over it and a sacrificial fire (*homa*) is got ready. The priest daubs a cotton string in oil and turmeric, ties it round the boy's waist and gives him a *langoṭi* to wear. He then rolls a yellow *pañcā* (short waist-cloth) round his waist and a white one round his shoulders. Another cotton string daubed with oil and turmeric and a bit of deer skin passed into it is hung on the left shoulder of the boy in the manner of a sacred thread. Offerings of *ājya* (ghee), sesame and seven kinds of *samidhās*, (sacred fuel sticks) are made to the sacrificial fire. The boy is asked to pass between father and fire, sip three *ācamanas* and repeat texts. Again he passes between fire and father and takes his seat to the right of his father. He then rises, bows to the *ācārya* (preceptor-priest) and requests him to initiate him in *brahmacaryāśrama*. His request is granted by handing him over a *yajnopavita* (sacred thread) a *daṇḍa* (staff) of *paḷas* and by giving him general instructions about acquiring knowledge. He is taken out of the house to look at the sun and offer him a prayer called *Gāyatri*. After this is performed the principal sacrifice in which prayers are offered to *agni* (fire), Indra (king of gods) and Sūrya (the Sun) to bestow their powers on the boy. The last rite of the *Upanayana* sacrament is *medhājanana* in which prayer is offered to the Goddess of Mind that she give the boy knowledge and intellect. This is done by preparing a small square earthen mound and planting in it a branch of the *paḷas* tree and worshipping it as the representative of the Goddess of Mind.

Samāvartana (originally return from the preceptor's home after 12 years of studenthood) has now become an adjunct of *Upanayana*, coming within a few days of it. The boy discards the *muñja* i.e. the triple waistcord of sacred grass and his *langoṭi*, puts on costly clothes, a pair of shoes and takes up an umbrella and pretends to set out on a journey to Kāshi (Banāras). The priest or the maternal uncle of the boy pretends to dissuade him from his plan by promising to give his daughter to him in marriage and he stays!

AFTER-DEATH RITES.

Hindus usually cremate their dead. Only children under eight years of age are buried. When a person is in his last moments and he is conscious, he keeps on remembering or repeating God's name. If he is unconscious, other people do it for him. At the point of death, his head is taken by his son or wife in his or her lap and holy Ganges water and a leaf of *tulsi* plant is put in his mouth. It is also customary to put a gold piece and a pearl in his mouth. When life is extinct, the news is announced to relatives and friends and even communicated to distant places. Nearmost relatives try to come for the cremation and if it is a son or a brother it is customary even to postpone cremation for about 24 hours. When relatives and friends gather, they start preparations for carrying the dead body to the cremation ground. Usually, it is a ladder-like bier that is prepared out of bamboos. Two new earthen pots, a large one for water and a small one for fire, *gulāl* (red powder), betel-leaves and white cloth about seven and half feet long are procured. Arrangements for sufficient firewood and cowdung cakes and a few dry *tulsi* plants are made. The dead

CHAPTER 3.
—
The People.
AFTER-DEATH RITES.

body is washed and securely tied in the bamboo bier and shrouded with the white cloth, keeping only the face bare. The son or the nearest relative takes a bath. Nearest kinsmen or close friends become the four bier-carriers and the son leads all the mourners to the cremation ground. He carries the fire-pot on a triangular frame fastened to a string. On reaching the cremation spot, a pile of firewood and cowdung cakes is laid. The dead body is kept on it and covered with fuel including the dried *tulsi* plants. The son with the help of the priest sets fire to the pyre. He goes round the pyre three times with a water-filled earthen pot and stands at the head of the pyre. Another person breaks the pot with a small stone and the son beats his mouth with the back of his hand. He then goes and sits among the other mourners. All of them wait till the skull bursts, whose sound is heard by all. The stone with which the earthen pot is broken is carefully preserved for further obsequies as the symbol of the dead to whom water oblations are given by the dearest and the nearest. The mourners return home. In the evening, a lighted lamp is kept burning where the deceased breathed his last. If the deceased is a woman with her husband alive, she is decked with flowers, rubbed with turmeric paste and a *kumkum* mark is placed on her forehead and a handful of rice, a cocoanut and betel leaves are laid in her lap. Otherwise, the rest of the procedure is the same.

If the deceased belongs to the Brāhmaṇ or Kshatriya stock, the after-death rites are observed in the Vedic style known as *mantrāgni*; in the case of others also priests officiate but it is a simple consignment to fire. On the third day, the son accompanied by few friends and relatives visit the cremation ground and from the spot where the dead body was burnt, they collect the ashes and whatever remains of the bones. These are consigned in the water of a stream or river and those who can afford to do so, take the same for consignment to a holy place like Prayāg, where the Ganges, Jamna and Sarasvati rivers meet and is therefore called Triveni Sangam. On the tenth day, all members of the household take a purificatory bath, all clothes are washed. The son of the deceased takes off his moustache and bathes. After bath the *ashmā*, i.e. the symbolic stone representing the deceased is washed with cowdung and rice oblations are offered to it in the cremation ground. Presents of money and utility articles are made to a Brāhmaṇ in the name of the deceased which once included clothes, shoes and a cow. The normal expectation of the son and others is that when the oblations are offered in open space, crows should come and dispose of them. If this does not happen, the belief is that the deceased desires those left behind to give him some assurance or other regarding this thing or that. Sometimes all these efforts fail to make the crow touch the rice ball oblations; but most often they are not disappointed. After this procedure is gone through the mourners return home.

On the eleventh day, all members of the household take *pañcagavya* and sprinkle it all over the house. This is a mixture made of cow's milk, curds, urine, ghee and dung. New sacred threads are worn.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

AFTER-DEATH RITES.

On the 12th day a ritual known as *sapiṇḍi śrāddha* is held. By virtue of this ritual the deceased is gathered to his previous three *pitṛs* i.e. father, grandfather and great-grandfather. On the 13th day, a *śrāddha* is performed in the name of the dead and friends and kinsmen are asked for dinner. After this, every year, the *śrāddha* is performed on the day of the death of the deceased.

Once a deceased has been cremated, the *śrāddha* is not now-a-days observed in the prescribed way every year in families who have come under modern influences. Some charity is made in his name in his memory out of grateful feelings. Those who can afford it, even award prizes, and scholarships in his name or pay poor students' fees in his name. The time-honoured rites do not suit the present tempo of life. Taking the dead body in a hand-cart has also been introduced in various places instead of on a bier on four persons' shoulders.

SOCIAL LIFE.

Recent legal enactments have considerably affected the position of Hindu women. Equality of the sexes, in general, has been regarded as guaranteed by the constitution of the Indian Union and women are not prevented now from participating in any field of civil life of the country. They can, in theory, practise any profession, hold any office and even inherit property in their own right. A Hindu widow could take another husband among the so-called lower castes of Hindus by usage but the Hindu law in theory put a ban on widow marriage so far as the so-called higher communities like Brahmans, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas were concerned. But the Widow Remarriage Act of 1853 removed this disability, even though during the last 100 years, widow marriages have not taken place in large numbers. The right of divorce was not there at all, because the Hindu marriage, in theory, is indissoluble; but legislation in this behalf has allowed divorce to any Hindu wife for sufficient cause. The restrictions on divorce have made it difficult enough. There is provision, however, for legal separation on sufficient cause being shown, at almost any time. With the spread of education among women and their having come out of homes to seek jobs on an equal footing with men, divorce cases have begun to figure in the news from time to time. The natural disabilities to which woman's status is heir, has, however, led to the existence of some kind of traffic in women for ages together with the attendant evil of prostitution. To this are allied, though in a clandestine way, the evils of drink and gambling. But these are not there in this district on such a scale as to cause alarm. Prohibition has been legally established all over the Mahārāshṭra State though its breaches are found to be rather too many for a reasonable enforcement of the law. Breaches of so many provisions of the Penal Code are there from day to day, but they are not supposed to be a menace to peace, order and good government. Similar is the case of breaches of the Prohibition law. Gambling has never caused even that much trouble, though enlightened public opinion demands that measures of enforcement of the anti-drink and anti-gambling legislations need to be more drastic and stringent.

CHAPTER 3.

The people.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

Home life.

According to the 1951 census there were 203,177 occupied houses in the district, which gave an average of 50·36 houses to a square mile. Of these 179,377 (46·79 per sq. mile) were in the rural areas and 23,800 (125·93 per sq. mile) in the urban areas. The 203,177 occupied houses in the district accommodated 233,752 households[1] (R. 201,742; O. 32,010). This gave an average of 1·51 households for each occupied house for the district, 1·3 for the rural area and 1·3 for the urban area. Houses in the district as a whole nowhere present a picturesque panorama. Modern architecture has made very little impact upon the housing sense of the people. With a few exceptions, where terraces are built, most of the urban dwellings are old-fashioned, having roofs of tiles or corrugated iron sheets. They are built with burnt bricks and have a stone foundation. The walls are plastered with mortar mixed in sand. It is only the abundant use of distempers that gives them a variegated appearance. Rural houses, on the contrary, present a sorry spectacle. Here the hutments are not constructed with a view to meeting individual requirements but are built in a manner that would afford protection against the vagaries of climate. In the dry eastern and northern belt they are flat-roofed and in the rainy north-east and north-west regions they are thatched. Generally they are built with sun-dried bricks and mud, pointed with mud or mortar. In houses fashioned as town dwellings, there are windows, window shutters, door frames and door panels, all made of *bābul* or mango and in houses of the rich of teak wood; otherwise doors are made of thatch and bamboos and a deliberate rectangular opening kept at a height of about five feet from the ground level, provides a ventilator. Bamboo and teak rafters are also largely used.

The houses in the district may be arranged under two divisions, immovable and movable. The immovable houses may be divided into four classes. Those with tiled roofs and walls of fire-baked bricks or dressed black stone; those with tiled roofs and walls of sun-burnt bricks or mud and stones; those with flat earth or tiled roofs and generally walls of unburnt bricks; and those with thatched roofs and wattled or grass walls. The movable dwellings belong to wandering tribes who carry them wherever they go. They are of two kinds small tents or *pāls* either of coarse cotton or wool or condemned tarpaulin, and small huts of bamboo or date matting. Often when the dwellers prolong their stay indefinitely due to continuous employment prospects they make use of the discarded tin-can sheets to give their dwellings an appearance of a residence. Usually these nomadic tribes select the outskirts of the city or a village and the plains adjacent to the hills as their favourite abodes. The last seventy years or so have witnessed the fast disappearance of these nomads either by their absorption in the local populace or by their migration to other tracts.

[1] A house for census purposes meant "a dwelling with a separate main entrance". Thus more than one household might be found in the same census house.

Mansions belonging to the old aristocracy as well as the semi-modern structures housing the higher middle class and well-to-do families represent the first model. They are generally two or three storeyed and are built round quadrangles with stone or burnt brick walls, tiled roofs or open terrace. The built-up space is considerable allowing for broad lobbies, an office room, two or more sleeping rooms, a central store room, a *divāṇkhānā* often used as a dining hall, a kitchen and a god-room. In the houses constructed recently, the bath and privy are usually attached but in the old styled houses, a bath-room is attached in the rear and a privy is located at a distant corner either in front or behind according to convenience of the building. In most of the houses of this type servants' quarters and cattle shed are also provided. These buildings have an imposing appearance. In the front, on the sides and in the rear are planted beautiful flower and fruit trees which spread their haunting fragrance in the morning in the atmosphere near about and cast their willowy shadows in the afternoon to keep the place cool. The flower trees are *Gulab, Mogrā, Shevanti, Capha, Pārijāt,* lily, *Zendu, Gokarṇa, Bakul,* etc. whereas plantain, guava, mango, *jāmbul, sitāphaḷ, rāmphaḷ* trees represent the fruit variety. In the rear yard at a central place stands alone the *tulasi* bush in a masonry pillar pot. The front entrance is a huge wooden door in the case of old styled buildings usually painted in maroon or green oil colour and often having beautiful carvings. The door leads to the *divāṇkhānā* decorated with multicoloured mattresses and furnished with gorgeous furniture like sofa sets, tables with glass tops, *haṇḍis,* etc. The doors and windows which are latticed have curtains displaying a rich colour combination. The walls of these buildings which have a plain plaster surface are usually coloured in distempers or oil paints and in some cases where the old aristocratic families have not become extinct, the walls are painted with drawings representing the episodes from Purāṇas. The old styled buildings are changed in a manner to suit modern conditions but still they have not lost their former grandeur. They are equipped with electric fittings so that radio, table and ceiling fans, iron, cooker, geyser, etc., have become quite common. And yet one is reminded of the old days of superstition when one sees mango leaves hanging from the door lattices, a horse shoe pinned on the doorstep or an awkward painting of an old goddess in chalk or *pinjar* exhibited in the front wall of the house to repel ghosts or the curses of sorcerer. The compound has either a stone or brick wall or wire fencing. A *devadi* also could be found to accommodate the *rakhawāldār*—perhaps a vestige of the past. These houses falling under the first category are, however, few and far between involving as they do a considerable cost of construction. Their owners, the former Ināmdārs and Jāgirdārs as a class are fast becoming extinct and now it is only the big merchants, Zamindars and high salaried persons who could afford dwellings of this type. The houses accommodating the lower middle class, the traders and merchants and well-to-do farmers both in the rural as well as the urban areas represent the second model. They are generally one-storeyed with walls of fire-baked or unbaked bricks and tiled or

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

Home life.

flat roofs. They contain three to four rooms. They are built in the centre of an open space admeasuring five to six hundred square yards. The compound is devoid of any gardening. Whatever trees are planted are a few flower trees and vegetable plants. The front is a plain wooden door, with nothing artistic about it and leading to the so-called *divāṇkhānā* which is used at once as an office room, a sitting room and a guest room. The walls are coloured with a distemper or a white-wash. The furniture consists of a few chairs, a table or two, a bench and a mattress. In villages a shopkeeper converts this room into a shop ; in towns the professional makes it his office room. The doors and windows are curtained but they do not display any fine taste. Framed pictures of gods and goddesses as well as historical personages are hung on the walls but they possess less than decorative value. The centre room is a rest-room and store-room combined into one. There is no separate god-room or a dining hall. The kitchen serves the purpose of both. One often finds the corner of the kitchen used as a washing sink converted into a bath-room. Privies which are open are situated at a distant corner in the rear of the building. One may find a cow shed, also accommodating the domestic servant. In the place of open terraces, these houses have flat roofed *verandahas* in the front and rear which might be used for sleeping at night during the hot season and otherwise for drying preparations such as *pāpaḍs*, *kurḍayas*, etc. The houses are not kept in a neat condition so that the wall-plastering goes off and some of the houses thus present a deserted look. Repairs are effected only in a casual way, because heavy expenditure is called for. It may not be even in five years once that they are white-washed or painted. The fencing around the compound is only an apology for it with an entrance appropriate to it. Their grotesque appearance is by no means pleasing. The houses accommodating working class families, peasants and cultivators and farm workers represent the third and fourth types. They have only one storey and are built in unburnt bricks. They have flat earth or tiled or thatched roofs and consist only of a couple of rooms. They have compound fences of stone and earth and with heaps of dirt and refuse stacked about and grass and shrubs growing wildly about lend the whole view a strange weirdness. The hut-ments have no windows, the doors are only improvisations made of reeds (*kuḍ*) and plastered with red or black earth. The inmates suffer in all seasons, in summer because there is extreme heat, and in the rainy season, because there is no proper protection. Any open space, closed or unclosed, is used as a bath. Distant farms or beds of rivers and streams serve as privies. The whole atmosphere stinks because of profuse use of cowdung and wood-fuel. Gandhiji's description of an average Indian village holds good of the Sātārā village also. He says, "Instead of having graceful hamlets dotting the land, we have dung-heaps. The approach to many villages is not a refreshing experience. Often one would like to shut one's eyes and stuff one's nose ; such is the surrounding dirt and offending smell."

DRESS.

Sātārā District Hindus may be said to dress in much the same style as the Hindus elsewhere in Mahārāshṭra do. The most distinguishing and common article of apparel for the male is the *dhotar*.

This article still continues to be worn by all whether in the rural or urban areas and for centuries it has not altered in appearance. But all other articles of dress have undergone a transformation during the last thirty or forty years. They are such as the forbears of people two generations back could never have dreamt of. Only among Sardār and Jāgirdār families the *dhotar* was often substituted by a *vijār*, a *pyjamā* or *coḷṇā*. But loose pyjamā or shorts are fast dethroning even the *dhotar* from its time-honoured place.. Formerly the male upper garments were *uparṇe, śelā, sadarā, patraṇ, bārābandī, kuḍtā, kopri, kabjā, aṅgarkhā, śerwānī* and *dagalā*. Now it is a shirt, a bush-shirt or bush-coat. The headdress used to be a *pāgotē, pagaḍī, muṇḍāsē, rumāl, paṭkā* or *sāphā*, according to taste and means in various colours. Now, it is fashionable to go bare-headed or under the Gandhian influence, the male ensemble consists of a *dhotar* or *pyjamā*, a long *sadarā* called Nehru shirt and a Gandhi cap. These may not be necessarily handspun and hand-woven. In the urban areas, pants have become quite fashionable and a shirt or bush coat completes the dress. The old footwears have also gone. It is now a chappal, slippers or shoes. The western style of suits, hats, neckties and shoes, which became fashionable under the British rule has also disappeared. Underwears have come into vogue and even striped pyjamās as night-dress has become quite conspicuous in well-to-do house-holds of educated people in particular.

A Hindu woman's dress is the full Marāṭhā *sāḍī* of nine yards and a short-sleeved *coḷī* reaching to the waist covering both the back and chest, the ends being tied in front. This *sāḍī* is known as *lugaḍē* in Marāṭhi and it can be coarse or fine, embroidered, *jari* or silk-bordered and in any gay colour according to taste and means. The mode of wearing it favoured by women of the Brāhman and similar communities is with hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back centre. Marāṭhā ladies allow it to hang from the waist down straight like skirt and draw its end which covers the bosom and back over the head. Sārees of five or six yards in length have become fashionable for the last twenty years among young ladies in the urban centres and they have now even invaded the villages. They are worn cylindrically over a *parkar* or *ghāgrā*, also called petticoat. The old fashioned *coḷī* is also discarded by them. The use of brassiers, blouses, *polkas* and *zumpers* has become quite common. A reversion to new types of *coḷīs* in the form of blouses with low-cut necks, close-fitting sleeves up to the elbow and revealing the region about the lower ribs for a space of about three inches is noticed now-a-days. But such alterations have not succeeded in changing materially the general appearance of the women's dress. Women also use chappals and shoes.

A baby whether a boy or a girl is dressed in a cap called *ṭoparē* or *kuñcī*. For every day use, *aṅgḍīs* and *jhablīs* are sewn. When the baby grows three or four years old, round or folded caps for the head, *sadarā* or *patraṇ* for the upper part and *caḍḍī, tumān* or *coḷṇā*

CHAPTER 3.
The People.
DRESS.

for the lower part are sewn for the use of the boys. Small gowns or *jhagās* and *parkars* are made for the girls. Girls of eight or ten, if they do not keep up putting on frocks, *parkars* and *colis*, may start using a miniature *sadi* without passing the end over her shoulder like a grown-up woman; frocks are becoming fashionable even among college-going girls for the last few years. Hair styles have altered from time to time. The former buns are seen only among grown up and old women. Allowing braided hair on the back is the fashion. Bobbed and cut hair are seen but rarely among Hindu women.

ORNAMENTS.

There is considerable difference between the ornaments used by the urban and the rural people as also by the rich and the poor. A caste-wise, traditional difference is also noticeable. Similarly, ornaments made for men and women and boys and girls are also different. Ladies in the urban areas prefer light and delicate ornaments set in patterns of gold and precious stones. Rich ladies in villages use gold ornaments, but they are heavy and crude. Ornaments used for the feet are always of silver and among the poor even less costly metals, because only princely and royal families can use gold for the feet according to custom. Poor people wear ornaments made of silver, copper, brass, stone and glass beads. Now-a-days cheaper but showy ornaments are getting into fashion. Use of artificial jewellery and glass beads is becoming common. Enormous increase in the price of gold during the last fifty years is responsible for this.

Men have almost given up using any decorative articles now-a-days, though a *sowkar* or a *saraf* may still be met with who wears a pearl ear-ring called *bhikbāli*, a gold wristlet as *poci* and a gold neck-lace called *goph* or *kanṭhā*. A chain of gold or silver round the waist was also fashionable once upon a time even though it could not be sported. A young man taking fancy for a thin gold chain with a locket round his neck is not quite rare. Persons wearing gold rings called *angthis* studded with pearls or precious stones may be seen and those among them who use *pavitraks* profess that they do so on religious grounds. Buttons, links, studs, collar-pins, tie-pins, wrist-watches of precious metals and set with precious stones are used by the rich. Silver *kaḍē* and *kargoṭā* are used by well-to-do villagers and agriculturists.

Fashions in female ornaments have undergone a complete transformation during the last fifty years. Heavy gold ornaments on, all limbs are now not popular. Head ornaments, worn in the hair have almost gone out of fashion. But they used to be found in conservative households till lately; they were *mūd*, *agraphūl*, *rākhḍi*, *ketki-kevḍā*, *gulābācē phūl*, *bindi-bijorā*, *candra-sūrya*, *gonḍe-phul etc*. Ear-ornaments like *caucaḍī* and *kuḍi* of pearls set in gold are still in vogue. Ear-ring of various types are now becoming fashionable. Among the neck-ornaments, *mangaḷasūtra* is the most important which must always be worn by a married woman with her husband alive. It is now-a-days stringed together by different patterns of gold chains. Neck-laces known as *candrahāra*, *caplāhāra*, *jondhaḷipota*, *tāndaḷipota*, *bakuḷhāra* *pushpahāra*, *mohanmāḷa* *putaḷyāci malāa*, *bormāḷa*, *kolhāpurisaj*, *ekdāṇi*,

sari and *vajraṭika*, all of gold and *petyā, pota, lapphā, tanmaṇi* and *peṇḍē*, made of pearls are in current use. Gold bangles of numerous patterns and *Pāṭlyā* known as *toḍicyā, Puraṇācyā Jāḷicyā, pallūcya, phāshyācyā and minyācyā* all made of gold are still current but gradually falling into disuse. Costlier and heavier are *toḍe* of various patterns. Bangles studded with pearls, diamonds and precious stones are also in vogue but only in rich families. Armlets or *vānki* of the types known as *rudragānth, tuḷabandī, hatricyā and moḍvāki* are still in wear. Among the nose ornaments *nath* is the most prominent and a peculiar ornament of Marāṭhā women. It is made in gold frame with pearls and precious stones. Other minor nose decorations are the *morṇī, mugvata, phuli* and *camki*. Children's ornaments are *Bindlya, mangatya, kaditode, vale, tordya sānkhḷyā, hansaḷī* which are made of gold and silver. But, leaving children without ornaments is becoming more fashionable.

FOOD.

Dietary habits of particular sections of the community may be slightly different but broadly speaking the pattern of food is the same in all talukas of Sātārā While in the drier parts, *jowar* bread may be the staple food, in the hilly western parts bread of *nāgli* and rice may be in vogue. Other eatables like fruit and vegetables, milk and its products are consumed by all according to their means. The main dividing line in the food habits may, however, be the inclusion or otherwise of animal food in the diet. Brāhmans, Jains and Lingāyats and such Marāṭhās as have taken a vow to eschew animal food, are ordinarily vegetarians. All other Hindu communities take meat or fish occasionally. Mutton is a favourite item in the diet of the Marāṭhas but beef is scrupulously excluded by all Hindus ; it is indeed considered sacrilegious to eat beef by them.

All agriculturists, artisans and pastoral classes in Sātārā habitually take three meals a day. The fare consists of *jowar* or *bajri*, rice and wheat on occasion, vegetables, (leafy and fruitarian), split pulse and *ḍaḷan* or *zuṇkā* i.e., gram flour boiled with cumin, coriander, chillies, salt, turmeric powder and onions. Chutney made of garlic, chillies and salt is used as an appetiser almost daily. Besides grains, pulses, fruits, spices, oil, curds and butter, they occasionally eat eggs, fowl, meat and other flesh but very few can do so except on festive occasions like weddings, family festivals and days like Dasarā and Hoḷī. To offer an animal to a deity and then take its flesh as *prasād* is common enough. These people have a light breakfast in the morning before starting the day's work. It consists of *bhākri*, chutney and plain water. This is called *nyāhari*. About noon time their meals are taken to the fields or places of work by their women folk or children. This lunch again consists of *jowar or bajri* bread, vegetables and split pulse. It has become common for these people to have a cup of tea also with *nyāhari*. In the evening, between 8 and 9 is taken the supper which consists of bread, rice, milk or buttermilk or curds and some vegetables.

People who are somewhat better off and enjoy a certain social standing like the rich Marāṭhā families, Brāhmaṇ families of land-holders and professionals and others have for their staple food *poḷi*

CHAPTER 3. — The People. FOOD.

or *capati* made of wheat flour, *bhāt* (boiled rice), *varaṇa* (boiled split pulse), *tūp* (clarified butter or ghee), fresh lemon, *bhājī* (vegetables), pickles and jams of various fruits. Milk and curds are necessary ingredients of their food. Flesh and fish are used by meat-eating communities. At the houses of well-to-do people, food is cooked and served by servants but in other families, women usually function as cooks and servers. These people are particular about taking bath and worshipping family gods before taking food and it is customary for them to have guests to dine with them almost every day. A Brāhmaṇ changes into silk cloth for lunch and dinner, but the custom has almost died out. But no one eats with working clothes on. Men and children of the family are seated in different rows on *pāṭs* and by their sides are left clean water-pots and cups. Particular styles of serving eatables in the plates are observed and it is considered uncultured not to conform to them. It is customary for most males of the family to eat *pānsupāri* after meals. Some smoke or chew tobacco. It is usual to sit for meals with upper parts of the body bare. On festive occasions rich dishes like *puraṇaci poḷi, bāsundi, shrikhaṇḍa, lāḍū, puri* etc., are prepared.

AMUSEMENTS.

All Hindu communities have traditionally a religious bent of mind in this district as in others and even their recreation and amusement are not free from a religious veneer or cover. Constantly uttering the name of Rām or Pāṇḍuraṅg or Siva is a favourite pastime of elderly men and women. Attendance at religious discourses such as *purāṇa, pravacana, kirtana* and *bhajana* delivered by professionals in their peculiar styles in which they are trained is common. These are a regular feature of rural and urban life during the rainy season called *cāturmāsa*, but even throughout the year these sessions are quite frequent for one reason or other. The professional readers and reciters of sacred books like the Rāmāyaṇa, Mahābhārata and Bhāgvata are known as *purāṇiks* who are engaged either by a well-to-do person in a village or by a temple management to read *purāṇs*. The readings usually take place in the afternoons. The *pravacanas* given by similarly trained people are usually held at night. They are learned religious discourses by men who are known as *shāstris*. Another form of desirable amusement and instruction is the *kirtana* which is a musical discourse in which religious tenets are discussed philosophically and in the form of anecdotes by the *kirtankār*. He makes a generous use of vocal music by reciting Sanskrit *shlokas* from the religious works and even other Sanskrit literature and also by drawing on the poetical compositions of Marāṭhī poets and saints. A *kirtankar* is also known by the term *haridās* or *haradāsa* meaning servant of Hari or Hara. This is a very popular form of amusement-*cum*-adult education, enjoyed by men and women alike. Even children take lively interest in it.

There are two schools of *kirtankārs* in *Mahārāshṭra*, the Nārada and the Vārkari. The former is favoured by the sophisticated gentry and the latter by the more simple and devotionally minded masses of people.

In the Nārada school, the preacher chooses as his text a Sanskrit saying or verse from some religious book or some lines from some work of one of the Marāṭhī saint-poets for the first part of his performance which is called *pūrvaranga*. He makes a philosophical theme out of it and follows it up in the second part called *uttararanga*, expounding the principle by an illustrative story from the *purāṇas* or history and now-a-days even some recent event of our own times. In the *vārkari* school, the technique of *pūrvaranga*, and *uttararanga*, is not necessarily observed. It is a freer style. The preacher quotes themes by way of reciting *abhanga* or *ovi* rhymes or songs of the saint-poets, one after another and immediately expounds them with illustrations and commentary. Off and on, he pauses and starts a *bhajan* in which not only his accompanists on the *ṭāḷ* and *zāñj* join but even his congregation. In the Nārada style the congregation joins in such a chorus on the direction of the *kirtankār* only in the interval between the *pūrvaranga* and *uttararanga*. Lately, some of these *kirtankārs* have attained considerable proficiency in what is called Hindustāni and Karnāṭak vocal music styles and on that account *kirtana* have tended to be good musical treats.

Bhajan is still another entertainment in which a number of people can simultaneously participate and derive what they consider spiritual happiness. Almost every village has a *bhajan* troupe, which consists of a leading reciter, called *Buvā*, a *mṛdangi* or drum-player, a harmonium player and several *ṭāḷkaris* or cymbal-players. The *buvā* is equipped with a *viṇā* (lute) and a *cipḷi* (castanets). He recites a song, the *mṛdangi* and the harmonium player provide rhythm and tune, the *ṭāḷkaris* pick up the refrain and vociferate it in chorus clicking their *ṭāḷs* in unison. *Gondhaḷ* is an occasional amusement which has been previously described. Theatrical and circus troupes pay occasional visits to fairly populated centres all over the district and offer some entertainment.

Among the young males in particular, the *tamāśā* is a very popular form of entertainment. It is a native species of folk entertainment which includes singing, dancing, dialogue etc. but whose distinguishing feature is the presence of one or two young, lively, vivacious girls in the *tamāśā* troupe, which is known as *bāri*. There are usually five or seven persons in it, who have a considerable histrionic and musical talent. In some troupes, a boy in his teens is dressed as a girl. There is a dancer, a drummer, a comedian or buffoon, two others to keep time, one with a *tuntuṇē* (a string instrument) and the other with a pair of tiny cymbals. Sometimes a *tambourine-player* is also included. If a village possesses its own troupe, it is very proud of it. *Tamāśās* are performed at annual fairs of local shrines, both Hindu and Muslim, where people congregate in large numbers and are in a gay mood especially after the harvesting season. *Tamāśās* are usually performed at night and last till late hours in villages. In towns there are restrictions on time.

The following is a description of the traditional *tamāśā* performance. As soon as the participants in the performance take the stage, they

CHAPTER 3. — The People. AMUSEMENTS.

make an obeisance to the audience. A prayer in chorus is offered which is called *ārati*; then follows a song in praise of Gaṇapati in the age-old practice of beginning anything by invoking his blessings. Then comes the *gavlan* in which the Kṛṣṇā Gopī theme is enacted with characteristic repartees between the playmates of Kṛṣṇa and the milk-maids headed by Rādhā. Kṛṣṇa makes a dramatic appearance on the scene and at the conclusion are sung some songs by the maids with appropriate gestures and movements. *Gavlaṇ* is followed by the farce which is a humorous, if not frivolous, presentation of a story in which the chief role is played by the comedian or buffoon, called *songāḍyā*. The farce is followed by a *sangit bāri*, an item of song and dance by the woman dancer or *nācyā poryā*, the boy dressed as a girl. *Lavṇis*, *jhagḍās* and modern songs from the films, and other popular ones are sung and tuned with dances. Members of the audience sometimes offer small amounts to a particular favourite player, because a particular performance has specially satisfied them. This extra collection is known as *daulatjādā*. After this begins the *vag* or the dramatic presentation of a story. It is often taken from the Purāṇas or history. The *vag* has an indefinite duration from one to three hours. Generally the songs sung in the *vag* are sung by all the participants irrespective of their roles. A prayer is sung at the conclusion of the performance. Plays which have evolved from the *tamāśā* on the Marāṭhī stage have also kept up the *mangalācaraṇ* and the *bharatavākya*. *Tamāśā* as a form of popular amusement has deteriorated into a gross display of sheer vulgarity and obscenity. In order to rid this old art of such aberrations, the then Government of Bombay set up in 1954, a separate Board to examine the scripts and write-ups of *lāvṇīs* etc.

Among the women, singing of devotional songs singly or in chorus and while working in fields and grinding grains to enliven and lighten the work is quite common. Nursery rhymes, *ovis* sung on the swing singly or in chorus and other devotional songs around themes from the Ramāyaṇa and Mahābhārat show considerable imagery and skill in narration of minute details, but these are folk songs and have not been recorded in the printed literature of Marāṭhī language. Of late a tendency among literary research workers is noticeable in this direction *viz*., having them collected and recorded.

COMMUNAL LIFE.

The religious faith of the Hindu agriculturists and labourers, who predominantly hail from the Marāṭhā and Kuṇbī and similar communities is a curious combination of animism and tenets of the Vedic tradition and the Puranik development. They will not be able to say whether they are Saivas or Bhāgavats or Gāṇapatyas. A good number of them are Vārkaris. But they worship all Brāhmanic gods and goddesses like Viṣṇū, Śiva, Lakshmī, Pārvatī, Aṁbā, Gaṇapatī, Viṭhobā, Rakhumāi, but their chief objects of worship are Bhairav, Bhavānī, Bhairobā Jakhāi, Janī, Jokhāī, Kālkī, Khaṇḍoba, Māruti, Mhasobā, Saṭvāi, Tukaī, Vāghobā, Vetāḷ and others. No class adores Khaṇḍobā so much as the Rāmoshis. Māruti also called Hanumān has necessarily at least one shrine in every village, however small

it may be. He is a kindly god also presiding over physical culture. Saṭvāi is the goddess of pregnant and lying-in women. Vetāḷ is the leader of evil spirits. Whenever a villager or a member of his family is regarded as under the influence of an evil spirit, he chooses to propitiate Vetāl with the promise of a goat sacrifice or a fowl to order the lesser spirit to give up its teasing.

Hindus have many sacred or sanctified days during the course of the year, but all are not regarded equally important. Almost every month there is one or other *saṇa* (holiday), an *utsava* (festival), a *jayanti* i.e. birthday anniversary of a god, a saint or a hero or a *jatrā* i.e. fair. Some days are fasting days for individuals only and others for all such as śivarātra.

The first day of the month of Caitra is called *Guḍhīpāḍvā*. It is the new year day according to the Śālivāhana *śaka* (era) and is observed as one of the three and half most important auspicious days in the year, the other two being Kārtika *śuddha* pratipadā (first day of the month of Kārtikā) *Dasarā* of *Vijayādaśmī* (tenth day of the first half of the month of Āśvin) and *Akśaya Tritiyā* (third day in the first half of the month of Vaiśākha which is the half auspicious day). *Guḍhīpāḍvā* is celebrated by setting up in front of one's house a *guḍhī* i.e. a bamboo pole capped with a small silver or brass jar and new silk piece of cloth and a string of flowers hanging to it like a flag. A peculiar ritual of the day is to eat *neem* leaves mixed with sugar early in the morning, have a sumptuous meal at noon and in the evening to visit the leading temple and particularly in villages to hear the *varṣhaphala* i.e. the year's forecast read by the village priest or *joshī* (astrologer).

Holidays.

Rāma's birthday comes on the 9th day of the first half of Caitra. Rāmchandrā is the seventh incarnation of God Viṣṇū and hero of the Rāmāyaṇa. A number of people even fast on this day. People visit the temple of Rāma on that day in gay dress. Exactly at 12 noon the *haridās* announces the birth of Shri Rām by throwing *gulāl* about. A cocoanut dressed as a new born baby is put in a small cradle and swung to and fro. The ceremony closes with *ārati*, distribution of *sunthavḍā* (powdered dry ginger mixed with sugar) and in the evening *kīrtana* takes place. In several places, the previous eight nights also are devoted to *kīrtana*. On the full moon day of Caitra, *Hanumān-Jayantī* is celebrated exactly at sunrise in the same way. It is customary to arrange *kirtans* on the four previous nights preceding *Hanumān-Jayantī*.

Gauripūjā is a ceremony of worshipping Gaurī by organising a *haḷadkuṅku* in most Brāhman, Prabhu and high class Marāṭhā households on any day between the third day of Caitra to the third day of Vaishākha by women. It is a women's day and for a whole month, it is a sight every evening to see women go from house to house in their best dress to participate in *haḷad-kuṅkū*. The idol of Gaurī is decked with flowers and lights are placed before it. It is

an occasion for women to show their decorative skill by making the best possible arrangement of fancy things in the house in front of the Gaurī, and friends, neighbours and even strangers are invited and presented with *halad-kunkū,* wet and soaked gram and some fruit. In the evening even men and near relatives are treated to a light feast of gram pulse preparations and a syrup of raw mangoes. Now-a-days ice-cream is also distributed on this occasion. *Akṣaya-tritīyā* is one of the lucky days and is considered proper by cultivators to begin field activities of the year. *Vaṭapaurṇimā,* the full moon day of Jyeṣṭha, is remembered in the name of Sāvitrī, one of the five faithfulest of women from the Purāṇas. Women go to a banyan tree, worship it and distribute presents among themselves. Brāhmaṇs are given *dakshiṇā.* This worship is restricted to *suvāsinis,* i.e. to married women with their husbands alive. Prayers are offered for long life for husbands.

Ekādaṣī i.e. the 11th day in both the bright and dark halves of every month is a day for prayer and fasting for all devotees of Kṛṣṇa. Elderly men and women observe it in this manner. But two of these days occurring in the first half of Āṣāḍh and Kārtik months are observed by all as fasting-*cum*-prayer days. Even children are not excluded. These days mark the commencement and conclusion respectively, of *cāturmāsa,* which is the period for taking up special vows especially by women. Followers of the *Vārkari* sect go to Paṇḍharpūr on these days to have a *darshan* of Viṭhobā.

The month of Śrāvaṇa is regarded as particularly sacred and dedicated to the worship of Śiva. A number of fasts, feasts and festivals occur in the month. All Mondays are devoted to prayer to Śiva, a half day fast and a feast in the evening. All Fridays are the days of goddess Lakshmī and are called *Sampad Shukravārs* on which women offer special worship. Every Tuesday in this month is devoted by newly wed girls to the worship of Maṅgalāgaurī and at night there is feasting, playing and pranking among themselves by keeping late hours.

Nāgapañcamī, the bright fifth in this month is dedicated to the cobra. Clay cobra or its representation by sandal paste on a *pāṭ* is worshipped and milk preparations are a speciality of the feast on this day. Live cobras brought by Phāsepārdhīs and Gāruḍīs are fed milk. All activities like digging and ploughing are held up as they are believed to hurt the reptile world. In some places women put on their best dress and dance round in a ring keeping time to a song, which they sing collectively.

The full-moon day in Śrāvaṇa is called *Nāraḷī Paurṇimā.* After a hearty meal in the moon, people go to the riverside and propitiate the god of water, Varuṇa by offering cocoanuts in the stream. This is a *Śrāvaṇī* or *upākarma* day for Yajurvedi and Atharvavedī Brāhmaṇs, when old sacred-threads are discarded and new ones worn. The

day is also known as *Povatyāci-Paūrṇimā*. Kuṇbīs and others make a number of hanks of cotton thread of five skeins each and about three feet in circumference. They smear the hank with turmeric paste and throw one round the neck of each of the men and women in the family and around every lamp-stand, cart and other farm implements. The dish for the day is sweetened milk.

Janmāṣṭami, the 8th day in the dark half of Śrāvaṇa, is the day on which Lord Kṛṣṇa, 8th incarnation of Viṣṇū, was born. It is observed as a fasting day by devotees. The birth is regarded as having taken place at midnight. *Kirtan* is performed on the occasion as on three previous nights. The next day is observed as what is called *Dahikālā*. Youths and boys band together and display feats of strength and sleights of hand in the style of boy Kṛṣṇa and his playmates.

The no-moon day in Śrāvaṇa is known as *Piṭhori Amāvāsyā*. It is observed as a fast by women in general, but particularly by those whose children are shortlived or subject to frequent illnesses. This day is observed in some villages as *Poḷā* or *Bendar* which is a peculiarly agricultural festival. It is a day dedicated to bullocks who are fed on sweet dishes and allowed full rest. Clay images of bullocks are gaily painted and worshipped. A procession of decorated bullocks is taken from outside to some temples in the villages.

Gaṇeśa Caturthī comes on the fourth day of Bhādrapada when painted clay figures of Gaṇapatī are purchased, ceremoniously taken home and installed. Worship is offered with the help of priests and a special dish called *modak* is prepared. Rice flour containers stuffed with cocoanut kernel, gul or sugar are made in the sandwich style and offered to the God and eaten heartily as his *prasād*. The image is kept in the house from two days to ten according to family custom and ceremoniously immersed in a well or stream. Since Lokamānya Ṭiḷak popularised it as ten-day festival all over Mahārāshṭra for popular awakening and education, it has become a public festival in Sātārā district, towns and villages as in other places and has thus helped to encourage art, literature, eloquence, musical talent and co-operative spirit among the people. Conjoined with the Gaṇeśa festival on the 7th day of Bhādrapada, women hold a feast for three days in honour of Pārvatī or Gaurī, mother of Gaṇeśa. A brass or clay mask of the goddess is duly installed near the idol of Gaṇapatī, worshipped and then ceremoniously left in river or streams.

On the third and fifth days of Bhādrapada come *Haritālikā* and *Ṛṣi-Pañcamī* which are observed as fasting days particularly by Brāhmaṇ women. The *Haritālikās*, i.e., small clay images of Pārvatī and her companion are installed and worshipped by married women and young girls in honour of Pārvatī who successfully resisted her father's wish to marry her to Viṣṇū and married Śiva whom she loved. *Ṛṣi-Pañcamī* is observed by elderly women in honour of

CHAPTER 3.
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The People.
COMMUNAL LIFE.
Holidays.

ancient Arya sages and seers. On that day nothing that is produced by the labour of cattle or any other animal is to be eaten; only hand grown fruits and vegetables and grains constitute diet for this day.

The second half of Bhādrapada is known as *Pitṛpakṣa*, the fortnight of forefathers, and is held sacred to the spirits of ancestors. On the day of this fortnight which corresponds to the day of the father, a *sapiṇḍa śrāddha* is performed by a son. The 9th day, known as *Avidhāvā navami* is dedicated to unwidowed mothers and the 15th day is known as *Sarvapitri Amāvāsyā* and it is reserved for all ancestors whose worship might have been left out.

The *Navarātra* festival begins from the first day of Āśvina and lasts ten days, the first nine being known as *Navarātra* (nine nights) and the last as *Dasarā*, the 10th. An earthen jar filled with water with a cocoanut on the top is worshipped in honour of the goddess Aṁbābāi. On the tenth they worship weapons and field tools and so the day is also known as *Āyudhapūjā* day. Children worship their books and a function in honour of Sarasvati is held in schools. This is a feasting day in every house. *Vijayā-daśamī* is the third name by which Dasarā is known. It was the custom in olden times in this district for Marāṭhā soldiers and *shiledārs* to start on their expeditions and therefore they crossed the borders of their respective villages. The day came to be known as *seemollanghana* day. Even now this practice is symbolically preserved by people by gathering on the border of a village or near a temple in it and worshipping a heap of Āpṭā or Śamī branches and twigs with a Brāhmaṇ priest to officiate. The Āpṭā or Śamī leaves are procured and exchanged as gold among themselves.

The full moon day of *Āśvina* is known as *kojāgiri Paurṇimā* as also *Navānna Paurṇimā*. Agricultural communities celebrate it with great happiness. They spend the whole day working in fields and even take their lunch there. Five dishes and sweetened milk are offered in worship to a configuration of six stones representing the five Paṇḍavas and their mother Kuntī and then enjoy the feast. On their way home they pluck some ears of the new crops and put them in a string as a bunting on the entrance to the house. At night people keep awake and play different games and take sweetened milk because the belief is that Goddess Lakṣmī goes about everywhere and does not bless one who sleeps instead of keeping awake on this night.

Divāḷi or *Deepāvali* festival signifying "a feast of lights" starts from the 13th of the second half of Āśvina and lasts for six days. Every evening earthen lamps called *paṇtis* are lighted in all house frontage as also in every nook and corner of the house. The first day is known as *Dhanatrayodaśi*. On the day women and girls take a special bath and the day is devoted to special cleaning and preparing sweet dishes. On the 14th, which is called *Naraka Caturdaśi*

men and boys take a special bath called *abhyanga*, by besmearing oil and fragrant materials to their bodies. The whole day is spent in feasting and merry making and visiting friends and relatives. The no-moon day is devoted to the worship of Laxmī. Merchants and tradesmen celebrate this day by holding Lakṣmī-pūjana and asking friends and customers to *Pānsupāri*. The next day is the first day of the month of Kārtika marking the beginning of the commercial new year. It is called *Balipratipadā* in honour of the Bali, who was a benefactor of agriculturists, but who is known to have been put down in the nether world by Vāmana, one of the incarnations of Viṣṇū. Wives adore their husbands by waving a small lighted lamp before them and get a suitable present. The last day of the festival is called *Bhāūbeej*, when brothers visit their sisters and dine at their houses. Sisters wave a lighted lamp in the face of the brothers and receive presents. The *Divāḷi* festival is the king of all Hindu festivals.

On the 12th of Kārtika it is usual to celebrate the marriage of Tulāsi (holy basil) with Viṣṇū as if it was a human marriage. The Hindu marriage season is regarded to begin with this celebration and parents start a search for suitable husbands for their daughters. New tamarind and *āvaḷā* fruit and sugarcane are considered ripe for consumption from this day.

The full moon day of *Kārtika* known as Tripuri *Paurṇimā* is celebrated in memory of Śiva's victory over the demon Tripurāsura. *Deepmālās* or stone lamp-pillars in front of temples have a big fire lighted on their tops and all niches carrying lighted earthen lamps.

Makara Sankrānta comes in the month of Paush which coincides with January 14th when the Sun enters the *Makara Rāshi* (The zodiac sign Capricornus). It is marked with a feast in honour of god Sun. Men and women in their gay dresses go about and exchange *til-gūḷ* (*sesame sweet*) and *halvā* as greeting of the season. One says to the other "Take this *til-gul* and speak honied words". The day previous to *Sankrānta* is called *Bhogī* on which a special dish called *khicaḍi* (rice and mug pulse boiled together with salt and condiments) is offered to the gods and eaten. The day following *Sankrānta* is known as *Kinkrānta*. Among the Brāhmaṇas, for the first five years after her wedding, a newly married girl celebrates the day with generous distribution of some useful article to *suvāsinis*.

Mahāśivarātra comes on the 14th day of the dark half of *Māgha* which is observed as a fasting day by devotees of *Śiva*. Special worships are offered by Brāhmaṇs by recitals of Rudra hymn from the Yajurveda. The night is spent in singing devotional songs or performance of *Kirtana* in Śiva's temple in which a community dinner is also held.

The last festival of the year is *Śimgā* or *Hoḷi*. The advent of this festival is eagerly awaited in the countryside by both old and young. The main day of this festival is the full moon day of Phālguna, but

CHAPTER 3. — The People. COMMUNAL LIFE. Holidays.

small boys begin to rehearse it from the 5th day by burning bonfires every day and wakeful nights of sports. On the Paurṇimā, the special dish of the day is *puranpoḷi* wheatcakes stuffed with sugar and crushed gram pulse. In the afternoon, a plantain tree, bearing fruit or a long pole of some other tree is fixed, a stone is worshipped at the bottom of the pole and fuel and cow-dung cakes are piled in a heap and set on fire. The next day called *Dhuḷvad* is also observed as a holiday. There used to be a boisterous indulgence in an exchange of mud-slinging and other wayward cranks like filthy abuse of one another. But with more and more of education and enlightenment such practices are dying out even from rural areas. In towns, it is customary to organise sports tournaments on this holiday. The dark fifth of Phālguna is called *Raṅga-pañcamī* when coloured water is sprinkled with or without syringe by young and old against all and sundry and no one is expected to take offence. However, this indulgence and playful atmosphere does not prevail so much in the Deccan as it does in north India and therefore not in Sātārā also.

GAMES.

Though not to the same degree as in Kolhāpūr, even Sātārā is famous for its gymnasiums and the athletes, and gymnasts that are trained in them from early childhood. There are also expert swimmers in every village and even towns like Wāi, Karāḍ and Sātārā Learning to swim from early age is normal for them and a few distinguish themselves in swimming across the Krishnā and Koynā when they are fully swollen in the monsoons. A *tālim* is usually managed by a committee of notables of the locality. Funds are raised by public subscription to maintain it as also for initial equipment and construction and holding tournaments in the Gaṇesh and Satyanārāyaṇ festivals, local fairs and *urus* celebrations. One or two senior and experienced persons known as *ustāds* are masters who train young men and they are highly respected. When there are no special buildings available, even a Māruti temple or a primary school house is used as an *ākhāda*. Lathis, *bothāṭhis, farigadgās, lezims, dāṇḍpaṭṭa, malkhāmb, karelā, joḍjoḍis, battis,* heavy stone balls and *nālis* (stone wheels) and some times dumb-bells and modern weight-lifting apparatus are included in the equipment of a *tālim* or *ākhāḍā*. Every *tālim* has a *haudā* i.e. wrestling arena in which knee-deep red-earth, powdered and oiled, is poured for wrestling bouts. A portrait of Mārutī usually adorns the walls of the *ākhāḍā*. These *ākhāḍās* usually aim at turning out good wrestlers. Bouts are arranged between young and mature athletes of different *tālims* or with athletes from far off places. A winner is usually awarded an amount of money. In villages, the annual challenge meeting usually held on the day before *Vijayādashmi* is a great event. A handsome prize in the form of a bracelet, armlet, turban or precious piece of cloth is given to the winner. A *hagāmā,* that is organised wrestling bouts is a feature of any *jatra* or *urus*.

A number of major games are played in the district in the school and college playgrounds as also in the countryside. Indian games do not need much equipment except a well-made playground. *Huṭūtū, kho-kho, laṅgaḍī, āṭyāpāṭya, viṭidaṇḍu* and *lagorya* are some

of these. These games are popular in every district, with some local variations in the rules of the game concerned. Standardised forms have now been evolved by the Akhil Mahārāshṭra Śārīrika Shikshaṇa Maṇḍaḷ which are now widely adopted and strictly observed when the games are played in contested tourneys.

It is only in towns that cricket, football, tennis and badminton etc. are played mostly in schools and colleges. Lawyers have here and there a tennis club. Gymkhanas are only in places like Sātārā and Karāḍ where play in cards is met with. Chess and *Gañjifas* are becoming scarce as domestic games. A number of forms of recreational activity are traditionally known to the people and are practised in the households of the rich and the poor.

In the play activities of infancy and early childhood, toys predominate over games. Babies are fascinated by multicoloured rattlers i.e. *Khuḷkhuḷās* and toys that make various sounds such as all kinds of pipes, whistles, drums and tamborines. But a doll and toys on wheels take their place soon enough. A *pāṅguḷ-gāḍā*, with the help of which a child learns to walk and run is a common sight. Children of five or six play a few simple games taking part in them by turns. *Śivāśivī* is a simple chase and tag game in which one of the children becomes a chaser and others run. The chase is simple with little or no dodging and the tagged player becomes the next chaser. Children love swinging as they have cultivated a taste for it from the cradle and a swing was necessarily part of domestic equipment in old fashioned houses. At this age, the *golāṇṭī uḍī* is also an enticing pastime requiring a little venturesome spirit on the part of a child because the child has to put his head to the ground and swinging its legs and body backwards, has to land supine facing the sky.

Games of the imitative or make-believe type wherein various roles like those of a cartman, a horse-driver, an engine-driver, a music-player, a hawker etc., are mimiced so as to conform with reality are a particular attraction of early childhood. There are no set rules for such games but the team spirit showed by all participants in the play is admirable. Horse-play or *ghoḍā-ghoḍā* is played in many ways, usually two children stand one behind the other in the roles of driver and horse and both run forward, the driver holding the horse by its garment. Sometimes, a rope is passed from the back of the neck of the horse and the driver holds in one of his hands the two ends of the rope and carries a whip in the other. Another way is for the horse to move on all fours with a rider on his back. Horse and rider is also played by a single child by holding a stick between his legs, one of the ends resting on the ground behind and other held in the hands. *Pālkhī* is usually played by three. The two stand facing each other each gripping with his hand his left elbow and with this left hand, the right elbow of his friend opposite. In the armsquare so founded, they carry the third who sits with his arms resting on the shoulder's of the two. *Āg-gāḍī* or train is just a queue of children each holding the garment of the one in front of him. The engine-driver is at the head, at the tail is the guard and in between are

"wagons". The guard whistles and gives the signal, the wagons get ready to move and the engine speeds up, all children making a sound in imitation of the sound a moving train makes.

Among little girls, doll-dressing and doll-marriage are a favourite pastime. *Bhātukali* or house keeping is often played enthusiastically by girls with secondary roles being given to boys. Doll's marriage can be played separately or as part of *Bhātukali* when planned on a grand scale. *Gadya-gadya-bhingorya* is a game of whirls in which children go round and round themselves till the quaint sensation of giddiness sets in.

Children of ages between five and ten play a number of other chase and tag games. *Chappā-pāṇī* is a tag game in which the restriction on the chaser is that he cannot touch a player who sits down and the restriction on him is that he cannot get up and begin to run until helped by some player on his feet. In Blind Man's Buff, called *Aṇḍhaḷī Koshimbīr* in Marāṭhī, the blind-folded player tries to tag any one that comes within his reach in the well-defined playing arena. The game of hide and seek is called *Lapaṇḍāv* in Marāṭhī. The seeker stands facing a wall with his eyes closed by one of the players called *bhojyā* while the others hide themselves somewhere in the house. After all the players have found hiding places for themselves, they call out *Koo-Koo-Re-Koo*. The seeker's eyes are unfolded by the *Bhojyā* and he begins to search the hidden players while they come out of their hiding places and try to touch the *Bhojyā* as quickly as possible. In *Una-Una Sāvalī*, the playing area consists of an open sun-lit place with spots of shaded places scattered all over. The chaser stands in sunlight and tries to tag only those who do not happen to be under some shade. In *Sāt-Ṭaḷyā*, the chaser faces a player from the group while others stand near the latter, ready to run away. The facing player gives the chaser seven claps, the last being the signal to run. The players run followed by the chaser who tries to tag one of them. In all these chase and tag games, the player who is tagged becomes the chaser and the game starts afresh. In all these games boys and girls below 10 years of age usually join.

For boys between the ages of six and sixteen, marbles (*Goṭyā*), top (*Bhovrā*) and kite-flying (*Patang*) have much attraction. For hitting a marble by another, the spring action of the drawn up middle finger is usually used by the player. Each instance of correct aiming adds to the delight of player and incites the other to compete with zeal. For "spinning the top" the top is twisted with a long string or twine piece, one end of which is held between the middle and the ring finger. The top is held between the thumb and the index finger and whipped on the ground so as to land spinning on its spike. Once mastery over the spin is acquired more skilful top games are contested. The *Sankrānta* season is particularly popular for kite-flying. Hoisting a kite up is as good as a challenge to anybody to have a kite contest. Each boy so handles his kite as to

cut off the thread of the opponent's kite. For these contests, a special thread is used. It is treated with powdered glass glued to the thread by gum.

In later childhood and adolescence a number of team games are energetically and boisterously played chiefly by boys. *Badā-badī* or *Rapā-rapī* is one of them. A soft ball of rags or rubber is tossed up in air for all to catch and the player who succeeds in catching it tries to hit with the ball any other player who tries to dodge. This game can continue as long as the players are pleased to play at it. *Tobā* is a variant of *kho-kho* in which about 20 boys can join. They sit in a circle facing in and one of them runs around the circle with a *tobā* which is a well-knotted piece of cloth, which he quietly and quickly puts behind one of those who make the circle. If the player is alert and feels the touch of something having been kept behind him, he immediately picks up the *tobā* and chases the player who dropped it behind him. The latter must reach the place vacated by the former very quickly to avoid being hit by the *tobā*. If the seated player fails to detect the *tobā* put behind him, the chaser completing the round picks up the *tobā* and with it beats and chases the " dullard " till he takes one round and resumes his seat.

In *Wāgh-Bakrī* one of the players becomes *wāgh* (tiger), another a shepherd (*dhangar*) and the rest become lambs (*bakryā*). They line up behind the shepherd each holding the one in front by the waist. The shepherd handles a knotted piece of cloth for the protection of his lambs and inspite of all the beating that he gets the tiger makes repeated attempts till he catches hold of all the lambs. *Sūrpārambī* is particularly popular among the cowherds who take cattle away in open spaces, waste lands and forests for grazing. From a circle drawn on the ground under a tree a player throws away a stick as far as he can. By the time the " thief " runs for the stick and restores it in the circle all others climb up the tree. The game lies in the players from the tree jumping from or climbing down the tree and touching the stick before they are tagged by the thief. The one who is tagged becomes the next thief. In *kurghoḍī*, there are two teams of equal members. One acts as horses and others as riders. The leader horse bends before a wall for support and others bend and file behind him each holding the one in front by the waist. The riders one by one take a start, jump, run and ride a horse; the leader rider closes with one hand the eyes of the horse and asks to tell the number of fingers of the other hand held before him. If the horse tells the correct number, all the riders get down and the teams exchanging their parts, the game is resumed.

The difference between the play interests of girls and boys is such as cannot be overlooked. Girls generally prefer amusements like doll-dressing and are greatly interested in dancing, skipping, and singing. Boys, on the other hand, love to play strenuous games involving muscular dexterity and skill. Some of the games in which girls may be said to specialise are *sāgargoṭe* and all kinds of *phugḍyā*.

CHAPTER 3. — The People. GAMES.

Sāgargoṭe is a sedentary game. Big round seeds (*gaige*), pebbles or shreds of pottery serve as ready material. Five or any other larger odd number of these are thrown up into the air and caught in both the palms facing upwards. Thus each player goes on playing till she exhausts all the pebbles. In a more complex form of the game, the player throws all the pebbles on the ground, picks one of these, tosses it up in the air, and before catching it again, picks up one, two and sometimes even three or four or five pebbles all at once. The tag games mentioned before may be said to be more popular with girls than boys. *Phugḍyā* is a typically native game usually played by girls in pairs. Two girls stand facing each other, keep their feet together with a distance of two or three inches between the toes, cross arms, keep them straight and hold each other's arms, balance the body backwards and each time, stopping the right foot a few inches to the right and sliding the left along with it, start an anti-clockwise movement. As the footwork quickens, the movement gathers in tempo till the players get swung in a whirl. They sing jocular couplets and blow rhythmic breathing sounds with the mouth known as *pakvā* to keep time and lend zest to the dance.

Various types of *phugaḍis* are played. In *daṇḍa-phugaḍī*, the players hold each other by the upper arm (daṇḍa); in *nakulyā*, they interlock their fingers in a hooked grip. In *basa-phugaḍī*, one player keeps moving with bent knees while the other is comparatively erect or only slightly bent. *Ekahātāci phugaḍī* is played with only one hand engaged in the grip and the other resting on the hip. In *Loḷaṇa phugaḍī*, the players bend the legs and hold the great toes and then start rolling on the back and then sit. In *bhui phugaḍī*, the dancers start with a full squatting position and arms resting on the knees and then scrape the feet alternately in oblique kicks balancing the steps with backward and forward movements of the arms. *Jhimmā, kombḍā and pingā* are other forms. There are no whirling movements in pairs in these forms. They are callisthenic movements repeated with rhythm of songs and *pakwā* and acted in pairs and groups, they lead to a competitive zest and verve.

It is customary for people to gather in large crowds in places of pilgrimage on account of anniversaries of *avatārs* or in celebration of days dedicated to deities or fairs at places traditionally held sacred.

MUSLIMS.

The only numerically important community in Sātārā other than the Hindus are the Muslims. According to the 1951 Census 47084 is the number of Muslims i.e., only 3·2 per cent of the total population. Generally speaking they may be regarded as similar in social composition to their co-religionists in Kolhāpūr and Sāngli. Over 80 per cent. are classified under three family names Saiyads, Paṭhāṇs and Shaikhs. There are few families styled as Moghals. Apart from such nomenclature, many are known by the occupations they follow such as Atārs, Nālbands, Maṇiārs, Bāgvāns etc. Most of them were originally Hindus who after embracing Islam took the name Shaikh

or Paṭhāṇ or Saiyad from the religious or military leader under whom they served. Some of them have some strain of Arab, Abyssinian, Persian, Moghal and of upper Indian blood.

But for the fact that some of the Muslims flaunt the beard and have the head shaved clean, they differ little in look from local Hindus. Except the Bohorās, Khojās and Memans who have comparatively recently came from Gujarāt to the district in the wake of trade and business, all Mussalmans are like the Marāṭhās and Kuṇbīs. They speak corrupt Hindustani with a fair mixture of Marāṭhī words, the intonation and accent being nearer to Marāṭhī than to north Indian Urdu. This is true as much of women as of men.

Houses.

The houses of Muslims do not differ very much from those of others. In towns the well-to-do live in two-storeyed houses with stone and cement walls and tiled roofs and surrounded by a compound. The bulk of the Muslim houses have at the front and the back four to five feet high walls of stones to ensure privacy. Those who observe purdāh rather strictly, live in such houses. Most of the houses are tile-roofed cottages with brick walls and plastered with mud and cowdung. Houses of well-to-do people have more rooms, the front room being used as a *divāṇkhānā*, i.e., men's sitting room and reception room with a few mats, carpets and cushions. Middle rooms are bed-rooms one of which is wholly used by women. The kitchen consists of store-room and cook-room at the back. Village houses are much like poor town houses, one difference being that they have no wells. Women bring water from ponds or rivers.

Food.

Town Muslims take two meals a day, breakfast at about 9 a.m. of millet or wheat bread, pulse, mutton and vegetables and the supper at night at about 8 or 9. It consists of boiled rice, mutton and pulse if possible and bread with pulse and *chuteny* of chillies, if poor. Muslims in villages and some rich town Muslims have three meals a day, villagers taking a cold breakfast about 7 in the morning before going to their fields, a midday meal in the field and supper on reaching home at night. The rich add to the usual two meals a cup of tea or milk with bread in the morning immediately after rising. The staple food of villagers is millet bread, pulse and vegetables. Though all Muslims are non-vegetarians, very few can afford meat even occasionally. All Muslims, however, manage to get mutton on holidays like Bakr-Id. No local Muslims are particularly fond of beef but Bohorās and Memans prefer it. Buffalo beef is not taken by any Muslims but fowls, eggs and fish are taken whenever available. Muslims insist on flesh being made available by killing animals according to Koranic injunctions. Muslim tradesmen take tea or coffee and peasants take tea or milk with bread. Tobacco smoking, chewing and snuffing is common among all.

Dress.

Most Sātārā Muslims dress in Hindu style. But *śerwāṇi* and *pyjamā* have an impress of traditional wear. *Chuḍidār pyjamās* and *salwārs* are also worn in immitation of Utter Pradesh and Punjābi Muslims.

CHAPTER 3.
—
The People.
MUSLIMS.
Dress.

The tendency among youth is, however, to take to trousers and shirt or bush-shirt. At the time of prayer a Muslim wears a *lungi* (loin-cloth) and *pairan*. Indoors, men put on a head-scarf, a waistcoat and waist or loin-cloth; out of doors on all occasions, men wear a flowing turban, a coat, trousers and shoes, especially on festive occasions. Muslim women dress like Marāṭhā women using a *sāri* and *coli*. The Bohorās, Khojās and Memans use preformed turbans and put on loose trousers and shirts and long coats while going out. Their women put on a petticoat, backless bodices, and a head scarf (*oḍhṇi*). Their shirts are loose and reach the knee. Rich and middle class women alone observe *purdāh* and put on a black veil with only holes for the eyes while going out.

It is not customary for men to wear any ornaments except marriage or engagement rings of gold or silver. Women are given a number of ornaments at the time of marriage in keeping with the husband's means. Parents also make ornaments as marriage presents. Necklaces like *ṭhuśi* and *bormāḷ* are worn by Muslim women like Marāṭhā women.

Among Muslims as in other communities, most people are agriculturists, whether owners, tenants or labourers. But some of them living in towns are traders, craftsmen and artisans. Women of these people earn as much as men do. Most Sātārā Muslims are Sunnis, only Bohorās and Khojās being Shia. They respect the same *Kāzi*, pray in the same mosque and bury in the same graveyard.

Being unwilling and sometimes forced converts to Islam generations ago, Sātārā Muslims are not bigoted and even do not care very much for what are considered essential Muslim rites and rituals. They do not appear to be very particular about circumcision of boys nor about marriage or death rites being conducted by a *kāzi*. The *bismillā* (initiation) and *akika* (sacrifices) ceremonies are often neglected owing partly to ignorance and partly to poverty. Attendance for prayers at a mosque is rare, but they are careful for prayers on Bakr-Id and during Ramzān. Ramzān fasts are also observed. Their traditional religious ministrants are the *kāzi* (*judge*) who now acts mainly as a marriage registrar, the *khatib* (preacher) the *mullā* or *maulānā* i.e., priest and the *mujāvar* (beedle), but these offices have now practically disappeared and services at the mosque are led by any *maulavi* or learned laymen. The *bāngi* (call-giver) keeps the mosque clean, shouts the prayer-call five times a day and calls guests to marriage and other ceremonies. Except Bohorās and Khojās, all Muslims believe in Pirs (saints) to whom they pray for children or health and offer gifts to them. Most craftsmen and agriculturists believe in Khaṇḍobā, Mhasobā, Mariāi and Saṭvāi, like the Hindu Marāṭhās and Kuṇbis to whom they make gifts, offer vows and worship publicly or privately. Hājis among Sātārā Muslims are rare because few can afford an excursion to Mecca and Medina but it is customary among them to attend fairs of local Muslim saints in Sātārā or other districts.

CHAPTER 3.

The People.

MUSLIMS.

Marriage.

As far as birth, marriage and funeral rites are concerned, the Sātārā Muslims follow the same customs and practices as the Muslims in Sāngli and Kolhāpur do. Offer of marriage comes from the groom's parents. After the girl is approved, the parents of both the bride and the groom consult the *kāzi* and *maulānā* regarding the birth stars of the couple to be. That settled favourably, dowry is paid for the girl to her father according to the terms fixed. This practice is true of poor and lower middle class families. Well-to-do people bear their own expenses. Among them, it is found difficult to find suitable husbands for girls, because caste endogamy and observation of some Hindu marriage customs still prevail in rural areas. Betrothal takes place about a year before marriage on a lucky day fixed by the *kāzi* when the groom sends a present of a green *sāri*, *coli* and *todās* to the bride and the bride's father sends him a turban a silver-ring and a silk kerchief.

On the eve of the marriage, a booth is built in front of the house with the *muhurtmedh* (lucky post) planted in the ground at a lucky moment. At night the *rajjaka* is held in which a series of songs and hymns in praise of Allāh are sung by the women of the family to the accompaniment of drums. While the music goes on, *gulgulas* (small stuffed wheat cakes) and *rahims* (boiled rice flour balls made with milk, sugar and rose water) are heaped in the name of Allāh in two miniature pyramids, one for the bride and the other for the groom. After offering red cotton cord, flowers and burnt incense to the heaps, they are broken and the cakes and balls are distributed among the women. Next day a woman with her husband alive marks the bridegroom's clothes with turmeric paste without making him aware of it. This is called *cor halad* (secret turmeric) which is followed by *sāv halad* (public turmeric) ceremony in which the bride and the groom are rubbed with the turmeric paste each separately and one after the other. This is followed by the *biyapari* feast at which incense is burnt in the name of Allāh. Friends and relations make presents of clothes to the parents of the bride and the groom. A feast of *pulāv* (rice cooked with mutton) is given to all male guests.

The ceremony of turmeric-rubbing is followed by that of *tel mehendi* (oil and henna). The henna paste is brought from the bride's house by the bride's sister or who officiates for her. She sits behind a curtain, rubs the paste on the groom's palms and gets a present. The paste is then applied to the palms and soles of the bride. About ten at night on the marriage day, the bridegroom's friends and kinsmen seat him on horseback and escort him to the bride's house in a procession. The bridegroom is dressed in a *jāmā* (long coat) and a *mandil* (flowing turban) and over the dress a cloak of jasmine and other flowers covers the body from head to foot. After arrival at the marriage hall, the groom and party are received and seated by the bride's relations and friends. The *kāzi* is summoned to register the marriage. Two *vakils* (agents) and two witnesses, one for the bride and the other for the groom stand before the *kāzi* and declare that they have agreed to this marriage

CHAPTER 3. — The People. MUSLIMS. Marriage.

and are ready to hear evidence. Before this the witness should have directly approached the bride and after repeating the name of the groom and his age should have taken her consent to accept him as her husband. After hearing personally the bride's consent, they declare the same before the *kāzi* and the assembled guests. The *kāzi* then asks the bride's father and the groom to sit opposite each other, hold each other's right hand and registers the marriage. After registration and payment of the dowry fixed, the groom announces to all present that he has chosen the bride as his wife with the said sum of dowry. The bride's father says that he has given his daughter to the groom as his wife in marriage with all lawful ceremonies. The groom then embraces his father-in-law, shakes hands with him and bows to all present. Till late hours in the morning the groom sits in the hall listening to music and witnessing dancing by girls. About dawn he is called in to the women's apartment by the bride's brother. The bride and groom are asked to sit on a cot and look at each other's face. The *kāzi* takes a little sugar in his hand and asks the groom whether the sugar is sweet or his wife is sweet. He answers that Al Koran is sweeter and the sweetest. The couple look at each other in a mirror and placing a hand on the other's back bow five times to Allāh. The bride and groom are taken in *varāt* at noon. The bride sits in a carriage and the groom rides a horse and escorts the bride to his house. On reaching the front gate, he is welcomed by sisters and cousins who before allowing him to come in make him promise that he would give his daughters in marriage to their sons.

Divorce.

The Korāṇ does not demand any justification from a Muslim husband if he wants to divorce his wife. A woman claims divorce on the ground of ill-treatment, insufficiency of maintenance and impotence on the part of the husband. But divorces are few and far between owing probably to the poverty which acts as a deterrent. The divorce given by a man is called *talāq*. In case of the woman she has to apply to a *kāzi* for divorce and it is called *khala*. Divorces are not looked upon with derogation. If a widow with children is married for the second time, her children by the first husband are looked after by the deceased husband's relatives without any encumbrance on the new husband.

Death and Funeral.

Muslims bury their dead. When there is death, some relative in company of a *mullā* goes to the market and buys a shroud 75 feet long for a man and 90 feet long for a woman. Rose-water, scents, sulphuret of antimony, aloe-lights frankincense and yellow earths are the other articles needed in a funeral. In the case of a woman frankincense oil and a flower-net are additional articles needed. The dead body is washed clean and laid on back on a wooden board. The *mullā* writes, "There is no God but Allāh and Mohammed is his Prophet" in aloe-powder on the chest and forehead of the dead and puts pieces of camphor at all joints of the dead-body. The body is then wrapped in the shroud and placed in *janaza* (bier) and carried to the graveyard.

As the body is borne to the grave-yard, the men accompanying the party keep on repeating *Kalmā-i-Shahādat* and other verses from the Korāṇ as they proceed. The bearers keep on changing and relieving one another. At the *Idgā* (prayer place) all kneel and pray. As the grave is being filled, every one puts a little earth. When the grave is closed, there are other prayers said known as *khatmas*. On reaching home of the dead also the *khatmas* are repeated. On the first day after the funeral, the mourners are fed by their friends and relations. On the third the *ziyārat* is held. This means that the mourners go to the burial ground, whitewash the tomb and lay flowers, *sabjā* (basil Ocymum pilosum) and sweet-meats beside it. Feasts in memory of the dead are held on the 10th and 20th day and a grand feast on the 40th day. On this day a garland of flowers is kept hanging from the centre of the roof on a large platter filled with a number of savoury dishes and the mourners burn incense before the platters, offering prayers for the soul of the dead. Then there is a funeral feast. In the evening Korāṇ is read. This is called *maulad*. The *maulānā* is paid for his funeral services. According to Muslim law, the only form of mourning is that the widow of the dead be kept in strict seclusion for 50 days.

CHAPTER 4—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

INTRODUCTORY.

INTRODUCTORY.

It is intended to devote this part of the volume to a detailed account of the economic life in Satara district. The chapters that follow deal at length with Industries, Banking, Trade and Commerce, Communications and Miscellaneous Occupations. The account begins with a detailed description of the agricultural economy of the district. However, to give the reader a bird's-eye view of the various economic aspects of the life of the people, these chapters are preceded by a summary of what is to follow. This will serve as an introduction to the description of the economic organisation of the district. In continuation of this, similar attempt is also made in the chapter, 'Economic Trends' which is divided into two sections, 'Standard of Life' and 'Economic Prospects'. The former briefly describes the material requisites enjoyed by people belonging to various strata of social life in the district within the framework of existing resources at their disposal. The latter analyses the possibilities of economic development in all the spheres of economic life in the future having regard to economic potentialities of the district and the planned efforts of the Government.

Population.

It is not possible to analyse the changes in the structure of population since the publication of Old Gazetteer (1885) mainly because present district of Satara emerged in 1948 as a result of the partition of the former Satara district into two units (the other being Sangli) and their reconstitution consequent upon the merger of the adjoining princely states (like Aundh, Bhor, Phaltan, Miraj, Sangli, etc.) and other territorial adjustments. The census of 1951 returned 11,75,309 persons as inhabitants of Satara district. The pace of urbanisation is very slow and the district continues even today to be predominantly agricultural; as much as 9,07,165 or nearly 77 per cent. of the population depending upon agriculture as their principal means of livelihood and 1,55,561 or nearly 13 per cent. following it as their subsidiary or secondary means of livelihood.

Of the total population of 11,75,309 in 1951, 2,74,935 were self-supporting persons; 2,18,412 earning dependents and 6,81,962 non-earning dependents. The agricultural class (i.e., those depending upon agriculture as their principal means of livelihood) numbered 9,07,165. This comprised 2,05,189 self-supporting persons; 1,90,724

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

INTRODUCTORY.

Population.

earning dependents and 5,11,252 non-earning dependents. Following another basis of classification, the agricultural class comprised, (i) 7,96,371 cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents, (ii) 22,646 cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents, (iii) 46,456 cultivating labourers and their dependents, and (iv) 41,692 non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents. Persons in the category of non-agricultural classes (i.e., those whose principal means of livelihood were pursuits other than agriculture), taken together stood at 2,68,144 and were composed of 69,746 self-supporting persons; 27,688 earning dependents and 1,70,710 non-earning dependents. This class was also distributed as under: (i) Production other than cultivation 1,04,422; (ii) Commerce 42,923; (iii) transport 7,277 and (iv) other services and miscellaneous sources 1,13,522. There were several persons among the population who, in addition to their principal means of livelihood had a secondary occupation. Agriculture provided secondary occupation to 2,17,316 persons and non-agricultural pursuits to 64,550 persons.

Cultivated area.

Of the total area of nearly 26 lakh acres, cultivated area covered about 70 percent. or 18,08,100 acres and forests about 14 per cent. or 3,66,500 acres. The forests are situated in the west particularly in Mahabaleshwar, Wai and Jaoli talukas. The average rainfall for the district as a whole except Mahabaleshwar taluka is nearly 33″, whereas for Mahabaleshwar taluka, the average is about 260″. However, it varies from 20″ in eastern part of Khandala peta, Man and Phaltan talukas to 125″ in western parts of Jaoli, Wai, Patan and Satara talukas and Khandala peta. Agriculture in the district depends mainly on rainfall. In 1955-56, the total cropped area was 18,08,100 acres of which 1,89,100 acres or 10·5 per cent. were under irrigation. Irrigation by wells is more common in eastern and central parts of the district. Tanks and *bandharas* provide another source of irrigation. Among the major irrigation works in the district, Nira Right Bank Canal and Krishna Left Bank Canal deserve special mention. Canals irrigated 54·7 per cent. of the net area irrigated and wells 43·6 per cent. Canal irrigation in sugarcane tract of Phaltan taluka is well-known. The major perennial rivers that run through the district are Krishna and Koyna. It is only after the completion of Koyna Project that the waters of these rivers will be harnessed for enhancing irrigation facilities.

Soils of the district fall under three main categories, viz., medium black to deep black soils: *malran* or lighter soils and red or laterite soils. The broadest belt of the medium black soil along Krishna valley is best suited for garden crops. Lighter soils are well suited to the cultivation of bajra while red or laterite soils are used for producing either rice through *kumri* cultivation or fruits requiring cold climate. The soils of the district are also divided into paddy zone (1,07,000 acres), jowar zone (14,35,000 acres) and bajra zone (10,63,500 acres).

Food Crops.

The main food crops are sugarcane, jowar, bajra, rice and wheat among cereals; gram, *matki*, *udid* and *tur* among pulses; and fruits

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

INTRODUCTORY. Food Crops.

and vegetables. Food crops covered 12,92,200 acres or 71·4 per cent. of the total cropped area of 18,06,700 acres in 1956-57. Jowar covered an area of 4,97,500 acres (38·5 per cent.)*, bajra 4,02,800 acres (31·2 per cent.), rice 57,400 acres (4·4 per cent.), wheat 33,200 acres (2·6 per cent.), gram 44,100 acres (3·4 per cent.), *tur*, 20,500 acres (1·6 per cent.), *udid* 26,900 acres (2·1 per cent.), *matki* 48,700 acres (3·8 per cent.), sugars 14,000 acres (little over one per cent.) and groundnut 1,42,400 acres (11 per cent.).

Non-food crops.

Groundnut, safflower, chillies and cotton are the important non-food crops. In 1956-57 groundnut commanded an area of 1,42,400 acres or 7·9 per cent. of the total cropped area; safflower 20,800 acres or 1·1 per cent.; chillies 6,100 acres or 0·3 per cent. and cotton 3,800 acres or 0·2 per cent. Groundnut and chillies are the important commodities of export.

Forests.

Major forest products are timber, firewood and charcoal while minor forest products are negligible. The value of major forest produce during 1957-58 amounted to Rs. 91,025.

Pressure of Population.

In 1956-57, the total area available for cultivation was 19,00,700 acres (including 2,03,900 acres under 'current and other fallows' and 18,800 acres under 'culturable waste') or 1·62 acres per head of the population (11,75,309) as against the net sown area of 16,78,000 acres or 1·43 acres per head.

Distribution of land.

Statistics of distribution of land are available for the year 1952-53 in respect of 13,96,180 acres (both *khalsa* and *inam*). The average size of holding for the district as a whole worked out to 7·41 acres. The bulk of the holders, viz., 1,15,284 or 68·18 per cent. belonged to the smallest magnitude group of less than five acres and held 2,67,583 acres or 19·17 per cent. of the total land, the average size of their holdings being 2·32 acres. There were 50,015 persons or 26·45 per cent. of the total who accounted for 4,07,698 or 29·21 per cent. of land, the size of their holdings varying between five and fifteen acres. As against this, 9,471 persons or 5·02 per cent. of the total held 3,65,552 acres or 26·18 per cent. of the land, the size of their holdings varying between 25 acres and 100 acres. Persons belonging to the magnitude group of 15 acres to 25 acres formed only 6·97 per cent. of the total and held 2,62,716 acres or 18·81 per cent. of the land. Number of persons with the size of their holdings varying between 100 acres and 500 acres stood at 458 and held 60,806 acres of land whereas there were 27 persons with the size of their holdings exceeding 500 acres who held 31,825 acres of land. The customary laws of inheritance and succession lead to sub-divisions and fragmentations of holdings and thereby make cultivation uneconomic. The Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947, is being implemented to deal effectively with the situation.

Tenancy Legislation.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, has been enacted to provide security of tenure to tenants. The Act has fixed the minimum rate of rent at one-third and one-fourth of the total crop in the case of non-irrigated lands and irrigated lands, respectively.

* These are percentages to total area under food crops.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. INTRODUCTORY. Tenancy Legislation.

It also empowers the Government to fix rate of rent lower than the minimum laid down under the Act. Recently the Act was amended in 1956. The main objective of the Government is to remove gradually all the intermediaries and make tiller of the soil the owner of the land. The Act provides for purchase of land by the tenant from the landlord under certain conditions. This Act is expected to bring about a more even distribution of land among cultivating owners.

Agricultural Tools.

The field tools and agricultural implements used generally by the cultivators continue to be of the old and indigenous type, though some progress is, however, made in the direction of use of improved types of ploughs and cane-crushers. Iron ploughs are slowly replacing indigenous wooden ones. In 1958-59, there were 47,281 ploughs; 1,202 cane-crushers; 1,233 oil engines and 44 tractors in the district. Comparatively high costs of implements and absence of advanced techniques of farming are the two factors mainly responsible for slow switch-over to modern improved farm-tools and agricultural implements.

Live-stock.

The live-stock continues to be a valuable possession of the farmer and holds an important place in the rural economy of the district. In 1956, there were 4,71,163 bullocks, 1,96,703 cows; 20,522 he-buffaloes; 1,34,105 she-buffaloes; 2,10,694 sheep and 1,97,115 goats, in the district. Poultry population of the district was 6,09,562 in 1956. Efforts to improve the quality of cattle and sheep as well as to upgrade the poultry stock of the district are being made through a number of cattle development, sheep development and poultry development schemes.

Wages.

Wages in rural areas are paid both in cash and in kind. The average wage rate for a male labourer was Rs. 1·25 per day in the district, though allowance must be made for minor variations between the rates of wages in rural and in urban areas. Females get only half of the wages paid to males. Wages paid to child labour and female labour are almost on par and vary between Re. 0·50 and Re. 0·75. However, skilled operations command high wages e.g., '*Gulva*' is paid Rs. 4 in Karad and Satara talukas (Rs. 2·50 in the remaining talukas), whereas '*Jalva*' gets about Rs. 2·50 throughout the district.

Although failure of the monsoon causes near famine or scarcity conditions in the several talukas of the district, speedy and improved means of transport as well as State-aid have in recent years blunted the edge of these famines.

Industries.

During the last century, like the other districts in Maharashtra State, this district was industrially backward and had no mechanised industries except a few crafts like gold, copper, brass and black-smithy, carpentry, stone quarrying, pottery, *gul* making, leather works, etc. Of these *gul* making was a major industry. No machine propelled factory came into existence till 1916. During the inter-war period seven new factories, one groundnut decorticating, one sugar manufacturing, two electricity generating and three printing presses

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

INTRODUCTORY.

Industries.

were started in the district. A few other factories like edible oil, copper and brass rolling mill, etc., were established after 1947. The total employment in all the industries in the district in 1951 stood at 67,289. In 1959, sugar-manufacturing, *gul* manufacturing, glass manufacturing, edible oil, electricity generating factories, general engineering were the industries existing in the district. Of these, sugar manufacturing, *gul* making and glass manufacturing were the major industries which employed nearly 4,500 persons. The total employment in all concerns registered under the Factories Act was about 8,000.

Among the cottage industries, cotton weaving, carpentry, blacksmithy, copper-smithy, basket making, pottery, leather works and tanning may be mentioned as important ones. These are found in almost all big villages. Cotton weaving employed about 4,000 artisans. These industries have been in existence for a long time and are carried on in traditional ways.

Trade.

According to the census of 1951, the various trades in the district, wholesale and retail, money-lending, banking and other financial business, real estate and insurance, provided the principal means of livelihood to 42,923 persons or 3·7 per cent. of the population and a subsidiary means of livelihood to 7,145 persons. Excluding dependents, the self-supporting persons engaged in these trades numbered 10,723. Of these, 4,396 were in rural areas and 6,327 in urban areas. Retail trade provided employment to 9,053 persons; money-lending, banking, etc., to 731 persons; wholesale trade to 891 persons; insurance to 45 persons and real estate to 3 persons.

Satara being an inland district, its traders do not generally engage themselves in direct foreign imports or exports. Naturally the trade caters to the needs of its own population and is generally confined to goods locally produced or imported for local consumption. Besides, a few traders engage themselves in a small volume of re-export trade.

Retail and wholesale trade in food-stuffs provided employment (in 1951) to 5,207 persons or 48 6 per cent. of the total of 10,723 self-supporting persons employed in all trades. Persons engaged in wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs amounted to 724. Retail trade in textile and leather goods engaged 1,306 persons (12·2 per cent.), retail trade in fuel (including petrol), 421 persons (3·9 per cent.); money-lending, banking, etc., 731 persons (6·8 per cent.), and retail trade otherwise unclassified 2,286 persons (21·3 per cent.). This pattern of trade clearly brings out the predominantly agricultural character of the district.

The chief articles of import included mainly, among others, grocery, grains, cloth, building materials and medicines. The bulk of imports flows into the district from Bombay, Mahad, Ratnagiri, Sangli, Kolhapur, Sholapur, Malabar, Madras, Nasik, Dandeli, Karwar, Ahmedabad, Calcutta and Nagpur.

Among the important articles of export may be mentioned *gul*, jowar, coriander, groundnut, groundnut oil, turmeric, chillies, onion and garlic. Of these, groundnut assumes an overwhelming importance as an article of export, its turnover being approximately

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
INTRODUCTORY.
Trade.

4,67,391 B. Mds., valued at Rs. 77.15,031. The largest turnover of groundnut is to be found at Karad. The district also exports *gul* in appreciably large quantities. The production of *gul* in 1957, amounted roughly to 8,94,684 B. Mds., valued at Rs. 1,34,20,260. The chief centres of *gul* trade are Karad, Satara, Koregaon, Phaltan and Rahimatpur. The turnover of turmeric trade in 1958-59, was about 1,00,785 B. Mds., valued at Rs. 25 lakhs. The centres of turmeric trade are Karad, Masur, Wai, Umbraj and Satara. Onion is also of great commercial importance, its annual turnover being 3,85,000 B. Mds. valued at Rs. 12,38,000. Lonand is the biggest centre of onion trade.

Wholesale trade is concentrated at a few centres such as Karad, Koregaon, Satara, Lonand, Wai, Phaltan and Malharpeth. Regulated markets are to be found at Satara, Karad, Koregaon and Phaltan, whereas sub-market yards exist at Umbraj, Masur, Malharpeth, Kole, Waduth, Wai, Surur, Rahimatpur and Lonand. The regulated markets and sub-markets practically serve the whole district except Khatav and Mahabaleshwar talukas and Man peta. There is one co-operative purchase and sales society each at Karad, Phaltan and Satara and one multi-purpose society each at Koregaon and Satara.

The number of shops (registered under the Sales Tax Act, 1946), functioning in rural areas, was 155 in March 1957. Of these about two-thirds or 109 represented dealers in food-stuffs having a total turnover of Rs. 2,63,00,000. The number of shops (registered under the Sales Tax Act, 1946), functioning in urban areas, i.e., towns, was 619, having a gross turnover of the order of Rs. 23,02,76,000 in March, 1957.

Since the beginning of the present century, considerable changes in the pattern and volume of trade, have taken place in as much as co-operative organisations, institutional agencies like the regulated markets and various Governmental regulations are all trying to develop and to channelise the trade on sound and healthy lines and to give an impetus to it. Co-operative institutions have been formed mostly in areas served by regulated markets.

Finance.

Since the publication of Old Satara Gazetteer in 1885, numerous changes have taken place in the field of finance as in many other fields. The Old Gazetteer mentions that 'there were no regular bankers in the district. Deposits used to be made with certain bankers or *sackars* of high reputation, who are said to have given interest up to three per cent. a year.' Banking operations were performed by money-lenders and a few rich persons belonging to trading and business communities. Bills of exchange were discounted in the district. The amount of bills varied between Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 7,000 and were cashed by a few firms having capital over one lakh of rupees. Insurance of any kind was not in vogue. There were

a few joint stock companies in which well-to-do Government Officials and members of the rich communities used to invest. Almost all sections of the community were habituated to save though in varying degrees, depending upon their capacity to save. However, major portion of their savings used to be squandered over family and religious celebrations. Land was perhaps the favourite investment with all classes possessed of a substantial surplus, except the exclusively trading class, which preferred extending its own business to any new form of investment. Investment in Government securities and saving bank deposits together amounted to Rs. 66,280 in 1882-83. Money-lending was practised in different degrees by members of almost every class. A few of them had large capital and combined money-lending with trade as their chief calling. Secured loans carried a rate of interest varying between six and twelve per cent. The normal rate of interest was around eighteen per cent., though a husbandman of scanty means had to pay, on unsecured loans, anything between 24 per cent. to 37½ per cent.

In the course of last 75 years, the pattern and volume of trade as well as the requirements of agricultural and non-agricultural classes have undergone radical changes necessitating an expansion in the agencies employed in financial operations. The co-operative credit societies occupy the place of pride in the financial organisation in the district. At present there are five types of these societies functioning in the district, viz., (1) Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies, (2) Multi-purpose Societies, (3) Land Mortgage Bank, (4) Non-agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies and (5) The Central Financing Agencies. All of them except non-agricultural co-operative credit societies, cater to the multifarious needs of the agricultural classes.

The co-operative movement commenced in the district with the establishment of the first Agricultural Credit Society at Bodhe in Man taluka which was registered in 1907 In 1960, there were 576 agricultural credit societies with a total membership of 65,790. These societies included multi-purpose societies which came into being as a result of conversion of agricultural credit societies or village primaries as they are often called. They had share capital of Rs. 30,74,542 and working capital of Rs 1,02,31,901 in 1958-59.

The loans advanced by them to members amounted to Rs. 65,99,367. Non-agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies numbered 42 in 1958-59, had a membership of 16,056, share capital of Rs. 17,19,527 and working capital of Rs. 90,28,719. The deposits with them of members, non-members and societies aggregated Rs. 56,62,195, while they had advanced loans to the tune of Rs. 1,37,22,018. Satara District Land Mortgage Bank Limited, Karad was the only land mortage bank, catering to the long term requirements of the whole district. It had share capital of Rs. 1,79,270 and working capital of Rs. 29,33,055. The loans advanced by them amounted to Rs. 9,71,000 in 1958-59.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
INTRODUCTORY.
Finance.

The Satara District Central Co-operative Bank Limited, Satara (registered in 1951) and Shri Laxmi Central Co-operative Bank Limited, Phaltan, are the two central financing agencies. The former operated throughout the district except in Phaltan taluka and had seven branches. The latter confined its operations only to Phaltan taluka. These two taken together had a membership of 3,011 individuals and 692 societies; paid-up share capital of Rs. 10,51,970; working capital of Rs 1,46,42,484. Loans advanced by it to individual members and societies amounted to Rs. 15,08,076 and Rs. 71,09,296 respectively, as against the deposits of Rs. 1,03,81,779. Their borrowings from various sources amounted to Rs. 23,60,604.

In spite of this phenomenal advance in the field of co-operation. money-lenders still continue to hold the key place in the financial structure of the district. During 1957-58, there were 198 money-lenders licensed and registered under the Bombay Money Lenders Act (XXXI of 1946), which aims at controlling and regulating their activities. Of these 43 or nearly 20 per cent. functioned in Karad *taluka*. The loans granted by them to traders and non-traders in 1955-56, amounted to Rs. 17·50 lakhs.

Joint-stock banks come next. Satara Swadeshi Commercial Bank Limited, was the first bank established in the district in 1907. Since then gradual development is taking place in the sphere of banking. At present (1960), there are 14 joint-stock banks of which eight are branch offices of the banks having their registered offices outside the district. The State Bank of India has got three branches in the district, one each at Karad, Phaltan and Satara. All these banks, besides providing usual banking facilities, also undertake financing of trade and agriculture and provide facilities for the storage and movement of agricultural produce. The State Bank of India also acts as an Agent of the Reserve Bank of India for conducting Governmental business and affords remittance and exchange facilities to local banks and the public.

Of late Government have liberalised their policy of advancing loans to agriculturists with a view to stepping up agricultural production. In 1957-58, the amount outstanding as tagai was of the order of Rs. 12 lakhs. The scheme of crop finance which is made available through co-operative societies and which aims at financing at reasonable rate of interest, agricultural operations connected with raising of crops, is also in operation in the district. The loans granted under the system of crop finance aggregated Rs. 4·3 lakhs in 1955-56. There are various small savings schemes operating in the district. State-aid to small scale and cottage industries is extended through the Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries but the amounts advanced so far are negligible. Insurance business also registered a slow but satisfactory progress in the recent past.

The habit of depositing savings with co-operative societies and joint-stock banks is steadily gaining ground. Whereas in 1882-83 savings bank deposits amounted to Rs. 66,280, in 1957-58, they stood

at nearly Rs. 54 lakhs. In addition, an amount of Rs. 13·7 lakhs was invested in National Savings Certificates. Apart from the deposits of Rs. 80,54,523 in joint-stock banks, people in the district also invested their money in joint-stock companies and in Government securities.

Transport.

Considerable improvement has taken place in the transport system of the district during the last 75 years. Railway construction was undertaken in the district in January 1884 and the system of railway now running through the district was completed in 1887. The Poona-Bangalore metre gauge railway line of the Southern Railway passes north to south through this district. The railway route enters Satara district at mile No. 48, i.e., after Nira Railway Station. Throughout its length of 74 miles, it passes through the various centres of trade and commerce while traversing Phaltan, Khandala, Koregaon and Karad talukas. Mention must be made of Lonand, Koregaon, Rahimatpur and Karad as the commercially important stations on this line. According to 1951 census, the Railways provided employment to 383 persons.

The road system has also developed a good deal and the district has now a network of several well built roads. Poona-Bangalore National Highway passes through the district covering a distance of 80 miles and five furlongs. Five State Highways pass through the district, *viz.*, (1) Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul Road (Length 37 miles), (2) Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Bijapur-Hyderabad Road (Length 47 miles and 2 furlongs), (3) Satara-Pandharpur Road (Length 61 miles and 3 furlongs), (4) Pingali-Mayani-Tasgaon Road (Length 17 miles and 4 furlongs), (5) Mhapral-Mahad-Lonand-Phaltan-Pandharpur Road (Length 53 miles and six furlongs). The total road mileage of Other District Roads was 541 miles and four furlongs, according to the Index Statement of Road Planning (1956-57). In important centres are to be found resting places like district bungalows, travellers' bungalows, rest houses and *dharmashalas*.

In the matter of posts and telegraphs, the district is well-served. The Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department maintains a Postal Division at Satara. Besides the chief receiving and distributing head office at Satara, there are 28 sub-post offices and 214 branch offices spread over all the talukas of the district. There are in all 28 telegraph offices functioning throughout the district.

With the advent of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation convenience and amenities to passengers have increased. It was in pursuance of the general policy of nationalisation of road transport that the corporation was formed. State transport operations in Satara district fall within the jurisdiction of Poona and Kolhapur divisions. The nationalisation of road transport services in Poona and Kolhapur divisions, was started in June 1948 and August 1949, respectively. There are 90 routes passing through this

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
INTRODUCTORY.
Transport.

district; some of them either starting from or terminating in the district. The depots or sub-depots of the Corporation are located at Karad, Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Satara and Wai.

The district also possesses over 90 radio sets installed under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme of the Government.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

The census of 1951 returned 11,75,309 persons as inhabitants of Satara district and nearly 77 per cent. of these depended on agriculture for their livelihood. It is not possible to analyse the changes in the structure of agricultural population since the publication of the old Gazetteer (1885), mainly on account of the following two vital considerations :—(1) The present district of Satara emerged in 1948 as a result of the partition of the former Satara district into two units (the other unit being Sangli) and their reconstitution consequent upon the merger of the adjoining princely states (like Aundh, Phaltan, Miraj, Sangli, etc.) and other territorial adjustments. (2) The decennial Census data cannot be compared directly, one with the other, nor can they be taken as representative in all respects in as much as the basis of classification, the method of collection, the scope as well as the purview of enquiry have all undergone a material change during successive Census years.

Details regarding persons engaged in agriculture and other allied occupations, as given by the 1951 Census, are furnished in the two tables below :—

TABLE No. 1.

POPULATION ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE, IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1951.

	Self-supporting persons.		Earning Dependants.		Non-earning Dependants.		Persons following other professions as their main occupation but deriving secondary income from Agriculture.	
	Males	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants.	1,49,934	23,958	39,813	1,33,666	1,94,757	2,54,243	39,245	1,16,316
2. Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants.	4,789	507	1,233	3,467	5,468	7,182	9,268	3,835
3. Cultivating labourers and their dependants.	10,050	4.376	2,301	5,984	10,049	13,696	12,062	27,385
4. Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.	6,449	5,129	1,104	3,156	10,213	15,644	7,172	2,033
Total—All Classes ..	1,71,222	33,970	44.451	1,46,273	2,20,487	2,90,765	67,747	1,49,569

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

TABLE No. 2.

POPULATION ENGAGED IN ALLIED AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS, IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1951.

	Employers.		Employees.		Independent workers.		Total.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Stock raising	67	6	237	4	1,617	103	1,921	113
2. Rearing of small animals and insects.	....	....	6	....	1	....	7	....
3. Plantation	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	....
4. Forestry and collection of products.	2	....	86	4	71	28	159	32
Total ..	69	6	329	8	1,690	131	2,088	145

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood to 9,07,165 persons including self-supporting persons and their dependents both earning and non-earning. Besides, it provided subsidiary occupation to a fairly large number of persons. In the above two Tables (No. 1 and 2); are included persons engaged in agricultural cultivation, land-owners cultivating and non-cultivating; farm labourers; garden cultivators; labourers working in forests and persons engaged in rearing, breeding of and dealing in livestock. The majority of the workers on the land are the cultivating owners who numbered 7,96,371. This includes 1,73,892 self-supporting presons who worked on their own farms; 1,73,479 earning dependants who also worked on the farms but whose income was not sufficient to maintain them, and 4,49,000 non-earning dependants, i.e., those who did not earn any income either in cash or in kind. Agricultural labourers who worked on the farms belonging to others for wages in cash or in kind numbered 46,456 and formed the next numerous class. This included 14,426 self-supporting persons, 8,285 earning dependants and 23,745 non-earning dependants. The non-cultivating owners of land who usually give out their lands to tenants for cultivation on rent were 41,692. Of these 11,575 were self-supporting persons, 4,260 earning dependants, while non-earning dependants numbered 25,857. Tenant cultivators numbered 22,646 which included 5,296 self-supporting persons; 4,700 earning dependants and 12,650 non-earning dependants.

It will be seen from Table No. 2 that only one person was engaged in plantation industries, seven persons were engaged in rearing of small animals and insects. Forestry and collection of forest products provided employment to 191 persons whereas 2,034 persons were employed in stock raising. Persons engaged in live-stock business usually keep good quality cattle, buffaloes and transport animals, breed them and meet the local requirements of live-stock. Besides, they also keep poultry, sheep and goats.

RAINFALL.

Rainfall is of prime importance as a factor considerably influencing the agricultural economy of the district. It determines the pattern of crops taken in the district as well as the performance of various agricultural operations. The extent and spacing of rainfall perhaps explain the different culturable practices obtained in varying degrees between the regions. The rainfall varies in different parts of the district, depending upon their nearness or otherwise to the mountains. Thus, the western part has a high rainfall on account of its mountainous topography, while the eastern part of the district has a low rainfall. The rainfall commences in the month of April and continues till the end of September. However, the precipitation of monsoons proper begins by the end of the first week of June. The average rainfall for the district as a whole except Mahabaleshwar taluka comes to about 33", whereas for Mahabaleshwar taluka, the average is about 260". Usually sowings are completed during the first and the second weeks of June. In November-December there is a shower known as Mango-shower which is beneficial to the agriculturist for his *rabi* crops.

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
RAINFALL.

Due to marked variations in the rainfall from year to year, it is difficult to divide the district into suitable zones. However, the rainfall returns for a series of years justify the division of the district into three zones as indicated below :—

(1) Paddy zone comprising Mahabaleshwar, western parts of Jaoli, Wai, Patan and Satara talukas and Khandala peta, having an annual average rainfall of about 125".

(2) Jowar zone comprising eastern parts of Jaoli, Wai, Satara, Patan, Karad and Koregaon talukas and Khandala peta having an annual average rainfall of about 25".

(3) Bajra zone comprising eastern part of Man and Phaltan talukas and Khandala peta having an annual average rainfall of about 20".

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

All cultivable land in Satara district comes under the category of *jirayat* or dry crop land, its further classification being dependent upon the pattern of crops grown *vis-a-vis* the monsoons. Thus, the early monsoon crops are called *kharif* crops and the late monsoon crops, *rabi* crops. The *kharif* crops are brought to maturity by the showers of south-west monsoon, whereas *rabi* crops depend upon dew, irrigation and the occasional fair weather showers between November and March.

The *kharif* season which commences in June-July and terminates in September-October gets its rainfall primarily from the south-west monsoon and from the occasional ante-monsoon showers in May. Usually, *kharif* crops are sown from the first week of June to mid-July and harvested in mid-September and sometimes even up to the end of November. The sowing and reaping of these crops roughly coincide with the commencement and termination of the monsoon. *Rabi* season commences from the middle of October and terminates in mid-February or in the first week of March. *Rabi* crops are taken with the help of irrigation and occasional fair weather showers due in November. Sowing of *rabi* crops generally takes place in November, whereas they are harvested in March. These are grown in low-lying areas where water or sufficient moisture is available from within the sub-soil, as rainfall received in this season from the north-east monsoon is very scanty. Though a line of demarcation cannot be drawn between *kharif* and *rabi* crops, broadly speaking, crops grown in *kharif* season and known as *kharif* crops comprise, in a great part, cereals such as *bhat* (paddy) *nagli* or *nachni* (ragi), bajra, maize, *vari* and *rala*, while those taken in the *rabi* season and known as *rabi* crops include wheat and pulses like *val*, *mug* (green gram) and *tur* among others. Of course, there are some crops like jowar which can be taken both as *kharif* crops or *rabi* crops and this mainly depends upon the system of crop rotation followed by the cultivators having regard to the type of the soil, climatic conditions, yield of the crop and the expenses to be incurred, etc.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SOILS.

The soils of the Satara district fall under the Deccan trap. As in other parts of the Deccan, the hills in this district are composed of soft layers of amygdaloidal trap, occasionally separated by hard basalt and capped by laterite or iron clay. The soils of the district fall under following three main categories :—

(*a*) Medium black to deep black soils on the plane lands.

(*b*) Lighter soils on slopes and in the eastern part of the district.

(*c*) Laterite soils in the hilly region on the western side and on the small hillock on the eastern side.

Medium black Soil.

These are found along the belts of the rivers Krishna and Koyna, the breadth of the belts varying with the bed of the rivers. They are brownish to dark brown in colour. The broadest of the belts is to be found along the Krishna valley, which yields the best garden crops of the district. The chemical analysis of the soil shows that the soil is rich in lime. At certain places like Phaltan, a clear band of lime is found at a depth of a few feet in the soil. The soil is fertile and under proper irrigation and careful management yields substantially. The nitrogen content of the soil is fairly good and the organic matter content of the soil is high. The soil is rich in its clay content and colloidal complex is fully saturated with exchangeable bases. This is due to dry spell of monsoon. The soil, if not well looked after, gives rise to alkalisation which results in salty patches. Such salty patches are observed in the southern part of Phaltan taluka. Medium black soil is also to be found in Koregaon, western part of Vaduj, Khandala taluka and in the northern part of the Phaltan taluka along the Nira river.

The soils in the eastern part of the taluka are deep to medium black. The rainfall in this area varies between 30″ and 40″. Crops like groundnut, wheat, jowar (*rabi*) and, at certain places, where irrigation facilities are available, sugar-cane and turmeric are taken.

Light Soil.

Light soil of the district is locally known as *malran* or *murum mal* and is brown in colour. These are hard and rocky and are commonly found in the planes on the eastern side. These are also to be found on the slopes of the hillocks situated in the eastern side. These soils are well-drained, light in nature and sandy loam in texture. They are rich in lime but shallow in depth. The chemical analysis of the soil indicates that they are deficient in fertility constitutents like nitrogen, organic carbon, phosphorus. However, the potash contents of the soils are fairly high. The clay complex of the soils is poor in exchangeable bases. Therefore, the soils in this category yield good produce only if bulky manures and heavy fertilisers are applied and proper irrigation is provided. At certain places, where sufficient water is available, paddy crop is also taken However, the soil is better suited for bajra.

Laterite Soil.

Laterite soils are red in colour and are mainly found in Mahabaleshwar hills and along the whole mountain range comprising the entire Koyna valley. On account of the red colour of the soil, they

are locally known as *tambad mati*. At certain places blending of the black soils with laterite or red soils has taken place. Soils of this type are located at the heads of the rivers. On the top of the hills where water cannot be confined, these soils are used for *kumri* cultivation or "wood ash" tillage.

On account of heavy rainfall in this region, these soils are subjected to heavy leaching and a high degree of erosion. As a result of this, all the soluble salts get leached out leaving behind sesqui-oxides. The reason for the red colour of the soil is the high content of Iron Oxides in the sesqui-oxides of these soils. The depth of the soil varies from 1′ to 10′. The chemical analysis of these soils indicates that they are rich in clay and clay-loam in texture. However, as the soils are subjected to heavy leaching, the colloidal complex of the clay of these soils gets unsaturated of the exchangeable bases and thus the soils become acidic. They are rich in nitrogen but poor in organic matter except in the soils of deep forest region. The ratio of carbon to nitrogen is fairly wide and varies between 1 : 10 and 1 : 20. The main crops taken on them consist of the hill millets like *ragi, vari, nachni and sava*. At certain places, rice is taken by adopting the *kumri* cultivation. At places with high altitudes, especially around Mahabaleshwar, fruits like strawberries, goose-berries which require cold climate are grown.

The general analysis of the typical soils of the district is given in the table below :—

TABLE No. 3.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SOILS IN SATARA DISTRICT.

Name of the soil.	Medium black to Deep black.	Light.	Laterite.
Colour	Brownish to Dark brown.	Brown	Dark reddish to Yellowish red.
Depth	3′ to 5′	upto 1′	1′ - 10′
	Per cent. on oven dry matter.		
Moisture	5.0 to 6.0	6.0 to 7.0	6.0 to 8.0.
Calcium carbonate	10.0 to 12.0	6.0 to 7.0	Nil.
Sand (coarse and fine)	28.0 to 32.0	47.0 to 50.0	30.0 to 40.0.
Clay	37.0 to 45.0	10.0 to 15.0	40.0 to 50.0.
Silt	5.0 to 10.0	23.0 to 28.0	20.0 to 30.0.
Textural class	Sandy to clay loam.	Sandy to sandy-loam.	Clay to clay loam.
Total Soluble salts	0.06 to 0.08	0.03 to 0.05	0.025 to 0.04.
Organic carbon	1.10 to 2.0	0.6 to 1.0	1 5 to 4.0.
Nitrogen total	0.06 to 0.08	0.04 to 0.06	0.15 to 0.20.
Carbon Nitrogen ratio.	1:15 to 1:25	1:12 to 1:15	1:10 to 1:20.
PH value	8.0 to 8.5	7 0 to 7.5	4.0 to 5.8.
	Milligrams per cent. on oven dry matter.		
Avail P2O5	10.0 to 15.0	4.0 to 06.0	5.0 to 10.0.
Avail K2O	20.0 to 25.0	30.0 to 35.0	4.0 to 10.0.
	Milliequivalent per cent. on oven dry matter.		
Exchangeable Ca	4.0 to 7.0	3.0 to 4.0	7.0 to 18.0.
Exchangeable Mg	6.0 to 9.0	6.0 to 8.0	3.0 to 4.0.
Exchangeable Na + K	2.0 to 4.0	1.0 to 2.0	1.0 to 3.0.
Exchangeable H	....	....	5.0 to 8.0.
Total exchangeable bases.	8.0 to 10.0	10.0 to 14.0	11.0 to 25.0.
Base exchangeable capacity.	8.0 to 20.0	10.0 to 14.0	15.0 to 30.0

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SOILS.

The soils of the district are also classified, on the basis of crops taken, into the following three zones :—

(1) Paddy zone comprising Mahabaleshwar, western parts of Jaoli, Wai, Khandala, Patan, and Satara talukas. The area under this zone measured about 1,07,000 acres in 1956-57. The soils in this zone are laterite, and mostly light with a depth varying between 3′ and 6′.

(2) Jowar zone comprising eastern parts of Jaoli, Wai, Khandala, Satara, Patan, Karad and Koregaon talukas. The area under this zone measured about 14,35,000 acres in 1956-57.

(3) Bajri zone comprising Khatav, Man, Phaltan and eastern part of Khandala talukas. The area under this zone measured 10,63,500 acres.

LAND UTILISATION.

The total geographical area of the district in 1956-57 was 26,07,378 acres. The whole of the district lies on the eastern side of the Sahyadri range. It more or less presents a hilly topography, particularly its western part, comprising Jaoli, Mahabaleshwar and Wai talukas and Khandala peta.

Cultivated and Uncultivated Area.

The following table gives a statement of cultivated and uncultivated area in Satara district during the year 1956-57 :—

TABLE No. 4.

STATEMENT SHOWING CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED AREAS IN SATARA DISTRICT DURING THE YEAR 1956-57.

(area in acres)

Talukas.	Number of villages.	Total geographical area.	Cultivated Area.				
			Gross cropped area.	Area cropped more than once.	Net area sown.	Current fallows.	Total cultivated area.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Jaoli ..	196	2,14,959	86,460	8,988	77,472	62,658	1,40,130
Karad ..	115	2,54,300	1,96,089	8,815	1,87,274	4,113	1,91,387
Khandala ..	46	1,29,761	98,530	12,342	86,188	....	86,188
Khatav ..	90	3,37,199	2,93,868	18,752	2,75,116	....	2,75,116
Koregaon ..	76	2,27,991	1,89,125	14,317	1,74,808	826	1,75,634
Mahabaleshwar	56	56,145	10,874	455	10,419	....	10,419
Man ..	71	3,72,196	2,70,830	13,644	2,57,186	1,758	2,58,944
Patan ..	203	3,46,647	1,69,330	21,000	1,48,330	93,077	2,41,407
Phaltan ..	80	2,90,997	2,29,105	9,260	2,19,845	18,320	2,38,165
Satara ..	153	2,24,645	1,89,033	9,889	1,79,134	....	1,79,134
Wai ..	91	1,52,478	88,016	13,424	74,592	626	75,218
Total ..	1,177	26,07,318	18,21,260	1,30,896	16,90,364	1,81,378	18,71,742

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cultivated and Uncultivated Area.

TABLE No. 4 (*contd*).

Uncultivated Area.					
Forests.	Barren and unculturable area.	Land put to non-agricultural uses.	Culturable waste.	Miscellaneous tree crops, groves, permanent pastures.	Total uncultivated Area.
9	10	11	12	13	14
61,550	10,948	11	2,152	....	74,661
32,704	28,444	208	749	813	62,913
13,752	9,057	....	332	17,449	40,590
17,798	....	37,296	6,556	....	61,650
27,102	24,932	110	207	....	52,357
32,814	2,209	854	104	....	35,981
32,400	64,001	83	1,452	3,496	1,01,432
73,751	24,623	1,707	4,415	313	1,04,809
21,704	25,500	52	751	1,172	49,179
21,392	21,346	184	1,399	....	44,321
32,042	6,266	25	261	38,666	77,260
3,67,009	2,17,326	40,531	18,378	61,909	7,05,153

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILISATION.

Jirayat and Bagayat.

The percentage of cultivated area to total area in the district as a whole amounted to 71·8, but it varied from taluka to taluka, the highest percentage being 81·8 in Phaltan taluka and the lowest being 18·6 in Mahabaleshwar taluka.

The cultivated area in Satara district falls under two major heads, *jirayat* and *bagayat*. The *jirayat* land which formed 90·4 per cent. of the total cultivated area is cropped only once with the help of rain water, while the *bagayat* land which formed 9·6 per cent. of the total cultivated area is cropped with the help of irrigation This only indicates the greater dependence of agriculture on monsoons.

Forest Area.

The forest area in the district falls under two categories, Reserved and Protected. The major portion of this area is in charge of the Forest Department and the rest in charge of the Revenue Department. The table below shows the distribution of forest area under the two departments in 1957-58.

TABLE No. 5.

DISTRIBUTION (TALUKA-WISE) OF FOREST AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

(area in acres and gunthas)

Range.	Taluka (whole or part) included in the Range.	Forest in charge of Forest Department.		Forest in charge of Revenue Department.		Total.	
		Reserved.	Protected.	Reserved.	Protected.	Reserved.	Protected.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		A. g.	A. g.	A. g.	A. g.	A. g.	A. g.
Karad ..	Karad, Khatav, Man ..	27,897—24	906—17	55,793—10	....	83,690—34	906—17
Dhebewadi ..	Patan part	22,475—23	...	....	....	22,475—23	....
Patan	Patan part .. .	65,205—39	....	....	....	65,205—39	....
		(Leased). 2,463—9	....	....	....	(Leased). 2,463—9	....
Mahabaleshwar ..	Mahabaleshwar, Jaoli part, Wai Khandala peta.	68,113—31	637—13	5,139—38	....	73,253—31	637—13
		(Leased). 12,171—32	....	....		(Leased). 12,171—32	
Satara ..	Satara, Koregaon, Jaoli part.	89,348—15 (Leased. 922—21	542—34	2,508—14	....	91,856—29 (Leased). 922—21	542—34
Phaltan ..	Phaltan	...	11,845—7	....	...	....	11,845—7

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LAND UTILISATION

Forest Area.

The "wood ash tillage", that is, the occasional cultivation of forest areas after burning the shrubs and grass thereon was a unique feature of the district during the days of the compilation of the last Gazetteer. This is known as *kumri* cultivation and the practice is still followed in the hilly tracts. However, it does not obtain in forest areas in charge of Forest Department. The principal forest produce of the areas in charge of the Forest Department comprised timber, charcoal and firewood, whereas mention may be made of grass, *hirda, shikekai, apta* and *temburni* leaves as chief minor products. The outturn of major forest produce amounted to 2,39,263 cubic feet in 1957-58, which fetched Rs. 91,024. Since almost all the major forest produce was consumed in the Satara Forest Division, nothing could be exported. Besides the chief minor products mentioned above, minor forest produce also comprised bamboos, fibres, flassin, fodder and grass, incense and perfumed wood, dyestuffs, vegetable oil and oil seeds. The value of minor forest produce of the Satara Forest Division, amounted to Rs. 77,582* in 1957-58.

Cropped area.

The gross cropped area of the district in 1958-59. has been recorded as 17,93,506 acres, of which the area cropped more than once amounted to 1,28,827 acres, the net cropped area being 16,64,679 acres. The following two tables reveal the taluka-wise distribution of *kharif* and *rabi* food and non-food crops in 1958-59 and taluka-wise acreage under different crops in 1956-57, respectively.

* The amount relates to minor forest produce of Satara and Sangli districts. As the sale is done range-wise as a unit, no separate figure relating to minor forest produce of Satara district, could be furnished.

TABLE No. 6

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPPED AREA (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1958-59.

(In acres).

Taluka.	Gross Cropped Area.						Grand total.	Area cropped more than once.	Net cropped area.
	Kharif.		Rabi.		Total.				
	Food crops.	Non-food crops.	Food crops.	Non-food crops.	Food crops.	Non-food crops.			
Jaoli	3,700	32,505	21,564	949	25,264	33,454	58,718	9,280	49,438
Karad	43,544	76,823	80,653	1,969	1,24,197	78,792	2,02,989	8,962	1,94,027
Khandala	39,950	21,569	36,991	1,650	76,941	23,219	1,00,160	13,480	86,680
Khatav	1,92,050	58,366	36,824	1,649	2,28,874	60,015	2,88,889	15,425	2,73,464
Koregaon	85,649	46,635	49,588	3,598	1,35,237	50,233	1,85,470	15,101	1,70,369
Mahabaleshwar	4,917	4,577	1,305	9	6,222	4,586	10,808	512	10,296
Man	1,56,462	81,395	30,908	1,059	1,87,370	82,454	2,69,824	12,198	2,56,626
Patan	78,739	66,942	26,662	255	1,05,401	67,197	1,72,598	20,179	1,52,419
Phaltan	67,017	44,548	1,11,095	5,526	1,78,112	50,074	2,28,186	9,525	2,18,661
Satara	72,611	78,417	35,902	1,416	1,08,513	79,833	1,88,346	9,373	1,78,973
Wai	41,750	7,394	36,350	2,024	78,100	9,418	87,518	13,792	73,726
Total	7,86,389	5,19,171	4,67,842	20,104	12,54,231	5,39,275	17,93,506	1,28,827	16,64,679

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cropped Area.

TABLE No. 7.

ACREAGE UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956-57.

(In acres)

Crops.	Jaoli.	Karad.	Khandala.	Khatav.	Koregaon.	Mahabaleshwar.	Man.	Patan.	Phaltan.	Satara.	Wai.	Total.
Cereals ..	38,382	89,941	57,001	1,69,730	99,687	3,453	1,51,833	69,637	1,20,240	79,811	55,313	9,35,028
Pulses ..	5,133	11,311	8,158	31,109	17,230	286	26,123	10,384	10,637	10,767	8,771	1,39,909
Sugarcane ..	64	3,196	43	483	191	6	343	524	8,543	349	266	14,008
Vegetables ..	327	889	441	5,187	3,600	170	902	178	316	757	2,241	15,008
Fibres ..	13	610	52	131	18	....	555	49	389	44	15	1,876
Oilseeds ..	7,219	39,786	3,432	12,862	24,963	31	2,765	26,812	7,224	28,797	9,027	1,62,918
Condiments and spices.	135	3,010	171	1,094	920	1	514	401	445	683	683	8,057
Total ..	51,273	1,48,743	69,298	2,20,596	1,46,609	3,947	1,83,035	1,07,985	1,47,794	1,21,208	76,316	12,76,804

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cropped Area.

It is evident from Table No. 6 that Satara district is mainly a food-grain producing area. The main food-crops of the district are jowar, bajra and rice among cereals, gram and *tur* among pulses, fruits and vegetables, sugar-cane and condiments and spices. Four talukas, viz., Khatav, Man, Phaltan and Koregaon together accounted for 7,29,593 acres or more than 50 per cent. of the gross area under food crops, Khatav taluka alone claiming the highest area in the district, viz., 2,28,874 acres.

The main non-food crops are groundnut and safflower among oil-seeds and fodder. Tobacco, betel-leaves, cotton and other fibres are grown almost on a negligible scale. The following table gives comparative figures of acreage under different crops in 1951-52 and 1956-57 in Satara district :—

TABLE No. 8.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1951-52 & 1956-57.

(Figures in hundred acres).

Crops.			1951-52	1956-57
Cereals* —				
Rice	..	..	517	574
Wheat	..	..	226	332
Bajra	..	..	3,945	4,028
Jowar	..	..	4,589	4,975
Ragi	..	..	335	352
Vari	..	..	178	122
Maize	..	..	50	40
Sava	..	..	..	34
Barli	..	..	10	13
Indian millets	..	..	48	..
Kodra	..	..	1	16
Little millets	..	..	2	5
Italian millets	..	..	..	13
Other grains	..	..	11	21
	Total	..	9,912	10,525
Pulses* —				
Gram	..	..	378	441
Tur	..	..	190	205
Watana	..	..	9	12
Mug	..	..	88	103
Masur	..	..	..	1
Black gram	..	..	258	269
Horse gram	..	..	178	141
Math	..	..	479	487
Val	..	..	13	14
Chavli	..	..	34	30
Other pulses	..	..	106	149
	Total	..	1,733	1,852

Continued on next page.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
LAND UTILISATION.
Cropped Area.

(Figures in hundred Acres).

Crops.	1951-52	1956-57
Oil-seeds† –		
Edible –		
Groundnut	1,330	1,424
Sesamum	1	2
Safflower	192	208
Others	2	5
Total ..	1,525	1,639
Non-edible --		
Linseed	3	8
Niger	33	25
Others	20	..
Total ..	56	33
Grand total ..	1,581	1,672
Drugs and narcotics† –		
Tobacco	18	26
Betel-leaves	3	4
Total ..	21	30
Condiments and spices*—		
Ginger	1	4
Chillies	61	61
Turmeric	44	45
Coriander	49	66
Garlic	1	4
Others	21	2
Total ..	177	182
Fibres† –		
Cotton	6	38
Jute	..	5
Deccan hemp	7	2
Sann-hemp (Bombay hemp).	7	7
Total ..	20	52
Fruits and Vegetables* –	162	223
Fodder crops†	3,624	3,411
Sugar-cane*	125	140
Total ..		
Food crops ..	12,109	12,922
Non-food crops ..	5,246	5,165
Grand total ..	17,355	18,087

* Included in food crops.
† Included in non-food crops.

The size of holdings is bound to differ between any two districts as well as between talukas of the district due to a number of factors. However, the plot of land available for cultivation and number of persons entitled to share in it are of greater importance among them since they have a direct bearing on the problem. The number of persons entitled to share in a plot of land mainly depends upon the system of land tenure prevalent in the district. The customary laws of inheritance and succession are also partly responsible for the small size of holdings, through the sub-division and fragmentation of holding. The average size of holding was the smallest in Mahabaleshwar taluka at 0·93 acre, whereas it was the biggest in Man taluka at 18·63 acres. The comparative position of the average size of holding in all the talukas of the district was as under :–

Taluka or peta.	Size of holding in acres.
Man	18·63
Khatav	13·91
Phaltan	12·78
Koregaon	11·97
Karad	10·90
Satara	7·60
Patan	7·29
Jaoli	7·08
Wai	4·78
Khandala	4·13
Mahabaleshwar	0·93

The holdings in the district are divided into three classes A, B and C. Class A comprises persons who cultivate land by themselves with or without the help of hired labour; class B consists of those who do not cultivate land by themselves but supervise and direct cultivation by farm servants or labourers; while class C comprises those persons who receive rent but do not participate directly or indirectly in cultivation. Each class is further sub-divided into *khalsa* lands and *inam* lands. Broadly speaking, persons in the first two classes can be styled as agriculturists, while those in the last class can be described as non-agriculturists. The following quinquennial statement of holdings in Satara district, in 1952-53, gives an idea of the distribution of *khalsa* and *inam* lands among the holders in relation to various magnitude groups :–

TABLE No. 9.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT (1952-53).

Magnitude groups.	Class A.			Class B.		
	Number of persons.	Area held in acres. Khalsa.	Area held in acres. Inam.	Number of persons.	Area held in acres. Khalsa.	Area held in acres. Inam.
Upto 5 acres	86,451	1,58,733	35,762	4,123	6,879	2,619
5 to 15 acres	37,045	2,86,069	30,024	1,169	8,352	2,401
15 to 25 acres	10,099	1,79,370	26,974	312	5,286	1,022
25 to 100 acres	7,194	2,49,353	24,541	202	6,645	1,705
100 to 500 acres	274	30,029	5,983	8	752	311
500 acres and above	7	4,037	1,403	....	....	....
Total	1,41,070	9,08,391	1,24,887	5,814	27,914	8,058

Magnitude groups.	Class C.			Total.			
	Number of persons.	Area held in acres Khalsa.	Area held in acres Inam.	Number of persons.	Percentage to the total.	Area held in acres.	Percentage to the total.
Upto 5 acres	24,710	40,987	22,403	1,15,284	61·17	2,67,583	19·17
5 to 15 acres	11,901	57,710	22,342	50,115	26·59	4,07,698	29·20
15 to 25 acres	2,710	34,697	13,567	13,121	6·96	2,62,716	18·82
25 to 100 acres	2075	53,707	29,601	9,471	5·02	3,65,552	26·18
100 to 500 acres	176	10,159	13,572	458	0·24	60,806	4·36
500 acres and above	20	11,680	14,705	27	0·02	31,825	2·27
Total	41,592	2,10,740	1,16,190	1.88,476	100·00	13,96,180	100·00

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Size.

The taluka-wise distribution of *khalsa* and *inam* rayatwari area among holders of Class A, B and C is indicated in the following table :—

TABLE No. 10.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS (TALUKA-WISE) IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1952-53.

Magnitude groups.	Classes	JAOLI			KARAD			KHANDALA		
		Number of persons.	Area in acres.		Number of persons.	Area in acres.		Number of persons.	Area in acres.	
			Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
Upto 5 acres ..	A	7,307	14,266	2,634	22,255	36,972	7,731	2,468	4,235	1,462
	B	23	19	9	640	1,280	256	265	401	234
	C	771	863	381	5,173	10,467	8,378	1,524	2,555	846
5 to 15 acres ..	A	3,167	24,142	3,015	3,880	36,818	3,084	1,520	12,785	1,398
	B	2	34	7	97	582	286	91	591	205
	C	163	1,100	776	973	4,720	3,271	651	4,711	1,312
15 to 25 acres ..	A	853	16,145	1,942	886	14,452	1,285	417	7,023	432
	B	1	24	....	26	362	80	15	280	4
	C	32	513	369	196	2,248	1,546	139	2,397	476
25 to 100 acres ..	A	729	23,806	3,083	344	9,715	1,315	211	7,254	3,032
	B	1	90	....	10	339	99	9	311	98
	C	22	1,139	942	111	2,415	2,041	109	3,626	797
100 to 500 acres ..	A	20	1,799	823	22	582	289	5	776	....
	B	1	85	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	1	304	528	61	684	896	3	363	....
500 acres and above.	A	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	B	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Total		13,093	84,329	14.509	34,674	1,21,636	30,557	7,427	47,308	10,296

TABLE No. 10—contd.

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS (TALUKA-WISE) IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1952-53—*contd.*

Magnitude groups.	Classes.	KHATAV			KOREGAON			MAHABALESHWAR		
		Number of persons.	Area in acres.		Number of persons.	Area in acres.		Number of persons.	Area in acres.	
			Khalsa.	Inam		Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
Upto 5 acres ..	A	3,237	19,022	3,518	8,640	19,841	8,187	1,374	2,169	493
	B	677	850	374	332	764	222	....	....	....
	C	2,922	6,411	2,525	2,839	5,043	2,969	192	308	12
5 to 15 acres ..	A	4,893	41,294	4,376	5,448	31,325	4,594	483	3,853	405
	B	201	1,253	342	124	921	72	....	....	....
	C	1,363	9,900	2,827	3,559	6,895	3,805	60	774	8
15 to 25 acres ..	A	1,709	28,860	2,610	776	21,276	12,143	114	1,978	172
	B	44	479	142	24	287	59	....	....	....
	C	454	6,855	1,903	433	4,637	2,326	9	154	....
25 to 100 acres ..	A	1,098	36,910	2,339	766	18,908	2,058	53	1,321	416
	B	29	480	788	2	24	15	....	....	....
	C	328	8,964	3,870	316	7,271	5,491	8	448	....
100 to 500 acres ..	A	37	3,463	446	5	692	50	1	51	49
	B	1	99	116	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	19	1,230	1,421	20	1,044	33,07	2	335	....
500 acres and above	A	2	....	61	....	....	....	....	....	....
	B	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	2	....	544	5	....	2,851	....	....	....
Total		22,016	1,66,070	28,202	23,289	1,18,928	48,149	2,296	11,391	1,555

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
HOLDINGS.
Size.

TABLE No. 10—*contd.*

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS (TALUKA-WISE) IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1952-53—*contd.*

Magnitude groups.	Classes.	MAN Number of persons.	MAN Area in acres. Khalsa.	MAN Area in acres. Inam.	PATAN Number of persons	PATAN Area in acres. Khalsa.	PATAN Area in acres. Inam.	PHALTAN Number of persons	PHALTAN Area in acres. Khalsa.	PHALTAN Area in acres. Inam.
Upto 5 acres ..	A	4,607	9,236	1,614	11,230	17,348	3,181	2,523	5,689	985
	B	604	1,092	370	33	31	14	245	439	284
	C	2,629	4,450	1,446	1,388	1,786	654	1,704	3,100	1,354
5 to 15 acres ..	A	4,381	36,860	3,259	3,809	28,374	2,750	3,234	24,754	2,916
	B	336	2,549	645	4	11	8	148	1,133	381
	C	1,578	12,257	1,977	242	1,238	585	1,439	9,754	2,242
15 to 25 acres ..	A	1,893	34,707	2,530	923	15,260	1,438	1,427	21,867	2,616
	B	119	2,507	210	....	....	....	55	918	239
	C	565	9,416	1,416	60	873	256	522	6,698	2,316
25 to 100 acres ..	A	1 855	76,662	3,342	627	19,316	2,920	1,091	40,593	4,157
	B	105	4,259	233	....	....	....	38	933	332
	C	431	14,128	3,203	57	2,244	445	417	9,779	6,143
100 to 500 acres ..	A	79	11,500	820	19	1,772	331	83	9,284	1,962
	B	2	229	34	....	....	....	4	339	161
	C	25	4,290	869	3	195	712	19	1,509	2,477
500 acres and above .	A	2	2,877	357	....	....	....	3	1,160	985
	B	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	5	9,941	860	....	....	....	6	1,729	9,205
Total		19,216	2,36,960	23,185	18,395	88,448	13,294	12,958	1,39,678	38,755

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
HOLDINGS.
Size.

TABLE No. 10—*concld.*

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS (TALUKA-WISE) IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1952-53—*concld.*

Magnitude groups.	Classes.	SATARA			WAI		
		Number of persons.	Area in acres		Number of persons.	Area in acres	
			Khalsa.	Inam.		Khalsa.	Inam.
Upto 5 acres ..	A	10,799	17,694	3,560	7,011	12,261	2,597
	B	1,006	1,463	615	298	540	241
	C	2,980	3,753	2,232	2,588	2,251	1,606
5 to 15 acres ..	A	3,718	27,250	2,374	2,512	19,414	1,853
	B	124	730	180	42	548	275
	C	964	4,054	3,869	909	2,307	1,670
15 to 25 acres ..	A	663	10,493	1,118	438	7,309	688
	B	26	259	260	2	170	28
	C	212	1,868	2,367	88	838	592
25 to 100 acres ..	A	258	8,043	974	162	6,825	905
	B	7	209	15	1	....	125
	C	172	2,218	5,397	104	1,475	1,272
100 to 500 acres ..	A	3	2	1,010	....	108	203
	B	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	19	105	2,838	4	100	524
500 acres and above ..	A	....	....	....	....	....	....
	B	....	....	....	....	....	....
	C	2	10	1,245	....	....	....
Total		20,953	78,151	28,054	14,159	54,146	12,579

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

HOLDINGS.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

One of the main reasons for the low productivity of agriculture is the fragmentation of land holdings. Owing to the pressure of population on land and the customary laws of inheritance and succession, the cultivable land in the district has come to be divided and sub-divided into small fragments which prevent its economic cultivation. The problem is further aggravated by the fact that these fragments are not only small in size but are scattered all over. The cultivator has, therefore, to take his bullocks and implements from one plot of land to another which involves waste of time and labour. This also renders difficult careful watch over the crop. Moreover, unnecessary disputes over boundaries breed ill feeling and involve litigation. The size of holdings is at times so small that it is extremely difficult to carry out any permanent improvements to the land with the result that many a time they are neglected and are allowed to lie idle or fallow. It was, therefore, necessary to bring the scattered holdings together into compact blocks with a view to improving agriculture and establishing, as far as possible, economic units of cultivation. To ensure the overall success of such a measure it was also essential to take simultaneous steps to prevent further sub-division as well as fragmentation of the existing plots of land. The Government passed an enactment entitled "Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947", to deal effectively with the situation.

The Act provides for prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings For this purpose it deals with determination of local standard areas and treatment of fragments, procedure for consolidation, and lastly, with the effect of consolidation proceedings, consolidation of holdings, etc. Its first part aims at putting an end to fragmentation of land any further. A fragment means a plot of land of less extent than the appropriate standard area determined under the Act. A standard area in respect of any class of land means the area which the Government may from time to time determine as the minimum area necessary for remunerative cultivation in any particular local area. In its latter part, it deals with consolidation of holdings which means amalgamation and where necessary, redistribution of holdings or portions thereof, in any village, mahal or taluka or any part thereof, so as to reduce the number of plots in holdings.

The Act authorises the State Government to settle provisionally, for any class of land in any local area, the standard area, i.e., the minimum area that can be cultivated profitably as a separate plot. This is done after holding such enquiry as is deemed fit and after consulting the District Advisory Committee set up for the purpose. The provisionally settled areas are published in the official gazette with a view to inviting objections, if any, from the persons concerned. The Government takes into account whatever objections are received within three months of the publication of the provisionally settled minimum areas and then determines the standard area for each class of land in a local area. The Act prescribes that

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
HOLDINGS.
Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

fragments must be entered in the Record of Rights and other village records and notices must be given to all persons and interests in the lands concerned. After the issue of such notices the transfer of the fragment is prohibited unless this transfer proposes to merge such a fragment in a contiguous survey number or in a recognised sub-division thereof. The fragment holder and his heir can cultivate and inherit the fragment; but, if at any time its owner wants to sell or lease it, it must be sold or leased to a contiguous holder who can merge it with his field. The Act provides that no land shall be transferred or partitioned so as to create a fragment and that transfer or partition of any land contrary to the provisions of the Act is deemed void and the owner of such land is liable to pay fine not exceeding Rs. 250. In case the contiguous holder is unwilling to purchase the fragment or purposely makes a low bid, the Government can purchase it on payment of compensation payable under the provisions of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894. It is pertinent to note in this connection that even in executing the decrees of Civil Courts, no partition or separation of a share resulting in the creation of a fragment is allowed. Similarly, the Act also prohibits the Government or a local body from acquiring or selling the land in a manner which will leave a fragment.

Thus, the edifice of the entire scheme of prevention of fragments hinges on the determination of the standard area by the Government. The fixation of the standard area is based on the economic size of the plot and not of a holding, which may be composed of several plots.

Naturally, such standard area pools together uneconomic fragments so as to form an efficient and economic unit of cultivation. The standard area at different places may vary in accordance with differences in the fertility of the soil, the cost of cultivation, etc.*

*The following figures indicate standard areas applicable in Satara District :—

Taluka.		Dry crop.		Bagayat.		Rice.	
		A.	g.	A.	g.	A.	g.
Jaoli	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Karad	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Khandala	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Khatav	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Koregaon	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Mahabaleshwar	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Man	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Patan	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Phaltan	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Satara	..	2	0	1	0	0	20
Wai	..	2	0	1	0	0	20

HOLDINGS.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.

The Act provides for the consolidation of holdings into compact blocks. This process is bound to work slowly, as it involves a series of problems before the scheme is successfully implemented. To mention only a few, field inspection and valuation of all scattered holdings and their re-distribution in such a manner as to ensure to the persons concerned a fair deal are some of the important as well as intricate problems. The basic principle implied in the scheme is that re-distribution of land is made within the existing proprietary rights and that in the process of exchange everybody should get land of the same value and of equal productivity. For this purpose, lands of equal fertility and out-turn are chosen for an exchange. But where this is not feasible, compensation has to be paid to the cultivator parting with a better plot of land. The amount of compensation is determined in accordance with the provision of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, and is recoverable from the other party receiving the better plot of land. Every owner to whom a holding is allotted is given the same rights in holding and encumbrances like a lease, mortgage, debts, etc. are transferred to the new holding. In the process of consolidation the interests of the tenants are sought to be so safeguarded that no person is deprived of his land or of his tenancy. The cost of consolidation is entirely borne by the Government. No charge or fee is levied on the holders affected by the scheme.

Progress of consolidation Scheme.

In the initial stages the progress of the work was slow, as numerous legal and practical difficulties were encountered and had to be solved. The success of the scheme depended upon the extent of co-operation extended by the people which was much less on account of their prejudices and reluctance to exchange their ancestral lands. Incorrect entries in the Record of Rights was also a factor responsible for impeding the progress of the scheme. The work of drafting or devising such a scheme as will be in conformity with the various provisions and objectives of the Act and as will be agreeable to all the cultivators concerned is really a stupendous task. However, it is a welcome feature that with the passage of time and with the actual implementation of some of the schemes, the work of consolidation is registering a satisfactory progress. The cultivators are gradually taking more interest in the progress of the scheme in as much as they seem to have realised its benefits. The work of consolidation was in progress, in June 1960, in Koregaon, Satara, Wai and Karad talukas and in Khandala peta. It covered 177 villages. However, one confirmed scheme was pending an execution. The overall picture of the consolidation work carried out in the district till the end of July 1960, is outlined in the following figures :—

Number of Villages		Area consolidated in acres	Number of holdings involved	Number of landholders involved	Number of blocks formed
	51	88,025	76,449	16,106	37,326
	43	75,632	64.450	13,537	31,069
	42	73,320	61,311	13,018	29,501
	9	21,099	N.A.	3,964	N.A.
Total	145	2,58,076	2,02,210	46,625	97,896

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Factors like increasing pressure of population on land, inequitable distribution of land, uneconomic size of holding, acute fragmentation and sub-division of land, low productivity of the soil, primitive methods of cultivation, illiteracy of the farmers, meagre resources of the cultivators, etc., prove to be stumbling blocks in the implementation of plans for a progressive agricultural economy. In this context co-operative farming is likely to play a significant role, because it aims at ensuring economic cultivation of plots of land and at stepping up, agricultural production. It is thereby expected to overcome most of the handicaps which have been hampering the progress of agriculture. Co-operative farming implies pooling of small plots of land and their joint management. Through the adoption of co-operative farming, the agriculturist can readily increase the size of the unit of cultivation and derive all advantages accruing from the large-scale farming. For instance, the farmer would be able to strengthen his source of credit, purchase and use modern machinery and costly farm equipment, effect efficient division of labour, provide irrigation, undertake measures for the permanent development of land, and finally, to sell his produce advantageously, which it would be beyond the capacity of an individual farmer to achieve. The cultivator derives these various benefits by becoming a member of the co-operative farming society which gives financial and other assistance and caters to the needs of its members with a view to ensuring their well being and the overall progress of the co-operative society itself. There are three kinds of co-operative farming societies which are separately described in the following paragraphs :—

Better Farming Societies.

(*i*) *Better Farming Societies*.—The main object of these societies is to hold demonstrations and to popularise improved methods of cultivation. The members undertake to adopt improved methods of farming failing which they are liable to pay a fine prescribed by the society at its general body meeting. Better farming societies for special purposes such as fodder storage, cattle breeding and consolidation of holdings are also formed where the promotion of these activities is urgent or where the conditions are suitable. Use of improved seeds, manures and implements is the most common activity undertaken by these societies. A number of ancillary objects like collective purchase of occupational requisites, disposal of farm produce at remunerative prices, etc., also find place in their bye-laws. However, it is found that the activities pursued by these societies could be better performed by multi-purpose societies which are becoming wide-spread and favourite in the rural areas. It has been the policy of the Department of Agriculture to encourage the formation and growth of multi-purpose societies and to merge Better Farming Societies into multi-purpose ones except when they agree to undertake a specific scheme such as development of land, improvement in the methods of cultivation, etc.

Co-operative Joint Farming Societies.

(*ii*) *Co-operative Joint Farming Societies*.—This type of society envisages pooling of land belonging to small owners whose individual holdings disallow economic and efficient cultivation of land.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Members work on the pooled land in accordance with the directions of an Elected Committee. They work jointly on the farm and receive wages for their labour. The ownership of each member in his holding is recognised by payment of dividend or rent in proportion to the value of the land.

Co-operative Joint Farming Societies.

The produce is stockpiled as well as disposed of collectively. The proceeds are applied for (a) meeting all expenses of cultivation including payment for the use of land, wages and cost of management; (b) defraying other charges such as interest on borrowings, depreciation of wasting assets, previous losses, and (c) making provision for reserves and other funds, if any. The residue is then shared by members in proportion to the wages earned by each after utilising a part thereof towards the payment of bonus to the salaried staff. The usual functions of this type of society are: planning of crop programme, joint purchase of farm requisites, collective sale of farm produce at fair prices, raising of funds for the improvement of land on the security of lands, crops and other moveable as well as immoveable assets of the society, purchase of machinery, payment of operational expenses and several other activities calculated to promote development of agriculture in particular and well-being of rural community in general.

Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.

(*iii*) *Co-operative Collective Farming Societies*.—These are formed only when it is possible to acquire large areas of land on lease either from landlords or from the Government. In this form of society, the society owns lands on leasehold or freehold, the land is cultivated jointly by all members, the produce is raised collectively and sold collectively and, finally, the proceeds are distributed among members in proportion to their wages which may include remuneration for personal labour rendered with or without their farm equipment. It will be seen that there is a greater degree of resemblance between these and the Co-operative Farming Societies. However, there is one fundamental difference, *viz.*, the members of the Co-operative Collective Farming Society belong to the class of landless labourers who do not enjoy any ownership or proprietary rights in land. As against this members of the Co-operative Joint Farming Society, individually own a plot of land and continue to enjoy ownership or proprietary interest even after the formation of the society and pooling together of plots of land takes place. The most important benefit derived by the members of Co-operative Collective Farming Societies, is that they are assured of employment and means of subsistence.

Besides these three types of societies, there are Co-operative Lift Irrigation Societies in the district, whose account is given separately in section on "Irrigation". The position of Collective Farming, Joint Farming and Better Farming Societies in the district till 31st March 1959, is summarised in the following table.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.
Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.

TABLE No. 11.

DETAILS OF CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN SATARA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1959.

Type.	Number.	Place.	Number of members. Working persons	Landless persons.	Land-owners.	Total	Land in possession in acres. Government	Private	Land cultivated in acres. Government	Private
							A. g.	A. g.	A. g.	A. g.
Collective farming ..	6	4 Man .. 1 Mahabaleshwar. 1 Phaltan ..	510	96	414	1,020	5,360 00	....	2,094 10	....
Joint farming ..		1 Koregaon ..	21	2	19	42	80 00	266 00	80 00	264 20
Better farming ..	4	1 Wai .. 1 Karad .. 1 Satara .. 1 Koregaon ..	266	..	..	266	....	....	....	....
		Total	797	98	433	1,328	5,440 00	266 00	2,174 10	264 20

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.

TABLE No. 11—*contd.*

Type.	Number.	Place.	Loans sanctioned and disbursed by Government or Registered upto 31st March 1959 in rupees. Loans.	Subsidies	Share capital contributed.	Total.	Finances in rupees. Share capital.	Working capital	Reserve.	Total.
Collective farming ..	6	4 Man ..								
		1 Mahabaleshwar	63,750	12,842	10,000	86,592	27,300	2,13,005	13,913	2,54,218
		1 Phaltan ..								
Joint farming ..		1 Koregaon	5,500	1,000	..	6,500	6,300	25,200	26	31,526
Better farming ..	4	1 Wai ..								
		1 Karad ..								
		1 Satara	35,000	..	..	35,000	13,815	55,290	767	69,872
		1 Koregaon ..								
		Total	1,04,250	13,842	10,000	1,28,092	47,415	2,93,495	14,706	3,55,616

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Co-operative Collective Farming Societies.

There were six Collective Farming Societies of which four were located in Man taluka and one each in Mahabaleshwar and Phaltan talukas. In 1959, they had a total of 1,020 members. Working hands numbered 510 including 456 males and 54 females. Of them landless labourers numbered 96, and land-owners, 414. Financial assistance sanctioned and disbursed by Government till 31st March 1959, amounted to Rs. 86,592, consisting of loans worth Rs. 63,750; subsidies worth Rs. 12,842 and contribution to share capital worth Rs. 10,000. Their financial structure was composed of share capital Rs. 27,300; working capital Rs. 2,13,005 and reserves Rs. 13,913, thus aggregating to Rs. 2,54,218. They had land measuring 5,360 acres in their possession of which 2,094 acres were brought under cultivation. All this land was acquired on lease from the Government. Of the six societies, two in Man taluka and one in Koregaon taluka earned profits of Rs. 2,022, Rs. 710 and Rs. 138, respectively and fell under Class B in the audit classification. The two societies, one in Mahabaleshwar taluka and the other in Phaltan taluka incurred losses worth Rs. 366 and Rs. 21,902, respectively. The former belonged to the Class B, and the latter to the Class C in the audit classification. One society in Man taluka neither earned any profit nor suffered any loss till 30th May 1958 and belonged to the Class B.

There was only one Joint Farming Society in Koregaon taluka having a total membership of 42 persons. Of them, working males numbered 21 including 2 landless labourers and 19 land-owners. The financial assistance sanctioned and disbursed by the Government till 31st March 1959, amounted to Rs. 6,500 consisting of loans worth Rs. 5,500 and subsidies Rs. 1,000. Its finances were composed of share capital Rs. 6,300, working capital Rs. 25,200 and reserves Rs. 26, thus aggregating to Rs. 31,526. It had 80 acres of Government land and 266 acres of private land in its possession, most of which was brought under cultivation. It neither earned any profit nor suffered any loss till 30th May 1958 and was given Class D in the audit classification.

Of the four Better Farming Societies, one each was located in Wai, Karad, Satara and Koregaon talukas. They had a total membership of 266 working hands. Finances sanctioned and disbursed by the Government till 31st March 1959, amounted to Rs. 35,000, in the form of loans. They were composed of share capital, Rs. 13,815; working capital, Rs. 55,290; and reserves Rs. 767, thus aggregating to Rs. 69,872. Of the four societies, two neither earned any profit nor suffered any loss; while the other two incurred a loss of Rs. 291 and Rs. 3 respectively, till 30th May 1958. Only one of them belonged to the Class B, whereas the remaining others to the Class D in the audit classification.

To sum up, only the Collective Farming Societies made somewhat satisfactory progress, whereas the Better Farming and the Joint Farming societies were all unable to do so on account of a number of handicaps like small membership, inadequate resources, lack of experienced and efficient personnel, etc., among others.

The following table indicates talukawise acreage under cereals in Satara district in 1956-57 :—

TABLE No. 12.

AREA UNDER CEREALS (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956-57.

(In acres).

Taluka or peta	Rice	Wheat	Kharif Jowar	Rabi Jowar	Bajri	Maize	Vari	Total
Jaoli . . .	11,882	3,637	6,314	12,986	1,476	1	2,086	38,382
Karad	5,750	3,147	41,966	28,257	8,618	1,578	623	89,939
Khandala	1,132	1,182	663	22,805	31,203	1	15	57,001
Khatav	823	6,174	18,473	16,072	1,27,776	355	57	1,69,730
Koregaon	645	2.770	22,960	33,729	39.478	82	23	99,687
Man	753	3,420	1,670	25,691	1,19,482	397	420	1,51,833
Mahabaleshwar . .	1,748	571	86	318	1	2	727	3,453
Patan	22,066	3,654	13,419	19,962	425	1,443	8,668	69,637
Phaltan	2,121	2,508	126	68,352	47,115	19	1	1,20,242
Satara	5,937	3,190	33.464	24,383	11.536	110	1,191	79,811
Wai	4,574	2,943	6,868	23.976	15,324	11	1,617	55,313
Total . .	57,431	33,196	1,46,009	2,76,531	4,02,434	3,999	15,428	9,35,028

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

CEREALS.

Rice.

Rice (*Bhat*) occupied the third place among the food crops of the State. Warm and moist climate is conducive to its abundant growth. Rice crop can stand higher temperature than other cereal crops and is grown in places having annual rainfall between 40 and 45 inches and above. There are three ways of raising the rice crop, viz., (a) broadcasting, (b) drilling, and (c) transplanting. The adoption of a particular method depends largely upon the rainfall and soil conditions. In Satara district several varieties of rice such as *chimansal, ambemohor, raibag, kolamba* (fine), *varangal, ashta* (mid-fine), *dodak* and *patni* (both coarse) are grown. The total area under rice in the district in the year 1956-57 was 57,431 acres of which 22,066 acres and 11,882 acres were in Patan and Jaoli talukas, respectively.

Rice is taken under a transplanted system in forty per cent. of the total area under this crop. In March or April, a plot is chosen for seed—bed either in the rice field itself or on higher ground close to the field and is ploughed and levelled. Six to eight gunthas are enough for raising seedlings sufficient for one acre of land. Seedlings are generally grown by *rab* method in June. As a result of propaganda and demonstrations organised in the district to popularise the Japanese Method of paddy cultivation, *rabbing* is being replaced by the application of farm yard manure and fertilisers. Under this method an area of three or four gunthas is enough for raising seedlings sufficient for one acre of land. The seed rate per acre has also been reduced from 60 lbs. or 80 lbs. to 20 lbs. or 25 lbs. In the case of the drilled crop, the seed rate varies between 40 lbs. and 60 lbs. per acre. In heavy rainfall tracts it is drilled six inches apart, while in medium rainfall tracts it is drilled nine inches apart According to local practice it is transplanted five or six inches apart with ten to twelve seedlings per hill, while under improved method, transplanting is done from nine to twelve inches apart with only three or four seedlings per hill.

In places where rice is transplanted, fields are carefully embanked so as to allow water to spread evenly in the field and to remain at a desirable depth. Such bunded rice fields are known as *khachars.* In July when seedlings are from five to six inches high, they are cautiously pulled out, tied in small bundles and are taken and planted by hand in the adjoining rice fields. This method of transplanting is quite expensive, as it involves considerable labour. The yield of rice depends as much upon the plentiful and constant supply of water as upon the character of the soil. Ripe paddy is harvested with sickle (*vila*) and stalks with ear-heads are stacked on the threshing floor.

Generally light soils are not manured. The method of quartering sheep is followed, wherever possible, or alternatively, five or six cart-loads of farm yard manure is applied. In tracts with assured rainfall and medium soil, top dressing of groundnut cake or manure mixture at the rate of two bags (i.e. 320 lbs.) per acre is given in two doses. The first dose (about 240 lbs.) is given in

July, a week after transplanting. The second dose (about 80 lbs.) is administered in August, a fortnight before flowering. No interculturing is undertaken in the case of locally transplanted crop.

But in respect of drilled and broadcast rice, frequent weeding is necessary. Hence two hand-weedings and two or three interculturings are given. The early varieties mature in three and a half months, mid-late ones in four and a half months and late ones in five months since planting. They yield 14, 20 and 22 Bengali maunds, respectively, as against 14 Bengali maunds of rice under local method. EK 70 has been introduced as an early variety for light soils, *chimansal* 30 and *krishnasal*-1 have been introduced for medium soils and *ambemohor* 157 for low-lying heavy rainfall areas. The expenditure averages from Rs. 90 to Rs. 150, and the income from Rs. 150 to Rs. 280, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 60 to Rs. 130 per acre.

The disease blast, which causes damage to the crop, is controlled by treating the seed with fungicides. Swarming caterpillars and stem borers, the important pests of the crop, are controlled by dusting the crop with 50 per cent. Benzene hexachloride. The following table gives the acreage under and outturn of rice during the period from 1938-39 to 1954-55 :—

TABLE No. 13.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF PADDY IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55).

(Figures in hundreds).

Year.	Area in acres.	Out-turn in tons.
1938-39	606	219
1939-40	601	233
1940-41	582	242
1941-42	580	234
1942-43	599	233
1943-44	620	258
1944-45	650	226
1945-46	661	230
1946-47	559	202
1947-48	687	239
1948-49	672	149
1949-50	512	155
1950-51	494	140
1951-52	517	147
1952-53	525	126
1953-54	517	139
1954-55	553	185

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CEREALS.
Jowar.

Jowar (*Jvari*), Indian millet, is widely grown in the district. In 1956-57, jowar under *kharif* and *rabi* cultivation occupied an area of 1,46,009 and 2,76,531 acres, respectively. Though it is taken throughout the district, its outturn is concentrated in Phaltan, Koregaon, Karad, Man, Satara and Wai talukas. It is taken as non-irrigated crop after groundnut and sometimes as an irrigated crop after chillies, etc. In both the cases no manuring is done to the crop, as the previous crops are adequately manured. Usually jowar is taken after early variety of groundnut, french beans, etc.

Jowar is taken in *kharif* as well as in *rabi* seasons. Land is ploughed once in three years. But harrowing is done three or four times in a year. *Kharif* jowar is sown in June-July and *rabi* jowar in October-November. They are harvested in October-November and February-March, respectively. Ten to twelve pounds of seed are sown per acre, in rows, 10 to 12 inches apart. After three weeks from sowing, two or three inter-culturings are given once in a fortnight. According to the Poona method, dibbling 18″ × 18″ or drilling 18″ apart is done. The increase in yield resulting from this method ranges from fifty per cent. to cent per cent.* The average yield of *kharif* jowar per acre is 500 lbs. to 600 lbs. of non-irrigated land and 1,000 lbs. to 1,200 lbs. of irrigated land. The corresponding figures for the *rabi* crop are 400 lbs. to 500 lbs. and 800 lbs. to 1,000 lbs. per acre, respectively*.

Stem-borer and grass hoppers are the two important pests and grain-smut is an important disease of the crop. The stems of jowar provide good fodder for the cattle.

The following figures give on an average, the expenditure, gross income and net margin per acre under the cultivation of jowar :—

Crop	Expenditure	Income	Profit
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Kharif jowar	80-100	160-270	80-170
Rabi jowar	65-80	200-250	135-170

Jowar flour is chiefly used in the preparation of a bread (*bhakari*) which forms the most important item of diet over a large part of the State. The grain is much consumed as a popped corn (*lahis*). *Lahis* are prepared by parching or roasting the grain in a popper. The parched grain with salt, *gul*, chillies, etc. (as flavouring ingredients), is also made into special dishes. When in season, the parched unripe *jowar* heads form the popular preparation called '*hurda*'. The comparative position regarding the acreage under and

* *Argal* and *Mhamdapuri* are the two main varieties of *kharif* jowar and *Dagdi* and *Maldani* of *rabi* jowar. The improved strain *Maldani* 35—1 has also been introduced in the district.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. CEREALS. JOWAR.

outturn of the crop during the period from 1938-39 to 1954-55, is set out in the following table.

TABLE No. 14.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF JOWAR IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55).

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.			Area in acres.	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	..	..	5647	1169
1939-40	..	..	5480	815
1940-41	..	..	5970	1110
1941-42	..	..	6405	1189
1942-43	..	..	5608	1070
1943-44	..	..	5666	1296
1944-45	..	..	5471	894
1945-46	..	..	5691	789
1946-47	..	..	5918	753
1947-48	..	..	5326	1040
1948-49	..	..	5605	1035
1949-50	..	..	4678	919
1950-51	..	..	4736	635
1951-52	..	..	4589	753
1952-53	..	..	5163	657
1953-54	..	..	4982	904
1954-55	..	..	4668	1223

BAJRA.

Bajra (*Bajri*), spiked millet, stands second to jowar in importance as a food crop. It requires moderately dry climate and light showers of rainfall with plenty of sunshine between the showers. The crop can grow in regions having seven to forty inches of rainfall. Wherever rainfall is around ten inches, it should be well distributed over the monsoon months. It is grown on a variety of soils ranging from light to medium types. Rain at the time of germination of the seed, flowering and harvesting is very harmful, as it affects the yield considerably. To avoid this, the crop is sown rather late i.e., between July and mid-August. It is a *kharif* crop, being sown a little later and reaped a little earlier than jowar. Where irrigation facilities are available, it is taken as a hot season crop and sown in February-March.

The field is prepared by harrowing it twice or thrice in April-May, and once again, when the soil is sufficiently moistened by monsoon rain. If there are weeds, one ploughing, four to six inches deep, is required. It is a finer grain than jowar and requires more careful tillage. The crop is usually sown in June-July and matures in October-November. The crop is seldom watered or manured. However,

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CEREALS.
BAJRA.

to increase the yield of the crop, five cart-loads of farm yard manure is applied per acre. Five to six lbs. of seed per acre are sown, nine to ten inches apart between lines. Now-a-days distance of twelve inches is also maintained and thinning out at a distance of four to five inches is practised. *Bajri* is always a mixed crop sown with mixtures of *kulthi, matki, mug,* and *tur,* etc., which are sown in every fourth or eighth line of the seed bed. When the crop is four to five feet high, the weeds and grass are cleared by means of hand-weeding and inter-culturing. A timely rainfall in August favours the growth of bajra.

Bajra occupied an area of 4,02,434 acres in 1956-57, and its production was concentrated in Koregaon, Khandala, Phaltan, Man, and Khatav talukas. Average yield of the crop is between 300 lbs. and 350 lbs. per acre. If improved methods are followed, the yield increases to 400-450 lbs. per acre. The expenditure averages Rs. 50 to Rs. 80, and the income, Rs. 100 to Rs. 200, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 50 to Rs. 120 per acre. The blister beetle is an important insect pest affecting the crop. *Gosavi* and *argat* are the two main diseases which can be controlled by selection of seeds. The comparative position regarding the acreage under and outturn of the crop during the period 1938-39 to 1954-55 is set out in the table below :—

TABLE No. 15.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF BAJRA IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55).

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.	Area in acres.	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	3708	401
1939-40	3971	428
1940-41	3672	398
1941-42	3559	432
1942-43	4450	482
1943-44	4398	533
1944-45	4017	433
1945-46	3296	181
1946-47	3477	324
1947-48	4125	444
1948-49	4069	384
1949-50	3529	439
1950-51	3701	367
1951-52	3945	437
1952-53	3571	308
1953-54	3937	345
1954-55	4181	509

Wheat (*gahu*), occupied in 1956-57, an area of 33,196 acres in the district. It is taken throughout the district. It requires dry and cold weather during the period of its growth. It is not as drought resistant as jowar and requires more dependable supply of water. Hence it is usually an irrigated crop and thrives well in black soils called *mena*. The main local varieties in the district are *khapli, pote* and *shet-gahu*. However, these are being replaced by variety *kenphad*. Irrigated varieties (*khapli* and *bansi*) are sown late in October. As both these are susceptible to stem rust, they are being replaced by *kenphad* 25. The number of ploughings and harrowings given to the crop, varies from district to district. However, as a general rule, the soil is ploughed six or seven inches deep at the commencement of rain, followed by frequent harrowings which suppress the growth of weeds and allow thorough absorption of rain water and prevent loss of water due to evaporation. If available, four to ten cart-loads of well-decayed farmyard manure is applied. An irrigated crop is necessarily manured at the rate of 10-15 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre, or alternatively, five to ten cart-loads of farmyard manure together with 100 lbs. of ammonium sulphate is given. Sowing is done from the first week of October to the middle of November, with 12″ to 18″ distance between the rows. In some places sowing is done cross-wise. Seed rate per acre varies from 40 lbs. to 50 lbs. for dry crop and from 60 lbs. to 80 lbs. for an irrigated crop. Planking after sowing is advisable as it helps satisfactory germination of the seed.

The crop requires four or five months to mature since sowing and is ready for harvest by middle of February or March The average yield per acre of dry crop varies from 350 lbs. to 400 lbs. The yield per acre in the case of irrigated crop ranges between 800 lbs. and 1,000 lbs. The expenditure averages Rs. 90-130, and income Rs. 300-450, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 210-320. The grain is more nutritive than jowar but the fodder is very poor.

Rust, the main disease of the crop, is overcome by the use of resistant variety like *kenphad* -25. The comparative position regarding the acreage under and outturn of the crop during the period 1938-39 to 1954-55, is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 16.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF WHEAT IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55)

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.	Area in Acres.	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	585	206
1939-40	549	174
1940-41	512	153
1941-42	451	130

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CEREALS.
Wheat.

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

Year.			Area in Acres.	Outturn in Tons
1942-43	..	..	389	130
1943-44	..	..	439	110
1944-45	..	..	429	109
1945-46	..	..	296	69
1946-47	..	..	420	42
1947-48	..	..	377	111
1948-49	..	..	353	96
1949-50	..	..	244	64
1950-51	..	..	248	82
1951-52	..	..	226	45
1952-53	..	..	210	50
1953-54	..	..	254	59
1954-55	..	..	261	89

Maize.

Maize (*maka*), occupied 3,999 acres in the district in 1956-57. Its outturn is concentrated in Karad and Patan talukas, covering an area of 1,578 and 1,443 acres, respectively. It is taken mostly as a fodder crop and is generally sown in irrigated tracts in June and harvested in September. Sometimes, it is sown in February and harvested in May. It requires black and fertile soil. The seed rate per acre is 30-40 lbs., sown with a distance of 9″ to 12″ between two lines. It is taken as a mixed crop with turmeric. The average yield per acre is 500 lbs. of grain and 20,000 lbs. of green fodder. The crop is useful in many ways. When the grain is white and in milk stage, its ears are readily sold in towns. The green fodder is excellent, being very sweet. Maize grain is nutritious and contains a large quantity of fat. The expenditure averages Rs. 40-50, and income, Rs. 60-70, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 20-25. The comparative position regarding the acreage under and outturn of maize during the period from 1938-39 to 1954-55 is given in the table below :—

TABLE No. 17.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF MAIZE IN SATARA DISTRICT.
(1938-39 TO 1954-55)

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.			Area in Acres	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	..	..	94	29
1939-40	..	..	84	27
1940-41	..	..	84	26
1941-42	..	..	86	30
1942-43	..	..	76	18
1943-44	..	..	83	20

TABLE No. 17—*contd.*

Year.			Area in acres.	Outturn in tons.
1944-45	..	..	83	20
1945-46	..	..	74	14
1946-47	..	..	81	15
1947-48	..	..	85	20
1948-49	..	..	83	19
1949-50	..	..	51	11
1950-51	..	..	46	10
1951-52	..	..	50	10
1952-53	..	..	49	10
1953-54	..	.	41	10
1954-55	..	..	42	7

Ragi.

Ragi (*nagli* or *nachani*) is an important food and fodder crop taken in heavy rainfall tracts along the hill slopes on *varkas* lands. In Satara district it is grown from transplanted seedlings. The nursery or seed bed is prepared with the same care as for rice and the seed is sown in it as early as possible. The main field is got ready when the seedlings are growing. Seedlings are transplanted in furrows opened by light ploughs known as *nangari*, in the second fortnight of July. One to three ploughings are given to the soil. Two or three seedlings are planted in a bunch at each place. The distance between the rows is 15″ to 18″ and between plants 6″ to 9″. At the time of hand weeding, extra seedlings are removed. The crop is transplanted in July and becomes ready for harvest by the end of October or by the beginning of November. The yield per acre, in the case of early varieties, is 300-400 lbs. and, in the case of late varieties, 500-600 lbs.

Ripe grain is used for preparing bread. Sometimes, flour is made into a cooling drink called *ambil*. Green heads are parched and eaten as *hurda* during the harvesting season. *Nachani* is said to be very nutritious. The quality of the fodder is, however, very poor.

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CEREALS.
Ragi.

The comparative position regarding acreage under and outturn of the crop during the period 1938-39 to 1954-55, is given in the following table :—

TABLE No. 18.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF RAGI IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55)

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.			Area in Acres.	Outturn in tons
1938-39	..	.	399	107
1939-40	..	..	411	96
1940-41	..	..	346	116
1941-42	..	..	371	112
1942-43	..	..	369	111
1943-44	..	..	357	96
1944-45	..	..	387	104
1945-46	..	..	355	83
1946-47	..	..	360	96
1947-48	..	..	360	97
1948-49	..	..	362	97
1949-50	..	..	309	89
1950-51	..	..	309	83
1951-52	..	..	335	79
1952-53	..	..	353	95
1953-54	..	..	325	76
1954-55	..	..	372	88

Rala.

Rala is a minor crop in the district. It thrives best on medium light soils. The land is prepared by ploughing it once, or alternatively, two or three harrowings are given. The crop is sown in July-August. Usually *rala* is not taken as a mixed crop. The crop is ready for harvest by October when it is cut close to the ground with a sickle. The average yield varies from 250 lbs. to 300 lbs. per acre. Generally no manure is applied to the crop.

Vari.

Vari is another minor cereal grown in the district. It occupied an area of 15,428 acres in 1956-57 of which 8,668 acres were in Patan. It is always taken as a mixed crop. It is a hill-millet and is entirely a *kharif* crop. It is never irrigated. It is raised like *nagli* from seedlings and the cultivation of both the crops is similar in many respects. It is grown in light red soils on hilly tracts. The crop is hand-weeded once in August. If transplanted early in July, the crop ripens by October. The crop is reaped with a sickle.

The following table shows talukawise area under pulses in Satara district in 1956-57 :—

TABLE No. 19.

AREA UNDER PULSES (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956-57.

(In acres)

Taluka or peta	Tur	Gram	Udid	Matki	Chavli	Watana	Wal	Total.
Jaoli	775	1,789	2,148	63	21	170	167	5,133
Karad	2,822	3,792	3 128	1,100	302	9	158	11,311
Khandala	200	2,452	1 141	3,743	279	277	66	8,158
Khatav	5,918	4,036	3,164	16,673	1,151	65	102	31,109
Koregaon	1,325	9,467	1,278	2,381	624	61	94	17,230
Man	4,320	2,899	190	18,094	164	23	433	26,123
Mahabaleshwar ..	4	48	....	....	....	214	20	286
Patan	1,511	1,998	6,679	5	59	19	113	10,384
Phaltan	1,047	3,696	16	5,818	58	1	1	10,637
Satara	1165	3,714	5,228	291	249	44	76	10,767
Wai	1.168	4,918	1,854	517	143	334	189	8,771
Total ..	19,901	38,809	26,826	48.685	3,050	1,217	1,419	1,39,909

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
PULSES.
Gram.

Gram (*harbara*) is an important pulse crop, extensively grown throughout the district. It occupied an area of 38,809 acres in 1956-57. It requires good black soil. Generally, it is sown in October as a second crop. The field receives the benefit of the previous applications of manure. The land is ploughed to a depth of four to six inches. The seed rate per acre is 40-50 lbs. It is sown with a four-coultered drill at a distance of 10-12 inches except in paddy tract, where it is broadcast in furrows opened up by ploughs. The crop requires careful tillage. This is usually a *rabi* crop. It is common practice to pluck off the tops of the shoots before the flowering time to render them strong and bushy and thus increase the outturn of grain. The crop matures in three months. The yield per acre averages 400-450 lbs., for a dry crop, and 600-700 lbs. for an irrigated crop. The expenditure averages Rs. 40-50, and the income, Rs. 90-130, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 50-80 per acre.

The plant is used in various ways. Both foliage and green grains are used as vegetable. The grain may be eaten green, boiled or parched. It is used as *dal* when ripe. Gram is a staple food of horses. A vinegar or oxalic acid called *amb* is made from the foliage. The dry stalks provide good fodder. The comparative position regarding acreage under and outturn of gram during the period 1938-39 to 1953-54, is given in the following table.

TABLE No. 20.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF GRAM IN SATARA DISTRICT (1938-39 TO 1954-55)

(Figures in hundreds)

Year.	Area in acres.	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	791	134
1939-40	811	133
1940-41 . ..	720	115
1941-42	623	94
1942-43	455	71
1943-44 .. .	598	105
1944-45 .. .	666	97
1945-46	447	58
1946-47	644	78
1947-48	590	85
1948-49	670	98
1949-50	351	67
1950-51	384	71
1951-52	378	32
1952-53	340	37
1953-54	377	68
1954-55	350	44

Matki.

Matki is the second important pulse crop grown in the district. *Matki* occupied the highest acreage under pulses, viz., 48,685 acres, in 1956-57. Its outturn was concentrated in Man and Khatav talukas. *Matki* is always grown as a *kharif* crop. It is usually sown in June-July and harvested in November. The crop is taken in Man, Khatav, Koregaon and Khandala talukas on comparatively lighter sandy soil, along with bajra in every fourth or sixth row. The seed rate per acre is 12-15 lbs. and the yield averages 200-250 lbs. It is used as a split pulse and consumed in different ways. It is also eaten parched or boiled whole with condiments. Occasionally, it is given to horses and the cattle. The plants provide good fodder for the cattle.

Black Gram.

Black Gram (*udid*) occupied an area of 26,826 acres in the district in 1956-57. It is largely grown in Patan and Satara talukas. It is usually sown as a mixed crop with the kharif jowar and bajra in medium black soil. It is harvested in November. The seed rate per acre is 14-15 lbs. in a mixed crop and 40-50 lbs., if taken separately. The yield per acre is 250 lbs. and 450 lbs., respectively. The crop is affected by aphids and red borers. The expenditure averages Rs. 40-50, and the income, Rs. 65-80, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 25-30 per acre. The green pod is rarely used as a vegetable. The ripe pulse is split and consumed as *dal*. It is ground into powder to prepare *papads*. The stalks and leaves form good fodder for the cattle.

Tur.

Tur is one of the most important pulses grown in the district. It covered an area of 19,903 acres in 1956-57, the share of Khatav, Man and Karad talukas being prominent. It is sown in medium black soil mixed with bajra and *kharif* jowar in every eighth row. The seed rate is 12-15 lbs. and the yield averages 250-300 lbs. per acre. *Tur* is a hardy crop and resists drought to a remarkable degree. *Tur* is generally sown in June-July and is ripe for harvest by February-March. It is seldom irrigated, because its roots penetrate deep into the soil and get the necessary moisture, although the upper layers of the soil are dry. Red borer is an important pest of the crop. The expenditure averages Rs. 30-40, and the income, Rs. 50-65, thereby leaving a net income of Rs. 20-25, per acre. The green pods are eaten as a vegetable. The ripe pulse is split and eaten boiled in different preparations. The yellow split pulse is made into a porridge and is sometimes mixed with vegetables. The comparative position regarding acreage under and outturn of the crop during the period 1938-39 to 1954-55, has been set out in the table below :—

TABLE No. 21.

AREA UNDER AND OUTTURN OF TUR IN SATARA DISTRICT.
(1938-39 to 1954-55)

Year.			Area in acres.	Outturn in tons.
1938-39	..	..	372	106
1939-40	..	..	383	109

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.
PULSES.
Tur.

TABLE No. 21—*contd.*

Year.	Area in Acres.	Outturn in tons.
1940-41	364	104
1941-42	350	113
1942-43	368	79
1943-44 .. .	371	106
1944-45	347	99
1945-46	322	46
1946-47	321	69
1947-48	332	83
1948-49	347	99
1949-50	166	47
1950-51	160	40
1951-52	190	47
1952-53 .. .	178	45
1953-54	194	50
1954-55	207	54

Chavli.

Chavli occupied an area of 3,050 acres in the district during 1956-57. Usually, it is grown mixed with bajra and jowar in kharif season. The seed rate per acre is 12-15 lbs. The seed is sown in medium black soil. It is grown throughout the district except in Mahabaleshwar taluka. Khatav taluka has more than one-third of the total acreage under the crop. The yield per acre averages 300 lbs. *Chavli* serves as a very important leguminous rotational crop. Generally, it is not manured. The green pods are used as a vegetable. They are eaten raw or cooked. The green stalks and leaves form a good fodder for milch cattle.

Vatana.

Vatana, one of the favourite pulses of the district. covered an area of 1,217 acres in the district in 1956-57. It is mainly grown in Wai, Khandala, Mahabaleshwar and Jaoli talukas. It is sown in *kharif* season in medium black soil with a four-coultered drill. The distance between the rows is 9 or 10 inches. The seed rate per acre averages 40-45 lbs., and the yield per acre, 300-400 lbs. It is sown in June-July and harvested from October to December. The pulse is used split or whole and cooked in various ways. The crop is mostly grown for its green pods which realise well. The expenditure averages Rs. 55-75, and the income, Rs. 125-350, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 70-275 per acre.

Wal.

Wal occupied an area of 1,419 acres in the district in 1956-57. It is mainly grown in Man, Wai, Jaoli and Karad talukas. It is usually a *rabi* crop. It is a second crop in the rice fields and sown immediately after the harvest. Sometimes it is sown in June-July

in rows mixed with bajra or early jowar and harvested after about four months in October-November. It is taken in medium black and red loamy soil. The *wal* seeds are somewhat bitter and smaller and are used as *dal*. The husks and broken bits of the *dal* are a valuable concentrate for milch cattle. The leaves and stalks are utilised as fodder.

Horse Gram.

Horse Gram (*hulge*, *kulith* or *kulthi*) is also grown in the district. It covered an area of 14,700 acres in 1955-56. It is grown almost throughout the district as a *kharif* crop on light reddish and medium black soil mixed with bajra and *kharif* jowar in every fourth or sixth row. A four-coultered drill is used, the seed rate per acre being 12-14 lbs. The yield per acre averages 200-250 lbs. The crop is ready for harvest in November. It is either black or dark brown. It does not require much water or manure. The green crop is used as fodder for the cattle and sheep.

Mug.

Mug, mainly grown in the eastern part of the district, occupied an area of 9,900 acres in 1955-56. Usually, it is sown as a mixed crop with *kharif* jowar and bajra in every fourth or sixth row. It is taken on medium black soil. It is also grown as an individual crop in kharif season. The seed rate per acre is 14-16 lbs., when taken with some other crop, and varies between 40 lbs. and 50 lbs., when taken as an individual crop. The yield per acre averages 200-250 lbs. and 400-500 lbs., respectively. *Mug*, like other pulses can be eaten green, as a vegetable, and, as split *dal*, when ripe.

TABLE No. 22.

AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956-57.

(In acres).

Taluka or peta	Ground-nut	Sesamum	Castor	Linseed	Safflower	Total
Jaoli	6,162	46	..	2	1,009	7,219
Karad	39,100	..	..	4	682	39,786
Khandala	1,436	2	..	33	1,961	3,432
Khatav	11,020	6	..	150	1,686	12,862
Koregaon	20,846	614	..	11	3,392	24,863
Man	964	2	1	8	1,790	2,765
Mahabaleshwar ..	31	..	..	..	..	31
Patan	26,509	..	1	..	302	26,812
Phaltan	944	3	..	1	6,276	7,224
Satara	27,396	5	15	1	1,380	28,797
Wai	6,606	109	..	9	2,308	9,027
Total ..	1,41,014	787	17	219	20,781	1,62,818

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

OILSEEDS.

Groundnut.

Groundnut (*bhuimug*), is grown throughout the district. It is the most important oil-seed crop in the State. It is taken both as a dry and as an irrigated crop. It occupied an area of 1,42,400 acres. It is sown in medium-black and deep soil, in June-July. The seed rate per acre is 50-55 lbs. and the distance between the rows is about 12 inches. The crop is given five cart-loads of farm yard manure per acre. It is a good rotational crop for jowar. Usually, it takes about six months to ripen. But there are early varieties which take about 90-100 days. If it is taken as an irrigated crop, two crops may be raised in a year. Irrigated groundnut is rotated with rice.

Both early and late varieties are taken in the district. The early variety K-3, mainly used for extraction of oil, is sown in light soil and harvested in October. It yields 400-450 lbs. per acre. The local spreading variety and the early foreign variety (Japan) are harvested in November-December and yield 1,000-1,400 lbs. per acre. The leaves and branches of the plant form excellent fodder. The hay is very nutritious and is known to increase the milk yield of cattle. *Tikka* and rust are the diseases affecting the crop. The latest improved variety K-4-11 has been introduced, since 1958-59. The dibbling method with sowing 12″ to 18″ apart both-ways increases the yield by 25-50 per cent. The expenditure averages Rs. 90-150, and the income Rs. 150—300, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 60-150 per acre. The crop constitutes one of the main oil-seeds exported from the country.

Safflower.

Safflower (*kardai* or *kusumba*) is the next important oil-seed grown in the district. It is sown in *rabi* season in black medium soil as a mixed crop with *rabi* jowar and dry wheat in every eighth row or on the border of the crops. Two varieties of safflower are grown in the State. One yields oil while the other yields a dye. In 1956-57, it occupied an area of 20,791 acres. The crop is sown in October-November. It becomes ripe in about four months and is harvested in March-April. The seed rate per acre is 12-15 lbs., in a mixed crop, and 35-40 lbs., in an individual crop. The yield of the crop per acre averages 200-250 lbs. and 500-550 lbs., respectively. The young tender leaves of safflower plants are eaten as a vegetable and oil is much esteemed in cooking. When sown as a border crop, it protects the main crop, because its spiny leaves do not allow stray cattle to enter the field.

Sesamum.

Sesamum (*til*) occupied an area of 787 acres in 1956-57. It is grown as a mixed crop. In medium-black soil with bajra and groundnut. The seed rate is about two lbs. and the crop yields 100-125 lbs. per acre. It is sown in July and matures within three or four months. It is harvested in November.

Linseed.

Linseed (*javas* or *alshi*) is a minor oil-seed crop of the district. It is taken largely in Khatav taluka. It is grown as a *rabi* crop, with *rabi* jowar and wheat. The seed rate is 8-10 lbs. and the yield averages 300-400 lbs. per acre.

The following table gives the talukawise area in acres under drugs and narcotics, in Satara district in 1958-59 :—

TABLE No. 23.

ACREAGE UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1958-59.

Taluka or peta	Tobacco	Betel-leaves	Total
Jaoli	1	....	1
Karad . ..	1,790	189	1,979
Khandala	....	6	6
Khatav	60	45	105
Koregaon	112	139	251
Man	31	....	31
Patan	42	6	48
Phaltan	22	2	24
Satara	51	8	59
Wai	1	5	6
Total ..	2,110	400	2,510

Tambakhu.

Tobacco (*tambakhu*) occupied an area of 2,110 acres in 1958-59, 85 per cent. of which was to be found in Karad taluka. Tobacco seed is sown in the seed beds during the first week of July and the seedlings are transplanted by about the second or the third week of August. Seedlings are considered to be ready for transplantation when they have four leaves and are four inches high from the ground. They have to be carefully protected from the caterpillars. Seedlings are raised in quantities larger than the actual requirements of the cultivator, as very often a part thereof becomes out of use. Besides they have to be guarded from the sun by covering them usually with straw. The crop is seldom watered but generally manured. It becomes ready for harvest by the end of December or by the first week of January. The cut plants are kept for sun-drying for one week. After sun-curing, the plants are powdered by hand and the tobacco called *motipuda* is collected which is purchased by merchants for preparing *jarda*. The tobacco is smoked and chewed by all classes and is also made into snuff.

Betel-leaf.

Betel-leaf (*nagvel* or *pan*), a garden crop, occupied an area of 400 acres of land in 1958-59. The cultivation was concentrated in Karad and Koregaon talukas. The crop needs abundant supply of

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.
Betel-leaf.

water. In order to support the vines, numerous trees such as *shevri* (*sesbania ægyptiaca*), *pangara* (*erythrina indica*), *hadga* (*sesbania grandiflora*) and *shevga* (*moringa pterygosperma*) are planted. The garden is planted in October with cuttings obtained from the best shoots of the older plants. Hoeing, weeding and manuring is repeated after every three or four months Leaf-picking is generally commenced at the end of the second year. The usual practice is to pick after every fourth month. The vines continue to bear for twenty or thirty years, if they are properly maintained. The cultivation of betel-vine (*pan*) is very costly and hence requires adequate finance. The entire garden has to be sheltered from the sun and wind by high hedges or screens of grass or mats. Betel-leaf is chewed by all classes of people with betel-nut, lime and catechu and sometimes with tobacco and aromatics like cloves, cardamom, nutmeg, etc.

SUGAR-CANE.

Sugar-cane (*oos*) is one of the most important cash crops of the District. It is essentially a tropical crop and, for high outturns, moist hot climate and ample supply of water are necessary. The crop grows on a variety of soils ranging from light type to heavy ones. The best soil for the crop is the medium well-drained type having a depth of 24-30 inches. The soil is ploughed one or one and a half months prior to planting to a depth of 9-10 inches and brought into fine tilth by repeated harrowings. Planting is done from December to April. Early planting is always advisable, as the sprouted seedlings become sturdy and are not easily affected by stem-borers.

In Satara district, the cultivation of sugar-cane has increased considerably, especially in the canal areas, since the opening of the Nira and the Krishna canals. Sugar-cane is always taken as an irrigated crop. It is a twelve-month crop, planted in January-February. Land is well-tilled and pulverised and from twenty to thirty cart-loads of farmyard manure are spread in the furrows before planting. The distance between the furrows ranges from three to five feet. Furrows are irrigated before planting. Again, at the time of earthing up, a dose of 150-200 lbs. of nitrogen is given per acre in the form of top-dressing of groundnut oil cakes and sulphate of ammonia, combined in equal proportions.

The average yield of sugar-cane is 30-35 tons per acre. The expenditure averages Rs. 1,200-1,500, and the income, Rs. 1,800-2,500, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 600-1,000 per acre. *Pundia* and *EK* 28 known for yielding jaggery (*gul*) were the main varieties grown in the district. These are being gradually replaced by improved ones.

The Sugar-cane Research Station at Padegaon, near Phaltan, has recommended that measures such as deep and timely ploughing with straight and long furrows, four feet apart, application of 100 lbs. of superphosphate, changing the seed once in five years, use of improved varieties such as CO 419, inter-culturing by bullock-drawn

implements, trash-composting, planting in proper seasons, proper rotations, use of *bhendi* juice and superphosphate for purifying cane juice, etc., will go a long way to bring about an effective improvement in the cultivation of the crop.

The juice is eaten raw and used for preparing sugar and Jaggery (*gul*). The cane is crushed in iron crushers. Sugar-cane is a crop which exhausts the soil. As such it can not be grown in the same field from year to year but has to be rotated in alternate years with food crops. The stem-borer and top-shoot-borer are the major pests. These are controlled by spraying 0·25 per cent. D.D.T. or 5 per cent. benzene hexachloride. Pyrilla and grass-hopper are controlled by 5 per cent. benzene hexachloride and Red-rot and smut by avoiding ratooning and destroying the affected canes.

State-aid is available for starting sugar factories on a co-operative basis. Such factories are functioning at Phaltan and Julewadi.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES. Chilli.

Chilli (*mirchi*), is the most important spice crop grown in this district and covered an area of 3,258 acres in 1956-57, of which about 50 per cent. was to be found in two talukas, *viz.*, Khatav (914 acres) and Koregaon (666 acres). Chillies are sown in May in a manured seed-plot and transplanted after a fortnight or a month. It begins to bear fruit at the end of two months since transplantation and, if occasionally watered, continues to yield fruit for five or six months. An unirrigated crop yields 600-800 lbs. and irrigated crop, upto 1,500 lbs. per acre. Chilli is an uncertain crop, as cloudy weather causes flowers to shed and affects the crop miserably.

A dose of 10-15 cart-loads of farmyard manure or *sheep-folding* is given. The distance between two rows or two plants is about two feet. At the time of flowering, manure mixture is given as top-dressing at 80-100 lbs. per acre. The expenditure averages Rs. 200-300, and the income Rs. 600-750, thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 400-450 per acre. Thrips are a serious pest of the crop. They suck the sap of leaves and stem, thereby causing diminution in the size of chillies. Spraying the crop with tobacco decoction and application of manures and fertilisers help greatly to shake off the pest.

Turmeric.

Turmeric (*halad*), furnishes an underground swollen stem which is used both as a spice and as a dye. In the Satara district it occupied an area of 4,471 acres in 1956-57, of which 66 per cent. was in Karad taluka, followed by talukas of Wai (466 acres), Patan (399 acres) and Koregaon (228 acres). The soils suited for the crop, are sandy or clayey loams which are well-drained and uniform in texture. The crop is planted in May-June and matures in December-January. Twenty-five to thirty cart-loads of farmyard manure are applied per acre. The crop is planted in a line with furrows nine inches apart. Planting on broad ridges is followed by progressive cultivators.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Maize is taken as an inter-crop. Each acre is manured at 330-445 lbs. During August-September, 20-25 waterings are given. Harvesting is done in February-March. *Kodapa* and *Rajapuri* are the local varieties grown in the district. The former yields more, but the latter realises better. The produce is boiled and dried. The yield of the crop averages 4,000-5,000 lbs. The turmeric root is in universal use as a condiment, being the staple curry powder.

Coriander.

Coriander (*kothimbir*), is grown in the district in small quantities. It is cultivated on the black clayey and red loamy soils. It is cultivated both for its seed (*dhane*) and green leaves (*kothimbir*). The coriander seeds possess medicinal properties. In Satara district coriander is taken as a rain-fed crop with groundnut. The soil is prepared in the same way as for jowar and the seed is drilled in the soil. The average yield of ripe seed is 200 lbs. per acre. As a vegetable, it is grown any time during the year but, as seed, it is sown in September and harvested three months hence.

Garlic.

Garlic (*lasun*), is grown wherever irrigation facilities are available. Medium-black soil is suitable. The crop requires irrigation at regular intervals of 10-12 days. It is generally cultivated as a single crop but always as a cold weather crop and as an irrigated crop. The land is tilled carefully and manured liberally. The contents of the garlic bulbs are broadcast in the field in October and covered lightly with soil. The crop matures in five or six months. Its use in cookery is very common.

Miscellaneous Condiments and Spices.

Ginger (*ale*), ajwan seed (*ova*), sweet fennel (*badishep*) and fennel (*shepu*), are among the other condiments and spices grown in the district. *Ale* is grown in good black well-drained soil. It is raised from layers at any time of the year. With irrigation and manuring after an interval of 10-12 days, the crop becomes green and ready for use in five months. The dry root is called *sunth*. Green ginger and *sunth* are used as condiments and for medicinal purposes. *Sunth* is a favourite cure for colds. Ajwan seed (*ova*), sweet fennel (*badishep*), and fennel (*shepu*) are sown in gardens during any time of the year and on the edges of dry crops in July-August. All these mature within a period of two and a half to three months. Fennel (*shepu*) is fit for use as a vegetable in about six weeks since its planting.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

The following table indicates the taluka-wise area under condiments and spices, in Satara district, in 1958-59 :—

TABLE No. 24.

ACREAGE UNDER CONDIMENT AND SPICES (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1958-59.

Taluka or peta	Chillies	Ginger	Turmeric	Coriander	Garlic	Fenugreek	Others	Total
Jaoli	139	2	47	526	5	....	....	719
Karad	1,136	24	2,874	1,164	37	....	....	5,235
Khandala	246	....	6	87	4	....	....	343
Khatav	891	65	194	523	297	....	....	1,970
Koregaon	710	52	223	1,024	24	....	....	2,033
Man	472	....	3	53	23	....	....	551
Mahabaleshwar ..	2	....	1	....	3	....	....	6
Patan	541	7	335	367	11	....	....	1,261
Phaltan	529	1	4	7	10	....	1	552
Satara	753	215	279	1,547	13	10	....	2,817
Wai	258	1	475	601	15	....	....	1,350
Total ..	5,677	367	4,441	5,899	442	10	1	16,837

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
FIBRES.

The following table shows taluka-wise acreage under fibres, in Satara District, in 1956-57 :—

TABLE No. 25.

ACREAGE UNDER FIBRES IN SATARA DISTRICT. 1956-57.

Taluka or peta	Cotton	Ambadi	Sann-hemp
Khandala	30	1	21
Phaltan	388	1	....
Wai	4	6	5
Koregaon	1	17	....
Jaoli	....	13	....
Satara	....	23	21
Man	500	55	....
Khatav	19	109	33
Karad	....	14	596
Patan	....	1	48
Total ..	942	240	724

Cotton.

Cotton (*kapas*), grows best in places where rainfall ranges between 20 and 30 inches. The soils, in which cotton is grown, are generally very fertile. The crop occupied 942 acres in 1956-57, in the district. Its outturn was concentrated in Man and Phaltan talukas. The variety *jarilla* is grown in both the talukas, whereas *Deviraj* and *Laxmi* varieties are grown only in Phaltan taluka. The crop is sown in May-June. It is ready for picking after five or six months. It is grown in medium-black soil in ridges four feet apart. The distance between the plants in the row varies from six to nine inches. Normally the basal dose consists of 10-15 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre. Top-dressing is given in the first fortnight of July and consists of 125 lbs. of ammonium sulphate and 82 lbs. of superphosphate per acre. As the plant grows, inter-culturing is done three or four times with small blade hoes and hand-weeding is done twice. No other operation is necessary till October. The bolls open towards the end of October and *kapas* is picked during November-December, in three pickings, one following the other after an interval of 10-15 days. The average yield of the crop in the district is 900-1,000 lbs. This is one of the most important rotation crops in sugarcane cultivation. The expenditure averages Rs. 250-300, and the income, Rs. 500-700, thereby leaving a net income of Rs. 250-400 per acre.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FIBRES.

Deccan Hemp.

Deccan Hemp (*ambadi*) also known as Brown Hemp, is one of the fibre crops and occupied 240 acres in the district, in 1956-57. It is used both as an oil-seed and as a fibre crop. It is sown in June-July and mixed usually with *bajri*. The young sour leaves of *ambadi* are used as a vegetable and the seed is chiefly used for oil. The bark of the *ambadi* plant yields valuable fibre which is separated from the stalk by soaking. It is made into ropes which can be put to various uses.

Bombay Hemp.

Bombay Hemp or sann hemp (*tag*) occupied 694 acres in the district in 1956-57, Karad taluka being prominent (596 acres). It is sown in June-July and ripens in August-September. Its leaves provide excellent manure, hence, the ripe crop is left standing in the field for about a month.

FRUITS.

The most common fruits grown in the district, are bananas, sweet oranges (*mosambi*), guavas pomegranates, lemons, mangoes and grapes. The fruits are mostly grown on irrigated garden lands throughout the district. The following table shows the area under fruit crops, in the district, in 1956-57 :—

TABLE No. 26.

AREA UNDER FRUIT CROPS IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956-57.

Crop.	Acres.
Banana	930
Sweet orange	650
Guava	500
Pomegranate	200
Lemon	130
Mango	100
Grapes	40
Others*	450
Total	3,000

Banana.

Banana (*kele*) is a popular fruit grown extensively in the district. It accounted for 31 per cent. of the total area under fruits, in the district, in 1956-57. Warm and humid climate is conducive to the crop. It is taken in rich black and well-drained soils. It is propagated by planting suckers. Land is ploughed in April and two or three harrowings are given in May. Suckers are planted in June-July in pits of one cubic foot, eight or ten feet apart in squares. Each pit is supplied with farmyard manure mixed with ash. After the rains are over, the plants are irrigated about twenty times at intervals of 12-14 days, in winter, and one week in summer. Timely and heavy irrigation is important, as large quantities of water lost from broad leaves have to be replaced in time. Flowering starts after about nine months and continues subsequently for three or four months. The crop matures roughly a year and a half since planting. Each bunch

* Includes area under *sitaphal*, *ramphal*, cocoanut, *chiku*, jack-fruit, raspberry, strawberry, etc.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. FRUITS. Banana.

contains, on an average, 100 fruits. Banana can be allowed to multiply in the same field in which case three or four crops are taken, one after another, from the succeeding sucker generations. The plants are removed after the crop is harvested. However, prominent suckers are allowed to grow till fruiting next year. The crop cannot grow well in hilly and windy tracts, as its flat and tender leaves are damaged. The varieties grown in the district comprise *rajeli, deshi, son* and improved *basarai*, besides local ones.

Citrus Fruits.

The main citrus fruits grown in the district are Sweet orange (*mosambi*) and lemon (*kagadi limbu*). They occupied 28 per cent. of the total area under fruits in the district, in 1956-57. The fruits require loose loamy well-drained soil. The citrus trees are very sensitive to poor drainage, and, therefore, not planted in soils which are likely to become water-lodged.

Sweet orange.

Sweet orange (*mosambi*) grows well in dry climate. Before planting, the land is ploughed and well-pulverised. It is manured at 10-15 cart-loads of farmyard manure. Seedlings or bud-grafts are planted in small pits of 2 cubic feet each duly filled with silt and good soil. Planting is done 15-20 feet apart in squares in June-July. The bud-grafts are obtained within this district, from the Government Agricultural School, Borgaon, and from the Government Garden at Ganeshkhind in Poona and private nurseries at Talegaon. Land is ploughed every year. The plant is manured with one basketful of farmyard manure and one seer each of dry fish manure and groundnut cake. Irrigation is given at intervals of fifteen days in winter and one week in summer.

The plant begins to bear at the age of four or five years. It flowers during the *Ambebahar*, i.e., in January-February and fruits are ready for harvest in August-September. However, flowering is often postponed by application of a pound of ammonium sulphate per plant in January so as to obtain good crop during the slack season (rainy) and thus earn decent income. In that case irrigation is done in April-May. Ash and bone-meal are given to the crop. The plant flowers at the onset of monsoon, i.e., during *Mriga or Hasta bahar*. The tree yields, on an average, 150-200 fruits.

Plants are affected by die-back, gun disease, aphids and fruit flies. Creosote is applied against gun disease and fish oil rosin soap against aphids. Affected parts of plants are sometimes cut as a remedial measure.

Orange.

Orange (*santra*), is grown on a small scale in the district. It is taken in fertile garden lands. The requirements of this crop as regards soil, irrigation and cultivation are similar to those of *mosambi*. The yield of this fruit is less than that of *mosambi*. Further, it is not in great demand, as it cannot compete with the famous Nagpur variety.

Lemon.

Lemon or lime (*kagadi limbu*) is grown in the district on medium-black and well-drained soil. Hot and dry climate favours its growth.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS.

Citrus Fruits.

Lemon.

The crop is propagated by budding scion on *jamburi* and by seedlings raised from seeds. The land is ploughed and harrowed. It is manured at eight or ten cart-loads of farmyard manure in the hot season. Irrigation is given at intervals of fifteen days in winter and ten days in summer. The distance between the rows and plants is 12-15 feet. The tree yields, on an average, 300 fruits in a year. It continues to yield for 10-12 years. The use of *kagadi* lime for its juice is universal. The fruit is used in diet and its juice in making a cold beverage in summer. Tasty pickles are also prepared from the fruit.

Mango.

Mango (*amba*) occupied an area of little over three per cent. (100 acres) of the total area under fruits, in the district, in 1956-57. Seedlings raised from seed stones are planted on bunds along the border of the fields in the pits of 3 cubic feet each. The pits are filled with good soil and are kept 35-40 feet apart. Two seedlings are planted in a pit and the one vigorous is retained at a later stage. One-year old seedlings raised from seed stones or grafts are also planted. The tree bears fruits after 4-5 years and continues till 30-50 years. An average tree yields 3,000-4,000 fruits in a year of good bearing. Cloudy weather coupled with strong winds causes florescence to shed and reduces the yield considerably. Besides the *raiwal* variety, alphonso (*apus*), *payari* and *rajapuri* varieties are also grown extensively in the district. Mango is the most popular fruit. Ripe mangoes are used for table purposes, while raw ones are used for preparing pickles, *chutney*, drinks, etc.

Guava.

Guava (*peru*) is a very favourite fruit of the district and occupied 500 acres or one-sixth of the total area under fruits, in the district, in 1956-57. The land is ploughed and harrowed. It is manured at 8-10 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre during summer. The seedlings are prepared from good seeds in nurseries where they are well-manured during their growth. They are transplanted in the field in pits of 2 cubic feet each duly filled with the soil and 15-18 feet apart. Transplanting is done in the beginning of the monsoon. Plants grow vigorously in dry climate. The land is ploughed every year and each plant is given one basketful of farmyard manure. Irrigation is provided to the plant at intervals of 12-15 days in winter and 8-10 days in summer. The first season is ready in August-September and the second one in November-December. Fruiting commences 3-4 years since planting. The tree yields, on an average, 250-350 fruits of fairly big size. The improved variety *Lucknow-49* is widely grown throughout the district. It is almost seedless and sweeter in contrast to other varieties. The crop requires to be guarded against bats and parrots which damage ripening fruits.

Pomegranate.

Pomegranate (*dalimb*) grows well in medium-black and light well-drained soils with a depth of one and a half to two feet. It thrives well in dry and hot climate. It thrives in short winters and long summers. Pomegranates occupied 200 acres or about seven per cent. of the total area under fruits in the district. Seedlings are raised from the seeds of quality fruits and get ready for transplantation after one year. They are planted about ten feet apart in pits

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FRUITS.

Pomegranate.

of 1 cubic foot each, filled with good soil and farmyard manure. The plants usually bear fruit after three years since transplanting. Fruit-borer is a bad insect pest which ruins the crop, if affected fruits are not destroyed in time. It can be controlled by spraying wettable D.D.T. *Deshi* and *maskati* are the main varieties grown in the district. *Maskati* is a superior variety. The tree yields, on an average, 75-100 fruits. The fruits are nourishing and used for table purposes.

Grape-vine.

Grape-vine (*draksha*), grows best on lighter soils with good drainage. The vine is propagated by cuttings which are planted in nurseries in October. The cuttings with roots at least at two joints are transplanted in January in pits of 1 cubic foot each filled with good soil and farmyard manure. The distance between the two vines is 8-10 feet. The vines are allowed to trail on *pangara* stem or on wire trellis. The crop is manured every year at the time of *bahar* treatment. The tree bears fruits after two years since planting. The grape-vines are pruned twice a year, i.e., in April and in October. Farmyard manure and groundnut cake are applied after the April pruning. The vines growing after the October pruning bear sweet crop in March. The grape-vines yield sour crop in July-August. Irrigation is given regularly except when the crop gets favourable rains. Repeated spraying with Bordeaux mixture and sulphur powder controls the serious fungus diseases like downy and powdery mildew. The varieties grown in the district are *bhokri*, *phakdi*, *gulabi* and *malta*, the first two being prominent among them.

Other fruits.

Other fruits include *sitaphal*, *ramphal*, cocoanut, *chiku*, jack-fruit, raspberry and strawberry. They occupied 450 acres or 15 per cent. of the total area under fruits, in the district, in 1956-57.

Custard Apple.

Custard Apple (*sitaphal*), thrives well in dry and hot climate and requires moderate irrigation. The plants are raised from seeds. They bear fruits after 3-4 years since planting and continue for fifteen years. The fruits ripen in August and November. The tree yields 30-50 fruits.

Bullock's heart.

Bullock's heart (*ramphal*) requires a better soil than *sitaphal*. It needs watering in dry climates. The fruit ripens late in winter. An average plant yields 20-30 fruits per year for 15-20 years. It is bigger in size and sweeter in taste than *sitaphal*.

Cocoanut.

Cocoanut (*naral*) is taken up recently in the district. Seedlings are obtained from Government nurseries and planted in pits of two cubic feet each filled with good soil, compost and salt. The distance between the plants is 8-10 feet. An average tree yields 50 fruits annually for 20-25 years. The fruit is used in cooking and oil extraction.

Chiku.

Chiku thrives well in medium-black and well-drained soil. Though it is tropical in character, it does not require high humidity. The seedlings are raised from seed. Seedlings or grafts are planted in pits 2 cubic feet each filled with good soil and farmyard manure. The distance between the pits is 15-20 feet. Plants start bearing fruits after four years since plantation and continue for 15-20 years.

FRUITS.

Jack-fruit.

Jack-fruit (*phanas*) is grown in hilly tracts. It is not cultivated as a sole crop but propagated by seeds. A pit is dug and filled with cow-dung and the seed is sown in June-July. Irrigation is done in dry tracts only. Warm and moist climate is very suitable for its growth. A tree yields, on an average 30 good fruits for fifty years or more. The *barka* variety has soft pulp, and the *kapa*, a thick pulp. The *kapa* variety is popular, as it keeps longer. The *barka* variety is used in preparing *phanaspoli*. The seeds when parched or roasted are very palatable and nutritious. The wood of the tree is hard and valued much for furniture.

Raspberry and Strawberry.

The cultivation of raspberry and strawberry is a speciality of this district. These are cultivated on a small scale in concentrated areas in Mahabaleshwar peta. The crop thrives well at places with altitude having cool and dry weather in summer. The trees are propagated by cuttings obtained from Bangalore. The crop requires liberal watering and manuring. Aphids cause severe damage. The crop is in good demand, especially among visitors of Mahabaleshwar and Panchgani and hence fetches well.

VEGETABLES.

The following table shows taluka-wise acreage under tubers and vegetables, in Satara district, in 1957-58 :—

TABLE No. 27.

AREA UNDER VEGETABLES (TALUKAWISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

(In acres)

Taluka or peta	Potato	Sweet potato	Onion	Carrot	Radish	Cabbage	Brinjal	Tomato	Fenugreek	Lady's finger	Musk-melon	Other vegetables	Total
Jaoli .	244	79	30	12	..	1	27	..	.	..	..	16	409
Karad ..	86	530	148	192	..	..	..	1	..	8	..	153	1,118
Khandala ..	425	120	1,144	14	1	3	16	2	1	113	..	73	1,912
Khatav ..	5,557	406	101	312	..	1	33	..	..	1	..	19	6,430
Koregaon ..	13,376	69	117	32	..	43	34	..	.	5	..	58	3,734
Mahabaleshwar.	71	70	..	.	..	7	4	3	..	..	..	171	326
Man ..	540	357	67	114	2	..	35	..	.	3	..	4	1,122
Patan ..	17	51	182	45	1	1	79	..	..	1	..	1	378
Phaltan ..	33	139	902	19	1	3	124	4	..	25	5	14	1,269
Satara ..	579	57	133	28	1	24	88	17	32	12	3	86	1,060
Wai ..	2,182	45	92	14	.	..	25	11	..	18	..	79	2,466
Total ..	13,110	1,923	2,916	782	6	83	465	38	33	186	8	674	20,224

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

VEGETABLES.

Besides, the district also grows various tubers and leafy and fruit vegetables. The total area under these, in the district, was 15,008 acres, in 1956-57, Khatav (5,160 acres), Koregaon (3,585 acres) and Wai (2,196 acres) being prominent root vegetable sowing talukas.

Potato (*batata*) is grown mostly in the kharif season. Potato is cut into small pieces each having two or three eye-buds. Planting is done in the third week of June after one or two good showers. Planting is done in furrows opened by a small wooden plough at a distance of 18 inches and the sets are planted at a distance of nine inches in furrows. When the second furrow is opened, the first one is automatically covered and the planting is continued until seven or eight furrows are planted. The seed rate per acre is 1,000-1,200 lbs. per acre. Irrigation is done twice or thrice, if necessary, in a *kharif* crop and, eight or ten times, in a *rabi* crop.

Kharif crop matures in about 90 days. Five to ten cart-loads of farmyard manure or compost are applied per acre. After one month from plantation, two Bengali maunds of potato mixture are generally given as top-dressing. The improved variety *Numbri* is grown in the district. It yields 100-225 Bengali maunds per acre. The expenditure averages Rs. 400-500, and income Rs. 800-1,000 thereby leaving a net margin of Rs. 400-500 per acre.

Carrot.

Carrot (*Gajar*) is grown on medium black soil. Heavy rains damage the crop. It can be taken as a *kharif* or as a *rabi* crop. However, in this district, it is mostly taken as a rabi crop. The land is either ploughed or harrowed and, if possible, manured with 10-15 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre. Seeds are spread in flat seed beds. 15 lbs. of seed are sown per acre and three or four waterings are given to the crop. The crop is ready for use within three months from sowing. The yield per acre averages 50 Bengali maunds. The root is eaten both raw and boiled, as a vegetable and leaves are fed to cattle.

Onion.

Onion (*kanda*) is mostly taken as a *rabi* crop. There are two varieties grown in the district, one Red and the other white. The white variety is milder than the red one. The crop is taken in medium black soils. The seed rate per acre is 8-10 lbs. Seeds are sown on raised seed beds in October-November. The seedlings get ready for transplantation in four or five weeks and are transplanted at a distance of four or five inches in furrows six inches apart. Five or six cart-loads of farmyard manure or compost are applied per acre. The crop has to be watered every ten or twelve days. The pest thrips is controlled by dusting lime sulphur. The yield per acre averages 1,000 Bengali maunds. The expenditure averages Rs. 200-300. and the income Rs. 550-750 thereby leaving a net income of Rs. 350-450 per acre.

Sweet Potato.

Sweet potato (*ratali*) is grown in all seasons in two varieties, red and white. The crop can be taken in a variety of soils and is hence an important garden crop. The land is cleaned by repeated ploughings and harrowings.

Then it is made into ridges and furrows. Five or six cart-loads of farmyard manure are given per acre. The crop requires eight or ten waterings. Cuttings or sets with three nodes are planted on both the sides of the ridges, two and a half feet apart. One thousand pounds of sets are required for planting an acre of land. The yield per acre averages 80-120 Bengali maunds.

Ridge Gourd.

Ridge Gourd (*dodka*) is taken in all seasons. The land is ploughed or harrowed and basins with a diameter of two and a half feet are prepared ten feet apart. Two or three seeds are dibbled five feet apart. Pandal (*mandav*) usually made of wood and twigs is raised to support the creepers. Each ring is supplied with one basketful of farmyard manure mixed with ash. Irrigations are given by ring method. The yield per acre averages 30-40 Bengali maunds.

Bottle Gourd.

Bottle Gourd (*dudhya bhopla*) is grown in all seasons. Land is ploughed or harrowed. Small basins having a diameter of two and a half feet are kept about ten feet apart. 6-8 seeds are dibbled in each basin. Irrigation is given by ring method. The creepers are either allowed to trail on the ground or more usually on specially prepared *mandaps*. One basketful of farmyard manure mixed with ash is given to each plant. The crop is ready in about two and a half months and harvested two and a half months hence. The yield per acre averages 25-30 Bengali maunds.

Smooth Gourd.

Smooth Gourd (*ghosale*) is grown as a *kharif* crop. Two or three seeds are dibbled in the basins five feet apart. It is allowed to trail over roofs or on specially prepared *mandaps*. A basketful of well rotted farmyard manure mixed with ash is given to each basin. Irrigation is given by ring method. The yield per acre averages 25-30 Bengali maunds.

Bitter Gourd.

Bitter Gourd (*karle*) is mainly grown as a *kharif* crop. It requires medium soil which is ploughed and harrowed to prepare basins, having a diameter of two and a half feet. Basins are ten feet apart. 3-4 lbs. of seed are sown per acre.

Cucumber.

Cucumber (*kakdi*) is grown in the district throughout the year, in sandy loam soils on the river banks. 3-4 lbs. of seed are sown per acre of land. The white and the green varieties are grown in the district. The creeper bears after two months since planting. 3-4 cart-loads of farmyard manure are applied per acre. The yield per acre averages 30-40 Bengali maunds. The fruit is commonly used in preparing salad.

Snake Gourd.

Snake Gourd (*padval*) is a rain-fed crop. The land is ploughed and harrowed and basins with a diameter of two and a half feet are prepared at every ten feet. Five or six seeds are dibbled in each basin at the beginning of the monsoon. The creeper bears in two months after plantation. One basketful of farmyard manure mixed with ash is given to each basin. The plant is allowed to trail on the specially prepared *mandaps*. The yield averages 40-50 Bengali maunds per acre.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

VEGETABLES.

Red Pumpkin.

Red Pumpkin (*tambda bhopla*) is grown as a *kharif* crop. The creeper is raised on roofs and walls. The land is ploughed and harrowed and basins with a diameter of two and a half feet are prepared. Two or three seeds are dibbled five or six feet apart. One or two basketfuls of farmyard manure mixed with ash are given to the plant. Pumpkin weighs 10-40 seers.

Brinjal.

Brinjal (*vangi*) is an irrigated as well as rain-fed crop. It is grown on rich soils, often on river banks and in gardens. In gardens it is grown in all seasons. The land is ploughed to a depth of 4-6 inches and well-rotted farmyard manure is applied at 8-10 cart-loads per acre. The seed rate per acre is one pound. In dry lands it is sown in June in seed beds and transplanted during July. It begins to bear fruit in September, and if occasionally irrigated, bearing continues for four months. The yield per acre averages 75-100 Bengali maunds.

Tomato.

Tomato (*vel vangi*) is grown in the district as a *kharif* as well as a *rabi* crop. The land is poughed to a depth of 4-6 inches and harrowed. Well-rotted farmyard manure is applied at ten cart-loads per acre. Seeds are first sown at about one lb. per acre in nursery beds and seedlings transplanted in three or four weeks, at a distance of two and a half feet. Six to eight waterings are given during the *rabi* season. Seedlings are transplanted in June, October and February. However, June crop gives highest yield. The yield per acre averages 40-50 Bengali maunds.

Pod Vegetables.

Lady's Finger.

Lady's Finger (*bhendi*) is grown throughout the year, though it thrives well as a *kharif* crop. Five or six waterings are given during summer at an interval of 6-8 days. 10-12 lbs. of seed are sown per acre. Seeds are dibbled on both the sides of the ridges, at a distance of twelve inches in the row. Sowing is done either in July or in February. Only tender fruits are harvested 6-8 weeks after sowing. The yield averages 30-40 lbs.

Gavari.

Gavari is grown in all seasons. The seed rate per acre is 25-30 lbs. The seeds are dibbled on both the sides of the ridges. The land is ploughed and harrowed and five or six cart-loads of farmyard manure are applied per acre.

It begins to bear pods in three months. Four or five waterings are sufficient. The plant grows about three feet high with a single fibrous stem from which the pods grow in bunches. The yield per acre averages 10-20 Bengali maunds.

Ghevada.

Ghevada is taken as a *kharif* crop. The seeds are dibbled in pits, 18″ × 12″, the seed rate being 10-20 lbs per acre. The seeds are sown in June-July. The creeper bears after three months since sowing. Five or six cart-loads of farmyard manure are applied per acre of land. The yield per acre averages 20-25 Bengali maunds.

French Beans.

French Beans (*shravan ghevada*) is generally sown as a *kharif* crop, in medium black soil, by four-coultered drill at a distance of eight or ten inches. Seed rate per acre is 30 lbs. for dibbling and

40 lbs. for drilling. The crop is neither manured nor irrigated Flowering starts after 40-45 days and pods begin to appear one week hence. The yield of green pods averages 350-400 lbs. The crop is harvested in September and the land is used for *rabi* crops like jowar and wheat.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Agricultural operations vary according to such factors as the nature of crops, the extent of rainfall and the types of soils obtaining in a particular region. Broadly speaking, these represent a series of operations and have to be performed one after another in proper time. These consist of opening up of the land by digging or ploughing; further pulverising the soil; cleaning the fields; spreading the manure and mixing it with the soil; sowing the seed or planting the sets or seedlings; inter-culturing; weeding; earthing up; irrigating; applying effective manures at top-dressings; spraying or dusting of insecticides; protecting the crop from birds, stray cattle and wild animals; and, at a final stage, right from harvesting and threshing to storing; and making arrangements for sending it to market. Besides, there are a number of occasional operations performed for effecting a permanent improvement of the soil which include bunding, levelling, land-reclamation, etc.

Rabbing.

In Satara district nearly 40 per cent. of the paddy cultivation is done by transplanting in low-lying areas. The seedlings are grown in June by the *rab* method. However, due to extensive propaganda of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, *rabbing* is being slowly replaced by application of farmyard manures and fertilisers.

In March or April a plot is chosen for a seed-bed either in the rice field itself or on higher ground close to the field and ploughed once and levelled. Six gunthas are enough for raising sufficient seedlings for an acre of land. After *rabi* crops are harvested in November, lands generally remain fallow in winter. During this period, cow-dung, grass and leaves are spread on the ground. A second layer consisting of branches and brush-wood is added, then the land is covered with grass and finally, the fine earth is sprinkled on the layers. These layers of cow-dung, brush-wood, grass and leaves are called *rab*. The *rab* is then set fire to. This is usually practised at the end of summer when the *rab* is dry and burns easily. One-tenth of cultivated area is *rabbed* for raising seedlings. The seedlings are vigorous and the land becomes free of seeds. If instead, ammonium sulphate is applied to the seed-beds, seedlings are said to grow vigorously but, at the same time, the weeds also grow in abundance. Till recently, agriculturists in the district preferred *rabbing* to the use of ammonium sulphate on account of the comparatively high cost of fertilisers as also because collecting of leaves, stems, wood-choppings from nearby jungles is a less expensive matter for farmers.

Ploughing.

Ploughing is done almost every year by wooden or iron ploughs. It is a primary operation which helps to open the land, dig out deep rooted weeds or stubbles, aerate the soil and to trap and store water

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.
Ploughing.

for the crop. Usually, the land is ploughed immediately after the ante-monsoon showers are received by end of May or by the beginning of June. For, it is not possible to plough it at the end of the harvest, because the land sets very hard on drying as soon as rains are over on account of the intensive puddling done to it during the process of paddy cultivation. The first ploughing is done in June. In places where rice is transplanted, fields are carefully embanked so as to allow the water to spread evenly in the fields and to remain there at a desirable depth. For this purpose fields are left alone for two or three weeks which helps raising of paddy seedlings. In case there is excessive accumulation of water, suitable outlets are provided in the bunds to drain off superfluous stock of water. At the end of June or by the beginning of July, land is puddled vigorously under stagnant water conditions, usually three or four times, or till a particular muddy physical condition of the soil is obtained. The idea behind pudling the land is to make the soil so sticky as to prevent water percolation below the surface. On an average, the plough opens up an area of 10-15 gunthas in a day and the total cost of ploughing an acre of land averages Rs. 25-30. The nature of ploughing—light or heavy and number thereof depends upon the type of soil and requirements of the crop. For instance, deep ploughing is absolutely essential for sugarcane and root crops like sweet potatoes. A wooden plough is used for light ploughing, while an iron plough, for heavy and deep ploughing.

Pulverisation.

The big clods left in the field after ploughing have to be crushed and pulverised. This is done by using the beam harrow (*maind*), the wooden plank (*phali*) and the blade harrow (*kulav* or *pharat*). The Agriculture Department has introduced the Norwegian Harrow, the beam harrow (*mind*) being an ineffective clod crusher. The former is used by progressive cultivators in the sugarcane tract of the district. The wooden plank is used when clods are small and soft. It is operated by a team of one driver and a pair of bullocks and two or three acres are pulverised in a day. The blade harrow (*kulav* or *pharat*) is worked by a driver with a pair of bullocks or by two drivers with two pairs of bullocks and two to three acres are covered in a day. A big harrow called *kongya kulav* is used in Satara, Wai and Koregaon talukas. It requires two pairs of bullocks. In *rabi* season, however, a small wooden hammer worked by manual labour is used to break the clods.

Cleaning the field.

The work of cleaning the field is usually undertaken by women. They work in batches of six or eight to clean an acre of land. The remnants of previous crops such as stubbles, shrubs, etc. hinder smooth working of implements, effective sowing and inter-culturing and encourage hibernation of insects. In case they are buried deep, they are raked up by a harrow.

Manuring.

Pulverisation and cleaning of the field are followed by manuring which could be regarded as an agricultural operation of prime importance. Well-rotten farmyard manure or pit-compost is transported to the fields in bullock-carts. The manure is evenly spread

Manuring.

over the field and mixed in the soil with a harrow (*kulav*). One person spreads about five cart-loads of farmyard manure per day, each cart-load weighing about half a ton. In many parts of the district, it is common practice to quarter the cattle or sheep on the field for a few days. Their dung and urine serve as good manure. One thousand sheep quartered in an acre for one night provide five or six cart-load manure. A harrow worked by a driver with a pair of bullocks for mixing manure with the soil covers two or three acres a day. The use of chemical fertilisers is becoming popular and progressive farmers are conscious of the desirability of using them in adequate quantities for ensuring vigorous growth, good quality and increase in the yield of crop. This is particularly true of Karad, Khatav, Koregaon, Phaltan and Satara talukas producing commercial crops, where comparatively improved agricultural practices are followed.

Sowings.

For most of the crops, seeds are sown directly. In certain crops, however, it is not easy to produce the seeds, parts of the plants being planted either after irrigation or after rains. In the case of paddy, for instance, the seed is very small and the tender plant requires special care. Seedlings are first raised in a specially prepared seed-bed and then transplanted. The seed-bed area is covered by a *rab* with a layer three inches thick, which is set fire to in April-May. After the work with hand is over, seeds are sown, in the beginning of June, either in anticipation of rains or immediately after rains. The sowing operation continues till mid-June. After a few showers, plants begin to shoot and are allowed to grow for three or four weeks. By this time, fields are ploughed twice or thrice to allow the mud to get as softened as possible. Plants are pulled, tied in bundles and are transplanted. According to the local method, eight or ten seedlings per hill are transplanted five or six inches apart, whereas under the improved method, transplanting is done 9-12 inches apart with only three or four seedlings per hill The method of broadcasting the seed is also followed in some parts of the district, if the field remains even after ploughing, inaccessible for sowing due to incessant rains or is too poor to render transplantation economical. The sowing operations in the *kharif* season roughly coincide with the arrival of the monsoons. *Rabi* crops are sown in September-October. The following statement shows the sowing period of some important crops in the district :—

Crop.	Sowing or planting time.
Paddy	June-July.
Jowar (*kharif*)	June-July.
Jowar (*rabi*)	September-October.
Wheat (*irrigated*)	Mid-October.
Bajra	End-June.
Maize	June.
Nagli	Mid-July.
Sugarcane	January-February.
Groundnut	June-July.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Sowing.

Safflower	.. ..	September-October.
Sesamum	.. ..	June-July.
Gram	.. ..	October-November.
Chavli	.. ..	June-July.
Matki	.. ..	End-June.
Tur	.. ..	June-July.
Hulga	.. ..	End-June.
Udid	.. ..	End-June.
Mug	.. ..	End-June.
Peas	.. ..	End-June.
Potatoes	.. ..	June.
Cotton	.. ..	May-June.

Inter-culturing.

Inter-culturing refers to tilling the soil in between the lines of a crop. An implement called hoe is used for this purpose. The operation is undertaken for removing the weeds (which deprive moisture and plant food), aerating the soil, preparing a mulch (a loose layer of dry soil as covering), soil moisture. pruning the roots with a view to encouraging a deep root system and, finally, for killing the harmful insects hibernating in the soil. Inter-culturing assumes great significance in the Japanese method of paddy cultivation. Two kinds of hoes, viz. the slit hoe (*phaticha kolpa*) and the entire blade hoe (*duba kolpa*) are in use.

Weeding.

In the process of inter-culturing the weeds in line with the crop escape the hoe and must be removed with the help of a weeding hook (*khurpe*). Generally, female or child labour is employed for this purpose. Six to eight female hands weed an acre of land. Usually two or three weedings are sufficient for most of the crops in the district.

Earthing up.

The soil is dug from near the plant and heaped up at its base. This supports the plant, prevents lodging and keeps tubes and roots under the soil. Earthing up is necessary in crops like sugarcane, tubers like potatoes, some vegetables and fruit trees, etc. The pick-axe (*kudali*) is used for digging the soil, and spade (*phavadi*), for heaping it up.

Top-dressing.

In this process, quick-acting manures are mixed up with the soil by stirring it with a special implement. Some crops require additional amounts of manure. For instance, sugar-cane requires four or five top-dressings. Manuring helps the crop reach its full-fledged growth.

Irrigation.

The sources of irrigation in the district are Government canals, wells, *bandharas* and percolation tanks. The percolation tanks in central and eastern parts of the district are specially meant for use in the hot season. In canal tracks, water is available mostly by gravitational flow, while in the case of wells, rivers and tanks, it is lifted by water lifts, such as *mots*, Persian wheels or pumps. Fields

are irrigated frequently. The interval between two consecutive waterings depends on rainfall, moisture retentivity of the soil, nature and requirements of the crop, etc. and varies from eight to fifteen days. The quantity of water supplied varies from one to two and a half acre-inches. An acre-inch measures 3,630 cubic feet or 101 tons of water.

Crop Protection.

It preserves the crop from pests and diseases by adopting protective as well as curative measures. These include spraying or dusting special insecticides or fungicides.

Moreover, the standing crop has to be guarded against birds and other animals. To frighten them away, a scare-crow is placed at the centre of the field. But as this is an inadequate measure, birds and animals have to be scared away by shouting, stone-slinging and by providing trenches or fences. Sometimes they are shot and killed. Stray cattle are a source of nuisance and have to be impounded. Special watchmen are hired for nights to guard the crop from theft. They are usually paid collectively by cultivators of the fields served.

Harvesting.

This operation is next in importance to ploughing or sowing. The process is commonly known as *kadhani* or *kapani*. The following statement gives the harvesting time for some important crops :—

Crop.	Harvesting time.
Paddy	November-December.
Jowar (*kharif*)	October-November.
Jowar (*rabi*)	February-March.
Wheat (*irrigated*)	February-March.
Bajra	October.
Maize	September.
Nagli	October-November.
Sugar-cane	January-February.
Groundnut	October-December.
Safflower	February-March.
Sesamum	November.
Gram	February.
Chavli	October.
Matki	November.
Tur	February-March.
Hulga	September.
Udid	September.
Mug	September.
Peas	September.
Potato	September.
Cotton	November-December.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

Harvesting.

Food-grain crops such as rice, jowar, bajri, etc. are harvested by cutting the plants close to the ground by a sickle (*vila*). The harvested plants are put into swaths, earheads removed by cutting or breaking and carted to the threshing yard (*khala*). The stems or stalks are dried, bundled and stocked as fodder. Pulses are mostly cut as whole plants and removed directly to the threshing floor. Vegetables are picked by hand and leafy ones are uprooted. Root crops like potatoes, groundnut, sweet potatoes, etc. are harvested by digging with spade (*phavada*). Cotton is picked by hand.

Threshing and preparing for market.

The crop is allowed to dry for two or three days whereafter it is tied into bundles and stacked in a heap. After three or four weeks, it is threshed by beating the sheaves against well-cleaned threshing yard (*khala*). Grain crops like jowar and pulses are trampled under the feet of bullocks. The grain is separated from the chaff by winnowing against the breeze. Root vegetables are dug out and cleaned well by drying or washing. Some crops like ginger and turmeric are dried and cured specially.

Storing.

Grains are stored either for purposes of seed or for future consumption. For seed, the quantity stored is small. For consumption it is considerably large.

Grains are preserved in cylindrical bins called *kangees* made of bamboo and well-plastered on all sides with a mixture of cow-dung and mud so as to prevent insects from attacking the grain from outside. Special care has to be taken when grains are preserved for seed. For consumption in distant future, grains are thoroughly dried and then stored in under-ground pits or in cellars fitted in houses. Bins made of aluminium sheets are also used.

IMPLEMENTS.

Agricultural implements and farm tools used in this district, are of old and indigenous type. These include ploughs, harrows, seed drills, slit hoes, entire blade hoe (*duba*), leveller, etc. Improved types of ploughs and cane-crushers have also made their way. Besides, several hand tools are used for sundry jobs on the farm. The following figures give the number of implements, in the district, in 1958-59 :—

Implement.	Number of implements.
Ploughs	47,281
Bullock-carts	29,543
Cane-crushers	1,202
Oil-engines	1,233
Tractors	44

Plough.

The wooden plough (*nangar*) consists of several pieces like the *khod* or *khunt* (body), *dandi* (beam or pole), *ju* (yoke), *phal* (share) and *rumane* (stilt). The share (*phal*) is made of iron and the remaining parts are made of wood. The body (*khod* or *khunt*) is three feet long and consists of *doke* (head) and *dant* (shoe). The former is thicker and the latter is tapering to a point, flat at the top and triangular at the bottom. The share which is flat and sharp at the

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IMPLEMENTS.

Plough.

end is fixed to the shoe and secured to the main block by means of a piece of wood. The front end of the share projects about six inches beyond the point of the shoe and is secured to the shoe by means of a *vasu* (an iron ring). The beam is highly curved at the back and fixed to the *doke* (head) so as to form an acute angle. The back end of the beam is projected about three feet beyond the head on which the *rumane* (stilt) rests. The stilt, three and a half feet long, is separate and a *muthya* (short grip) is fixed on the top to facilitate handling. The yoke eight and a half feet long is tied to the front end of the beam by means of a big rope called *vetan*.

A small plough called '*nangari*' is used in the western part of the district where the soils are lighter and not deep.

The indigenous plough opens a triangular furrow with a depth of 6-9 inches. Three or four pairs of bullocks are required for heavy soils and two pairs for light soils in the western part of the district. The wooden ploughs prepared locally by carpenters are now mostly replaced by iron ploughs. The latter are supplied by Messrs. Kirloskar Bros., Kirloskarwadi and Messrs. Cooper Engineering Works, Satara Road. The iron ploughs No. 9 and No. 100 of Messrs. Kirloskar Bros. are both useful, the former in heavy black soils of the Krishna valley and the latter in lighter soils of the western part of the district. The "Jagat Ridge" of the same manufacturers is used in sugar-cane cultivation for preparing furrows. The "Bahadur" plough of Messrs. Cooper Engineering Works, is used mainly in Satara and Koregaon talukas. Tractors have also made their way in the district.

Harrow.

The harrow (*kulav* or *pharat*) is used after ploughing for crushing the clods of earth Its main part, the *dind* (head piece), is three feet in length. Two beams (*dandyas*) eight or nine feet long are fixed to the head. One small beam two and a half to three feet long is attached to the large one. Two prongs 18" each, are fixed at the bottom of the head-piece and fixed in a slanting direction downward at 50°. A steel blade, sharp at the lower end, is 12" long. It is fixed to the ends of prongs by an iron ring called *vasu*. One stilt is fixed on head-piece for putting pressure required for harrowing deep. All parts except the blade are made of *babhul* wood. The big harrow (*kongya kulav*), 80-120 lbs. in weight, has its head-piece built upwards. The head-piece is 32" long and the blade about ten inches less This harrow is used in Satara, Wai and Koregaon talukas and worked by two pair of bullocks. It is also useful for harvesting the spreading varieties of groundnut. Another harrow (*pharat*) has head four feet and blade three feet long. It is used for covering seeds after sowing and for removing tender weeds. It works to a depth of one and a half to three feet.

Beam Harrow.

The beam harrow (*maind*) is used for breaking the clods of earth after ploughing. It is a rectangular log of *babhul* 10' long, one foot broad and nine inches thick and weighs 170-200 lbs. A wooden

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IMPLEMENTS.

beam eight feet long is fixed to the log in the centre for putting pressure by the yoke. As it is not an effective clod crusher, the Agriculture department has introduced the Norwegian harrow. The new harrow is used by progressive tillers for sugar-cane.

Seed-drill.

The seed-drills (*pabhar*) are mostly made of *babhul* wood and used for sowing in lines and at uniform depth. Its head-piece (*pabhar*) is round in shape. The coulters or *phans* are flat to the front side and fixed to the head-piece. Hallow bamboo tubes are fixed for allowing the seed to pass to the soil, and held in a bowl-like wooden structure (*chade*). The seed bowl and the tubes are firmly tied and fixed to the centre of the head-piece by a thin rope (*chade-dor*). For traction, a beam is fixed to the centre of the head-piece with side braces for support. On the top of the head-piece a handle (*rumane*) is fixed for guiding and pressing the drill. A yoke of suitable length is tied to the beam by a thick rope passing over and round the head-piece making the entire frame rigid for work. The seed drill requires two men, one to drive a pair of bullocks and the other to feed the seed bowl uniformly. Three or four acres can be sown in a day. Seed-drills are light or heavy according to the season and the crops to be sown. *Kharif* season requires a lighter seed-drill, as seed is to be deposited in the wet and soft soil upto a depth of two or two and a half inches. *Rabi* saeson requires a heavy seed-drill, as seed is to be deposited upto a depth of six or seven inches. A seed-drill with four coulters, each at eight inches from the other, is used in the western part of the district. It is used commonly for sowing *kharif* crops like *chavli, mug*, paddy, *udid*, etc. In Wai, Satara, Koregaon, Khatav, Man, Phaltan and Karad talukas, a seed drill with four coulters, each at twelve inches from the other, is used for sowing *kharif jowar, bajra, udid*, etc. Its head-piece is 15-18 inches in circumference and five inches in length. The beams of poles are six feet long.

Tifan is a seed-drill introduced by the Agriculture Department. It has three coulters each at eighteen inches from the other, a head-piece four and a half feet and beam eight and a half feet and demands the yoke six and a half feet long. It is becoming popular day by day.

Hoe.

The hoe is used for inter-culturing the crops which are sown and dibbled. Inter-culturing helps to remove weeds, loosen the soil and conserve moisture in it. The slit hoe (*phaticha kolpa*) is operated till the crop grows 12-15 inches high and, the entire blade hoe (*duba kolpa*), afterwards. The size of the hoe depends upon the distance between the two crop lines. The prongs and half the portion of the blade are made into one piece and two such pieces are fixed on the head-piece. A slit is about three inches wide. The prong is 15" long and made of iron. Two poles each about eight feet long are fixed to the head-piece. Generally, two hoes are worked on one yoke. The length of the yoke depends upon the spacing between the lines or

rows of crops. The yokes used are straight. The hoes are tied to the yokes by means of a rope passing over the handle and the head-piece of the hoe. The rein by which the bullocks are controlled is tied to a V-shaped structure of sticks. Hoeing requires to be done carefully, especially when the crop is young and tender. Two persons with a pair of bullocks inter-culture four or five acres of cropped land in a day.

CHAPTER 4. — Irrigation. IMPLEMENTS. Hoe.

The Phanet Junior hand-hoes, spiked tooth hoes and Karjat hoes introduced by the Agriculture Department to suit wider spaced crops like sugar-cane, paddy, jowar, etc. have also made their way in the district.

Stone Roller.

The stone roller is used in the threshing operation. It is a big piece of stone, about three feet long, with a diameter of 18″ at one end and of 15″ at the other. Two axles are fixed at the centre and an iron bar frame, with a wooden pole about eight feet long on its side, is fixed to them. The yoke (*shival*) is attached to the other end of the pole. The roller is worked by a pair of bullocks and threshes 100 Bengali maunds of Jowar ear-heads within four hours. It is becoming popular among the tillers.

Water Lifts.

The main water lifts used for irrigating the fields are *mots* made of iron or leather. Leather *mots* are manufactured locally by village cobbler. Iron mots of Sangli district are in common use and cost the tiller Rs. 60 each. A number of pumping sets for lifting water from wells or rivers have also been installed in the district.

Hand-tools.

Hand-tools are required in various minor operations. The axe (*kurhad*) is used for cutting and chopping trees and wood and for harvesting sugar-cane. The spade (*phavadi*) is used for repairing and making bunds and water channels and for filling the fields with soil and manures. The pick-axe (*kudal*) is used for digging earth, harvesting various root crops such as potato, sweet-potato, etc. and deep-rooted weeds like *harali*. The weeding hook (*khurpe*) is used for removing weeds in the crops. The sickle (*vila*) is used for cutting the grass and ear-heads and for harvesting jowar, paddy, wheat, bajri, sugar-cane, etc. The crow-bar (*pahar*) is useful for digging, fencing, planting fruit-trees, etc. The rake (*dantale*) is used for spreading compost and farm-yard manure. making heaps of ear-heads on the threshing yard, collecting straw and other waste material and for preparing ridges in the fields. The sugar-cane cutter is used for cutting sugar-cane as well as trees in the hilly tracts of the district. The weeding hook (*khurpe*) and the sickle (*vila*) are, however, among the most common hand-tools used in the district.

LIVE-STOCK.

The importance of live-stock in the rural economy of the district cannot be overemphasised. As much headway has not been made in the direction of use of improved mechanical implements, live-stock, particularly cattle continues to be a valuable possession of

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LIVE-STOCK.

the farmer. The live-stock can be broadly classified into bovine, ovine and poultry population. Bovine includes cattle and buffaloes, ovine covers sheep and goats while poulty is comprised of ducks and fowls. Horses, mules and asses form another important class constituting agricultural live-stock of the district. A farmer usually keeps a pair of bullocks, a few cows, and often a few sheep, goats and poultry. Cows, bullocks, buffaloes, sheep, goats and poultry are commonly found in villages. In the eastern part, the buffalo is replaced by two or three goats. Cows are maintained for production of good draught bullocks and buffaloes for milk and milk products; whereas bullocks and he-buffaloes are kept as draught or as breeding animals. Horses, mules and asses serve as pack animals. Sheep are reared for meat, manure and wool while goats are kept for milk and mutton. The following table gives the taluka-wise distribution of live-stock, in 1956 :—

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LIVE-STOCK.

Kind of Live-stock.	Phaltan.	Man.	Mahabaleshwar.	Karad.	Khandala.	Khatav.
CATTLE :—						
Over three years :—						
Males :—						
Breeding bulls	70	19	32	44	66	25
Working bulls	16,093	15,050	1,591	24,115	7,770	20,280
Bulls and bullocks not in use for breeding or for work	397	32	45	240	161	106
Total ..	16,560	15,101	1,668	24,399	7,997	20,411
Females :—						
Cows for breeding or milk production :—						
In milk	6,525	6,141	837	6,755	2,532	6,644
Dry	5,206	4,791	889	6,015	2,560	7,078
Not calved	1,280	1,293	203	2,509	592	1,790
Total ..	13,011	12,225	1,929	15,279	5,684	15,512
Cows used for work only ..	85	6	49	66	1	9
Cows not in use for work or breeding.	117	11	30	87	26	44
Total ..	13,213	12,242	2,008	15,432	5,711	15,565
Young stock :—						
Under one year :—						
Males	3,708	3,130	421	2,460	1,400	3,037
Females	3,550	2,925	452	2,842	1,408	3,092
Total ..	7,258	6,055	873	5,302	2,808	6,129
Between one and three years :—						
Males	3,287	1,502	393	2,797	1,455	2,647
Females	2,620	2,420	472	2,980	1,481	3,300
Total ..	5,907	3,922	865	5,777	2,936	5,947

Kind of Live-stock.	Satara.	Jaoli.	Koregaon.	Wai.	Patan.	Total.
CATTLE :—						
Over three years :—						
Males :—						
Breeding bulls	36	6	18	44	80	440
Working bulls ..	16,034	9,832	13,729	10,511	22,223	1,57,228
Bulls and bullocks not in use for breeding or for work.	144	50	85	121	134	1,515
Total ..	16,214	9,888	13,832	10,676	22,437	1,59,183
Females :—						
Cows for breeding or milk production :—						
In milk	5,416	4,100	4,689	3,249	9,704	56,592
Dry	6,176	4,204	5,421	3,512	5,879	51,731
Not calved :	1,479	801	1,431	1,028	2,903	15,309
Total ..	13,071	9,105	11,541	7,789	18,486	1,23,632

Cows used for work only ..	57	2	4	7	200	456
Cows not in use for work or breeding.	112	11	22	109	1,162	1,731
Total ..	13,240	9,118	11,567	7,905	19,848	1,25,849
Young stock :-						
Under one year :—						
Males	2,191	1,476	2,321	1,485	4,523	26,162
Females	2,337	1,677	2,332	1,512	4,242	26,369
Total ..	4,528	3,153	4,653	2,997	8,765	52,531
Between one and three years :—						
Males	2,992	2,095	2,269	2,081	2,272	23,690
Females	3,363	2,256	3,006	2,318	2,589	26,805
Total ..	6,255	4,351	5,275	4,399	4,861	50,495

Kind of Live-stock	Satara	Jaoli	Koregaon	Wai	Patan	Total
CATTLE TOTAL :—						
Males	23,555	19,733	2,482	29,856	10,852	26,095
Females	19,383	17,587	20,932	20,954	8,600	21,957
Total ..	42,938	37,320	23,414	50,810	19,452	48,052
BUFFALOES :—						
Over three years :—						
Males :—						
Breeding bulls	20	31	22	88	8	28
Working bulls	66	93	62	150	6	153
Bulls and bullocks not in use for breeding or for work.	48	12	2	34	1	15
Total ..	134	136	86	272	15	196
Females :—						
Cows kept for breeding or milk production :—						
In milk	2,037	1,854	967	12,644	971	4,580
Dry	1,047	893	674	5,182	616	2,819
Not calved	442	297	275	2,253	179	480
Sub-total ..	3,526	3,044	1,916	20,079	1,766	7,879

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
LIVE-STOCK.

Cows used for work only ..	43	21	34	345	5	65
Cows over 3 years not in use for work or breeding.	388	14	16	86	11	43
Total ..	3,957	3,079	1,966	20,510	1,782	7,987
Young stock :—						
Under one year :—						
Males	701	771	184	2,524	234	1,468
Females	1,014	920	349	4,704	480	2,427
Total ..	1,715	1,691	533	7,228	714	3,895
Between one and three years :—						
Males	237	182	114	926	95	410
Females	645	654	364	3,543	435	1,797
Total .	882	836	478	4,469	530	2,207
BUFFALOES TOTAL —						
Males	1,072	1,089	384	3,722	334	2,074
Females	4,871	4,653	2,679	28,756	2,697	12,609
Total ..	5,943	5,742	3,063	32,478	3,031	14,683

Kind of Live-stock	Satara	Jaoli	Koregaon	Wai	Patan	Total
CATTLE TOTAL :—						
Males	21,297	13,459	18,422	14,242	2,91,170	4,71,163
Females	18,970	13,051	16,905	11,685	26,679	1,96,703
Total ..	40,267	26,510	35,327	25,927	3,17,849	6,67,866
BUFFALOES :—						
Over three years :—						
Males :—						
Breeding bulls	60	38	38	33	33	399
Working bulls	52	977	57	23	919	2,558
Bulls and bullocks not in use for breeding or for work.	15	10	10	5	13	165
Total ..	127	1,025	105	61	965	3,122
Females :—						
Cows kept for breeding or milk production :—						
In milk	8,409	4,005	4,970	3,818	9,198	53,483
Dry	5,169	3,179	3,173	2,417	2,168	27,337
Not calved	1,584	633	950	806	3,649	11,548
Sub-total ..	15,162	7,817	9,093	7,041	15,015	92,338

Cows used for work only ..	90	[illegible]	10	22	52	701
Cows over 3 years not in use for work or breeding.	126	15	31	20	558	1,308
Total ..	15,387	7,837	9,134	7,083	15,625	94,347
Young stock :—						
Under one year :—						
Males	1,612	654	1,184	700	2,141	12,173
Females	3,332	1,685	2,599	1,589	2,232	21,331
Total ..	4,944	2,339	3,783	2,289	4,373	33,504
Between one and three years :—						
Males	680	562	443	301	1,287	5,237
Females	3,511	1,705	2,135	1,594	2,512	18,895
Total ..	4,191	2,267	2,578	1,895	3,799	24,132
BUFFALOES TOTAL .—						
Males	2,419	2,241	1,742	1,052	4,393	20,522
Females	22,090	11,127	13,868	10,386	20,369	1,34,105
Total ..	24,509	13,368	15,610	11,438	24,762	1,54,627

Kind of Live-stock	Phaltan	Man	Mahabaleshwar	Karad	Khandala	Khatav
SHEEP :—						
Upto one year	5,806	13,472	2	21,53	3,274	5,526
Over one year :—						
Males	3,029	2,913	4	1,772	1,225	2,117
Females	27,966	51,588	7	17,945	18,433	23,918
Sub-total ..	30,995	54,501	11	19,717	19,658	26,035
Total ..	36,801	67,973	13	21,870	22,932	31,561
Goats :—						
Upto one year	7,279	8,726	95	6,991	3,449	8,029
Over one year :—						
Males	3,125	1,018	65	2,322	566	1,289
Females	18,082	19,436	280	18,596	8,008	16,586
Sub-total ..	21,207	20,454	345	20,918	8,574	17,875
Total ..	28,477	29,180	440	27,909	12,023	25,904
POULTRY :—						
Fowls—						
Hens	40,609	37,887	3,418	73,032	16,961	46,505
Cocks	8,444	5,829	968	12,125	2,858	6,721
Chickens	10,143	16,018	3,324	36,601	3,718	17,508
Total ..	59,196	59,734	7,710	1,21,758	23,537	70,734
Ducks	249	17	7	380	61	47
OTHER ANIMALS :—						
Mules	7	....	....	5	....	....
Asses	233	74	39	358	84	348
Horses	274	423	12	363	158	387
Total ..	514	497	51	726	242	735

Kind of Live-stock	Satara	Jaoli	Koregaon	Wai	Patan	Total
SHEEP :—						
Upto one year :—	1,038	141	1,430	919	1,743	35,504
Over one year						
Males	652	140	672	825	817	14,166
Females	5,726	1,223	7,318	5,465	1,435	1,61,024
Sub-total ..	6,378	1,363	7,990	6,290	2,252	1,75,190
Total ..	7,416	1,504	9,420	7,209	3,995	2,10,694
GOATS :—						
Upto one year	4,743	1,204	3,787	2,993	5,780	53,067
Over one year :—						
Males	1,419	484	1,023	1,142	273	12,726
Females .. .	12,585	3,963	11,039	9,378	13,369	1,31,322
Sub-total ..	14,004	4,447	12,062	10,520	13,642	1,44,048
Total ..	18,747	5,651	15,849	13,513	19,422	1,97,115
POULTRY :—						
Fowls :—						
Hens	42,250	18,244	27,328	21,229	2,249	3,29,712
Cocks	7,697	2,824	4,440	3,878	54,931	1,10,715
Chickens	24,188	7,624	14,302	8,344	27,365	1,69,135
Total .	74,135	28,692	46,070	33,451	84,545	6,09,562
Ducks	398	....	204	101	70	1,534
OTHER ANIMALS :—						
Mules	9	...	....	1	....	22
Asses	75	87	237	136	129	1,802
Horses	226	85	250	73	114	2,370
Total ..	310	172	487	210	243	4,194

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK. Bovines.

Bullocks and he-buffaloes are mainly used for carrying out agricultural operations and rural transportation. Most of the animals are non-descript. However, *khillar* animals are a pride of the district. People in the district have a fancy for *khillar* animals and many a cultivator make their living by rearing animals of *khillar* breed. The *khillar* bullock is a light draught animal. The milk-yield of cows is poor. However, under good care the *khillar* cow yields about five pounds of milk a day. Man and Khatav talukas are considered to be the home of *khillar* animals in the district. Animals of *Dangi* breed, imported from Nasik and Ahmadnagar districts, are introduced in hilly and heavy rainfall tracts of Jaoli and Mahabaleshwar talukas. They serve excellently in tracts where feeding is poor. The milk-yield of the cows is moderate.

In case the cow gives birth to a male calf, she is allowed to feed her entire milk to the calf. This is true only of those breeders who are bent upon rearing good progeny. However, if the cow gives birth to a female calf, the general practice is to utilise part of her milk for domestic consumption. As for buffaloes, there is no specific breed in the district, though, in some parts, buffaloes of *Pandharpuri* breed are reared. Buffaloes are cared well particularly along the banks of Krishna and Koyna. Unsold milk is converted into *khava*, ghee, etc., and disposed of locally. The district is not self-sufficient in respect of fodder and has to depend on the nearby districts for it.

Horses, mules, asses, etc.

These animals are mainly used for the purpose of transport and number little over four thousand in the district. Horses are yoked to tongas. These are purchased from Poona, Baramati and Pandharpur. Ponies are maintained by nomadic tribes for transporting their household material. Asses are known for their capacity to transport heavy weights like big stones, earth, etc. and used mostly by the *Vadaris*.

Ovines.

The district has a large number of ovines usually kept for wool, hair, skin and meat. The farmers keep on the farm a few sheep and goats along with the cattle, since their refuse serves as an excellent manure. However, shepherds make a living by sheep-rearing. In many villages, the milk of she-goats is used for domestic consumption and valued as a tonic for health. The *Dhangars* rear the *Deccan* or the non-descript sheep, which are quite hardy having strong hard hoves with rather rough low grade wool mixed with rough hair. Sheep are in great demand for their meat. Their wool is useful for blankets (*kambals*). Cross-bred rams with 25 per cent Marino blood have been introduced with a view to improving the quality of wool. Goats are kept for milk and meat and found all over the district, except in tracts of heavy rainfall. No special breed is reared in the district. The local goat is hardy and fed by stray grazing.

Poultry.

Poultry consists of fowls and ducks which are valued for their meat and eggs. Poultry farming provides a subsidiary occupation to the cultivators. It can be carried on profitably with a comparatively small sum. Private poultry farms are established at Satara, Karad,

Poultry

Wai, Panchgani and Phaltan as also in villages like Karanje, Kashil, Sultanwadi, etc. Financial assistance is extended by some Community Development Blocks to farmers in rural areas. The local birds are non-descript with poor re-productivity. The existing problem is, therefore to replace them by pure bred cocks of Rhode Island, red and white Leghorn breeds. Poultry keeping offers good scope for development.

Sources of Supply.

Weekly cattle markets are held at Mhaswad and Gondavale in Man taluka; Vaduj, Pusegaon and Aundh in Khatav taluka; Koregaon and Rahimatpur in Koregaon taluka; Shirvade, Umbraj and Karad in Karad taluka; Lonand and Phaltan in Phaltan taluka; Khandala peta; Wihe, Malharpeth in Patan taluka; and Medha and Anewadi in Jaoli taluka. Yearly cattle bazars are held at Mhaswad in Man taluka; Mayani, Aundh, Pusegaon and Vaduj in Khatav taluka; Ond and Kole in Karad taluka and Wihe in Patan taluka.

Khillar animals are imported from Karkhani, Kharsundi and Dighanchi in Sangli district and Mahud, Piliv and Sangola in Sholapur district. *Dangi* animals are imported from Rajur in Ahmadnagar district and Ghoti in Nasik district, whereas *Pandharpuri* buffaloes are imported from Pandharpur in Sholapur district.

Animal Husbandry, Veterinary and Breeding Facilities.

There were ten veterinary dispensaries, two branch veterinary dispensaries and fourteen veterinary aid centres, in 1959-60. All animal husbandry schemes in the district are administered by the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara, assisted by Agricultural Assistants and an Agricultural Officer. Dispensaries are manned by Veterinary Officers and aid centres by stockmen. There are no cattle or buffalo breeding farms in the district. A cow is bred for Rs. 10-15, if the bull is of excellent quality. However, for premium bulls (maintained with the Government aid), the charge must not exceed five rupees, so as to bring breeding facilities within common reach. A Key Village Centre at Satara with an artificial insemination unit was established in 1959-60, to extend facilities for bovine breeding free of charge within a radius of ten miles. It maintains *Khillar* bulls and *Pandharpuri* buffaloes. There is also a sheep-breeding farm at Dahiwadi in Man taluka.

District Premium Bull Scheme.

The scheme enables cultivators to keep such breeding bulls as are approved by the Animal Husbandry Department. The owner of the bull is granted maintenance subsidy of Rs. 12 per month, or alternatively, half the cost of the animal subject to the maximum of Rs. 350. A loan of Rs. 350 repayable in six equal half-yearly instalments at 4½ per cent. interest is also advanced for the purchase of bulls and cows.

Supplementary Cattle Breeding Scheme.

Any five contiguous villages are included in the scheme. The cultivator is subsidised Rs. 200 per bull and Rs. 100 per cow for purchase plus maintenance subsidy of Rs. 12 per month. Fifty pure bred cows and five bulls are located in the area. The activities undertaken for cattle improvement include castration of scrub bulls, registration of pure-bred stock, recording yield of milk, etc. The pure-bred progeny is earmarked for further distribution. Shows and

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. LIVE-STOCK. *Key Village Scheme.*

rallies are also organised. In 1959-60, seven centres were covered under the scheme with a total of 28 bulls and 2,813 cows.

The Key Village Centre at Satara covers from ten to fifteen villages with a total population of 5,000 cows. It has sub-centres one in each taluka. It provides for both natural breeding and artificial insemination.

Village Poultry Improvement Scheme.

The scheme covers a group of contiguous villages. Persons are supplied with pure-bred young cocks, *viz.,* White Leghorn and Rhode Island Red, at concessional rates. This helps to replace *deshi* cocks by the pure bred ones and to upgrade poultry. In 1958, 211 cocks and 220 hatching eggs were supplied. The demand was met by Poultry Breeding Stations at Kirkee and Kolhapur.

Poultry Premium Scheme.

Poultry breeders are given financial aid for rearing pedigreed birds. They sell other poultry-keepers pure-bred cocks and eggs.

Besides, poultry shows and rallies, poultry training classes are conducted and technical advice in poultry management is made available.

Poultry Subsidy Scheme.

Subsidy is given to poultry keepers for developing poultry. In 1958, it amounted to Rs. 1,000 and benefited nine persons.

Poultry Training.

Candidates are admitted to Poultry Training Classes conducted at Kirkee and Kolhapur. An ex-student of these classes can obtain a loan of Rs. 500 from the Poultry Development Officer, for starting a private poultry farm. Technical advice in poultry management, feeding, etc. is available from the Agricultural Officer in charge of Poultry Breeding Station, Poona, and the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara. Poultry shows and rallies are organised simultaneously with District Agricultural Shows in a common assembly.

Sheep Subsidy Scheme.

Persons maintaining white sheep and improved rams of Marino cross breed are paid subsidy of Rs. 100, provided that they make available pure-bred rams to other breeders. About ten shepherds are benefited under the scheme every year.

Live-stock. Products.

The following tables indicate the extent of live-stock products together with their prices, in the district, in 1956 :—

TABLE No. 29.

LIVE-STOCK PRODUCTS IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956.

Prouct.	Average output per head per annum.	Total output.	Estimated value. (in rupees)
Cow-Milk ..	425 lbs.	1181 } 1,909 tons ..	8,59,050
Buffalo-milk ..	800 lbs.	728 }	
Eggs ..	60	1,97,82,720 units ..	19,78,272
Manure :—			
Bovine ..	5 Cart-loads.	13,38,314 Cart loads.	26,76,627
Ovine ..	0·3 Cart loads.		
Hides of cattle ..	....	52,295 units ..	52,295
Skins of ovine ..	....	40,792 units ..	30,594
Wool ..	1·25 lbs.	2,63,365 lbs. ..	5,26,730

TABLE No. 30.

LIVE-STOCK PRICES IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1956.

Kind of Live-stock.	Price in rupees.	
Pure-bred Cattle :—		
Khillari breeding bull above two years ..	1,200—1,500	Each
Khillari bull below two years	800—1,000	Each
Khillari cow	350—400	Each
Khillari bullock	900—1,000	Per pair
Dangi bullock	800—900	Per pair
Dangi cow	200—300	Each
Other Cattle :—		
Country bullock	400—500	Per pair
Country cow	150—200	Each
Country buffalo	300—500	Each
Country she-buffalo	250—350	Each
Poultry Stock :—		
Pure bred	10—12	Each
Country fowl	2—3	Each
Eggs	0·10—0·12	Each

IRRIGATION.

Irrigation assumes special importance in the scheme of agriculture. The main sources of water supply are Government canals, wells. *bandharas* and tanks. Lift irrigation from rivers. streams and wells through installation of pumping sets has also benefited many places.

Fields are irrigated at frequent intervals. The interval depends upon the season, the type of soil and requirements of crops and varies

from eight to fifteen days. The following table indicates the sources of water supply in various talukas in 1957-58 :—

TABLE No. 31.

SOURCES OF WATER SUPPLY (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

	Jaoli	Karad	Khandala	Khatav	Koregaon	Mahabaleshwar	Man	Patan	Phaltan	Satara	Wai	Total
Canals—												
Number ..	....	418	3	5	1	....	2	1	....	1	....	431
Mileage .	....	145	13	35	12	....	10	34	...	2	....	251
Bandharas—												
Number ..	964	....	161	718	435	226	118	1,135	1	1,244	336	5,338
Mileage ..	615	....	120	250	810	28	72	N. A.	1	540	492	2,928
Wells used for irrigation only—												
Masonry ..	289	2,910	198	2,598	2,594	54	1,117	750	1,905	1,707	1,105	15,227
Non-masonry ..	164	1,249	918	4,463	1,168	....	3,106	240	916	254	352	12,830
Wells used for domestic purposes only	....	477	194	520	630	481	220	449	236	506	1,969	5,682
Wells not in use ..	30	119	26	1,590	490	11	812	265	294	551	518	4,706

The following table shows taluka-wise net area irrigated by different sources of irrigation, in Satara district, in 1957-58 :-

TABLE No. 32.

NET AREA IRRIGATED BY DIFFERENT SOURCES OF IRRIGATION IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

Taluka/Peta	NET AREA IRRIGATED (IN ACRES)						Percentage of net area irrigated to net area shown	Area irrigated more than once (in acres)	Total gross area of crops irrigated (in acres)	Percentage of total gross area to total area sown.
	Canals		Tanks	Wells	Other sources	Total				
	Govt.	Private								
Jaoli ..	....	4,039	...	712	....	4,751	16	3,095	7,846	11
Karad ..	4,437	...	....	10,017	1,233	15,687	10	3,489	19.176	11
Khandala ..	364	1,771	....	5,598	...	7,703	11	3,883	11,586	16
Khatav ..	5,028	1,814	...	13,323	...	20,165	6	8,633	28,798	8
Koregaon .	319	3,114	....	5,418	....	8,851	20	5,059	13,910	2
Mahabaleshwar ..	....	1,280	....	....	....	1,280	12	390	1,670	16
Man ..	....	1,963	1,425	12,867	....	16,255	7	8,022	24,277	9
Patan ..	....	6,224	...	1,103	259	7,586	8	4,475	12,061	7
Phaltan .	45,095	714	....	15,954	....	61,763	35	7,725	69,488	38
Satara ..	48	6,019	....	4,188	....	10,255	5	4,327	14,582	8
Wai ..	....	4,756	....	4,370	....	9,126	12	4,114	13,240	15
Total ..	55,291	31,694	1,425	73,550	1,492	1,63,422		53,212	2,16,634	

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
IRRIGATION.

The major perennial rivers that run through the district are Krishna and Koyna. After the completion of the Koyna project, the waters of these rivers will be harnessed for stepping up irrigation facilities.

The following table gives area of food crops and non-food crops irrigated in each taluka, in 1957-58 :—

TABLE No. 33.

AREA OF FOOD CROPS AND NON-FOOD CROPS, IRRIGATED (TALUKA-WISE) IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

Taluka or Peta		Food Crops.							
		Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajra	Maize	Gram	Mug	Tur
Jaoli	..	1,444	2,971	1,727	....	....	861	....	....
Karad	..	2,812	3,128	1,866	....	755	534	....	....
Khandala	..	637	984	4,469	1,597	45	881	17	....
Khatav	..	516	3,549	8,120	2,160	830	5,478	831	12
Koregaon	..	414	2,257	3,476	428	29	2,654	....	....
Mahabaleshwar	..	707	512	....	....	....	3	....	....
Man	..	301	3,396	8,656	6,070	190	1,659	81	25
Patan	..	5,414	3,226	1,106	....	395	425	....	....
Phaltan	..	2,255	2,372	33,322	5,082	8	3,791	102	1,203
Satara	..	3,867	2,117	4,877	....	6	1,264	....	....
Wai	..	3,438	2,168	1,488	....	....	1,001	....	....
Total	..	21,805	26,700	69,107	15,337	2,258	18,551	1,031	1,267

TABLE No. 33—*contd.*

Taluka or Peta	Food Crops.				Non-Food Crops.			
	Sugarcane	Potato	Miscellaneous	Total	Chillies	Ginger	Turmeric	Total
Jaoli ..	67	222	373	7,665	99	2	47	148
Karad ..	3,910	86	1,524	14,615	....	24	2,474	2,498
Khandala ..	70	390	1,524	10,614	204	....	6	210
Khatav ..	534	4,961	1,455	28,446	....	65	194	259
Koregaon ..	251	943	2,070	12,522	710	52	223	985
Mahabaleshwar ..	8	67	436	1,733	...	...	1	1
Man ..	452	540	1,713	23,083	...	....	3	3
Patan ..	552	1	925	12,044	....	7	335	342
Phaltan ..	8,747	33	3,905	60,847	529	....	4	533
Satara ..	394	420	14	12,959	154	214	279	647
Wai ..	333	2,118	526	11,092	205	1	475	681
Total ..	15,318	9,781	14,465	1,95,620	1,901	365	4,041	6,307

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Wells.

The wells used for irrigation are generally circular with a diameter of ten to twelve feet and a depth of twenty to fifty feet. Wells are pitched with stones and mortar. The water is lifted by *mot* (a leather or iron container). The leather *mot* five or six feet long is worked in shallow wells, while the one about ten feet long in deep wells. Leather *mots* are prepared by village cobblers and used commonly. The iron *mots* usually of the Sangli type are imported from neighbouring urban centres. It is worked by a pair of bullocks and can irrigate from one to five acres. Oil engines or electrical motors are also set up to lift water for irrigating fields. They are being increasingly used, as agriculturists can buy them with State aid.*

Bandharas and Tanks.

Bandharas and tanks provide another important source of irrigation and are built across small rivers and streams. Their details in respect of location, area, etc. are shown below. In 1957-58 there were 15 tanks and *bandharas* distributed as under :—

TABLE No. 34.

DETAILS OF PACCA BANDHARAS AND TANKS IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957-58.

Taluka or peta.	Tank or Bandhara.	Area irrigated in acres.
Khatav :—		
Ner	Tank	5,107
Mayani	Tank	1,424
Walkeshwar	Bandhara	281
Daruj	Tank	300
Kumathe Bhor	Bandhara	154
Ambavade	Bandhara	N.A.
Koregaon :—		
Lhasurne	Bandhara	N.A.
Revadei	Bandhara	534
Man :—		
Bidal	Tank	909
Ingali	Tank	1,000
Ranand	Tank	905
Rajewadi	Tank	N.A.
Patan :—		
Tarali	Bandhara	N.A.
Phaltan :—		
Kuravali	Bandhara	N.A.
Satara :—		
Urmodei	Bandhara	222

* The number of engines in use, in the district, in 1957-58, was, 1,356, distributed as under: Jaoli, 3; Karad, 391; Khandala, 40; Khatav, 123; Koregaon, 75; Man, 63; Patan, 75; Phaltan, 342, Satara, 181 and Wai, 63.

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
IRRIGATION.
Bandharas and Tanks.

There was one lift irrigation scheme at Nimborda village in Khatav taluka which irrigated about 6,000 acres. Besides, there are a few small pacca *bandharas* completed recently in the district. Their details in respect of location, area, etc. are shown below :—

TABLE No. 35.

DETAILS OF SMALL BANDHARAS IN SATARA DISTRICT, 1957.

Taluka or peta.	Area irrigated (in acres).
Jaoli :—	
Sayagatan	75
Karad :—	
Wadgaon	150
Kumthe	87
Shiram	50
Koparde	121
Shivade	250
Ond	136
Surali	50
Khatav :—	
Pusesavli	92
Kalambi	45
Tupewadi	77
Banewadi	47
Patan :—	
Balmle	30
Satara :—	
Borgaon	125
Deogaon	5
Jamb	31
Jaitapur	46
Karanje	52
Karavindli	19
Khaherkhed	24
Nagthane	40
Limb	293
Saigaon	46

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Schemes.

Co-operative lift irrigation societies have been formed to enable member cultivators to pool their resources for the purchase of lift irrigation plant and machinery. This helps to bring larger areas under irrigation, reduce the cost of irrigation per acre, raise more than one crop a year and to make farming more profitable. 13 lift irrigation schemes were executed in the district, in 1959. Of them, seven were complete, bringing under them 2,686 acres. Krishna, Koyna, Nira, Urmodi and Yerala have abundant water supply which forms the pivot of lift irrigation schemes. The following table gives the details of lift irrigation schemes, in the district, in 1959 :—

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Co-operative Lift Irrigation Schemes.

TABLE No. 36.

LIFT IRRIGATION SOCIETIES IN SATARA DISTRICT, AS ON 31ST MARCH 1959.

	Name of the society	Date of registration	Area under command	Area irrigated during the year		
				Kharif	Rabi	Perennials
				A. g.	A. g.	A. g.
1.	Wai Bhadreshwar co-operative Lift Irrigation society ..	23rd March 1950 ..	475	....	133-15	45-00
2.	Krishna Dhanyotpadak Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali. Ltd., Chinehuer	24th February 1950.	900	....	55-00	5-00
3.	Vechale co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Ltd. ..	26th February 1952	395	....	4-01	1-18
4.	Nadashi Co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Ltd. ..	7th July 1947 ..	200	....	46-13	23-00
5.	Yerla Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali, Ltd.. Nimsod	19th November 1951	1,000	....	....	...
6.	Giravi Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali, Ltd. ..	31st March 1952 ..	236	129-00	186-00	35-00
7.	Wathar Sherchiwadi Co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Ltd.	28th March 1950 ..	170	32-03	108-00	30-00
8	Sarade Co-operative Lift Irrigation Society, Ltd ..	28th March 1950 ..	375	24-00	158-00	72-00
9.	Tambave Bahiroba Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali. Ltd.	22nd March 1950 ..	830	....	13-62	6-28
10.	Khalaveshwar Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali Ltd. Borkhal	22nd September 1951.	406	....	....	...
11.	Wathar Nira Nageshwar Dhanyotpadak Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali, Ltd.	16th March 1950 ..	600	....	....	....
12.	Kole Sahakari Pani Puravatha Mandali, Ltd. ..	17th March 1959 ..	173	....	...	....
13.	Kopargaon Co-operative Better Farming Society, Ltd. ..	27th February 1949.	300	14-21	16-02	38-28
	Total ..		6060	199-24	720-17	227-34

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
IRRIGATION.
Percolation Tanks.

The schemes were registered under the "Grow-More-Food" campaign under the condition that at least half the area shall be devoted to the production of food crops. The Government grants a subsidy to the extent of one-third the capital costs.

Dhumaldhara Tank

The percolation tank at Dhumaldhara is situated at Giravi, about nine miles south-east of Phaltan. Its site is 12 miles away from Phaltan. The nearest railway station is Lonand on southern railway 17 miles from Phaltan. The direct flow from the tank commands 500 acres under *rabi* crops. Besides, the well on the down-stream side will increase water supply of infiltration galleries supplying water to the Phaltan town. The catchment area of the tank is 6·7 square miles. The average rainfall at the site is 18 inches. The scheme comprises an earthen dam 795 feet long and 54 feet above the *nallah* bed, with a gross storage of 30 million cubic feet Due care is taken to ensure that the Dhumalwadi habitation does not submerge in the case of the tank reaching the highest flood level. The length of the waste weir will measure about 400 running feet. An outlet of Hume pipe is provided with necessary sluice valve for irrigation purposes. The channel is about two miles long and designed for eight cusecs.

The scheme is estimated to cost five lakhs of rupees. It was launched at the commencement of the Second Five-Year Plan. The earthen dam was completed in August, 1960. Waste weir tail channel excavation and irrigation channel are in progress. The whole project was to be completed by December 1960.

Vinchurni Tank.

The percolation tank at Vinchurni has site six miles from Phaltan on the south-west side. A motorable road is constructed upto Kuravali village and approached by a cart-tract. Part of Vinchurni and Kuravali will be benefited. The area of 140 acres under *rabi* crops will be irrigated by the direct flow from the tank. Besides, the scheme will enrich the water supply from the wells in the vicinity of the tank. The scheme comprises an earthen dam having a length of 1,000 feet and a height of 30 feet from the lowest bed level of the *nallah*. The catchment area of the tank is 1·91 square miles. The average rainfall at the site is 18 inches. The tank will have a storage capacity of 11 million cubic feet. The length of the waste weir is 240 feet with a masonry bar to protect it from scouring. The tail channel is excavated in hard strata. The estimated cost of the scheme is Rs. 88,758 as included in the Second Five-Year Plan. The earthen dam was constructed by May, 1960. The entire project was to be completed by December, 1960

Mirdhe Tank.

The percolation tank at Mirdhe has site near Mirdhe village, 11 miles from Phaltan on Phaltan-Shinganapur road. Parts of Barad and Mirdhe have benefited from it. It has raised the sub-soil water of the surrounding 30-35 wells, thereby increasing area under irrigation by 200 acres. Gross capacity of the tank is 12·79 million cubic feet, the net storage available (after deducting losses by evaporation and absorption) being 10 million cubic feet.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Percolation Tanks.

The catchment area at site is 2·7 square miles. The average rainfall is 18 inches. The earthen dam is 1,000 feet long, the maximum height from the lowest bed level of *nallah* being 34 feet. The top width of embankment is 12 feet, whereas the waste weir is 250 feet long. The retaining wall is constructed at the junction of the dam and the waste weir. Tail channel is excavated so as to allow water to flow over the waste weir. An outlet of Hume pipe is constructed to facilitate the overflow of water for irrigation. The construction of the dam was undertaken by the Public Works Department and completed in March, 1956 for Rs. 1,73,824.

Adarki Tank.

The percolation tank at Adarki has site near Adarki Kd. 20 miles from Phaltan, on Phaltan-Satara road in mile No. 19. It is 12 miles from Lonand station on the Southern railway. It has benefited Adarki and Hingagaon by bringing 100 acres under irrigation. The catchment area of the tank is 2·5 square miles. The average rainfall at the site is 18 inches. The length of dam is 508 running feet, its maximum height from the lowest bed level of the *nallah* being 43 feet. Waste weir is an open channel type with a length of 200 feet. It is constructed up to a length of 120 feet whereafter it is enjoined by a natural rock foundation. Tail channel is excavated so as to allow the overflow of water from the waste weir. The storage capacity of the tank is 6·36 million cubic feet. The tank is equipped with a sluice valve and a small pipe. A masonry wall is constructed to protect the flank wall from flood water. The work was undertaken by the Public Works Department and completed, in 1956, for Rs. 1,40,172.

Earthen Dam across Banganga.

The earthen dam is situated near Kuravali at a distance of six miles from Phaltan town. The nearest railways station is Lonand on the southern railway, 17 miles from Phaltan. The catchment area at the site is 35 square miles. The length of the dam is 7,000 running feet, its maximum height from the lowest river bed and width at the top, being 55 feet and 10 feet, respectively. The length of the waste weir is 1,000 running feet. Tail channel is also excavated with two outlets, one on the right side and, the other, on the left. They are 12″ and 18″ in diameter, respectively. Hume pipes encased with cement concrete and equipped with sluice valves are laid on both the sides. The length of the right bank is four furlongs with a carrying capacity of five cusecs of water while that of the left bank is more than a mile with a carrying capacity of 45 cusecs of water.

The dam has benefited Kuravali, Tawadi, Vakhari and Wathar by bringing under irrigation 2,500 acres. The construction of the dam was completed by the Public Works Department, in 1953, for Rs. 13,00,000.

SEED SUPPLY.

Progressive cultivators pick up selected ear-heads from healthy and vigorous plants at the time of harvesting and preserve them till the next sowing season. The common practice is, however, to obtain seed either from local merchants or from big cultivators who procure their stocks from places renowned for quality seed. *Rabi* jowar

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

SEED SUPPLY.

seed is obtained from Katapur and Saidapur in Koregaon and Satara talukas respectively, bajra seed from Khatwad and Wyankul in Khatav taluka and *Humdi* jowar seed from Devapur, Mhaswad and Lodhawade in Man taluka. Local vegetable seeds are procured by merchants from progressive cultivators. Seeds of foreign vegetables like cabbage, cauliflower, knol-khol, etc. are ordered from outside the district. The Government Agricultural School at Borgaon has been engaged in popularising vegetable seeds among cultivators since 1952-53. The Community Development Project in the district also does a simi'ar operation. Fruit trees are generally propagated by grafts and seedlings obtained mostly from Poona district. The Government Agricultural School at Borgaon raises grafts of lemon, sweet orange and orange. The banana suckers of *basrai* variety can be had from the Government Agricultural Schools at Satara and Borgaon. Sugar-cane sets are obtained from old plantations in the locality and, when the seed is changed after four or five years, these are obtained from the Sugar-cane Research Station, Padegaon. Potato seed is ordered from Khed and Manchar in Poona district and, in small quantities, from Simla.

The Agriculture Department propagates improved strains of paddy, jowar, gram and wheat evolved at the departmental research stations. The nucleus seed obtained from Government farms is multiplied at the farms of registered seed growers, and sold to the department at a premium of 50 naye Paise per Bengali maund over the current local prices. The following statement gives the details of improved seeds distributed by the department from 1951-52 to 1958-59 :—

Name of the crop.	Name of the strain.	Quantity distributed. Bengali Maunds.
Jowar ..	Maldandi M-35-1 ..	3,902
Wheat ..	Kenphad and N-4 ..	784
Gram ..	Chafa ..	919
Bajra ..	Akola ..	893
Cotton ..	B-40, CO-4, Deviraj and 170-CO-2.	717
Paddy ..	E. K. 70, Krishnasal, Ambemohor 157 and Chimansal.	405

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

The Central Sugar-cane Research Station, Padegaon.

The Central Sugar-cane Research Station, Padegaon is one of the pioneering sugar-cane research stations in the Indian Union and enjoys international reputation. It is situated about two miles from Nira railway station on Poona-Miraj section of the Southern Railway. The first sugar-cane research station was started in 1892, at Manjri near Poona where the popular 'Manjri Standard Method' of sugar-cane cultivation was evolved. It could not cope with the vast expanse of canal area under sugar-cane cultivation and had to be shifted to Padegaon, in 1932. Research is carried on by experts under the control of the Sugar-cane Specialist, Department of Agriculture, Maharashtra State. It pertains to chemical and physical soil fertility,

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

biochemistry (water requirements of sugar-cane at different phases, intake of nutrients, germination tillering, root-development, enzymitic activities, etc.), agronomy (new varieties, cultural and manurial practices, etc.) and lastly, to the control of pests and diseases of sugar-cane. Besides, it conducts a number of developmental activities. These include supply of improved sugar-cane seed, manurial demonstrations, inception of zonal centres, compost drive, crop protection service, and lastly, award of prizes for the highest production in cane and *gul*. Problems such as reducing nitrogen dose. 'crop-log' technique for manuring cane, tracer technique in phosphate manuring, gypsum block and tensiometer equipment in controlling irrigation, rapid chemical test for assessing soil fertility, etc. are being carefully studied. The centre covered 1,05,000 acres or 39 per cent. of the total area under sugar-cane in the State. (2,70,000 acres).

The Agricultural Research Station, Karad.

The Agricultural Research Station, Karad, was established, in 1948, at Mudha on Karad-Chiplun road, three miles from Karad. Improved varieties of jowar, groundnut, *bajri*, gram and *matki* are evolved by botanical selections. Agronomic experiments are also conducted with a view to recommending improved methods and studying cultural and manurial requirements of crops. Improvement of jowar seeds and selection of promising strains from local types, viz., *kalbondi*, *gidgap* and *tambadbondi* constitute the activity in progress. Selection of types resistant to striga, *tarfula*, a plant parasite, is undertaken and improved strains and types from different parts of the State are scrutinised. Poona method of Jowar cultivation yielded 69 per cent. higher than the local method.

Improvement in groundnut cultivation is sought through selection of individual plants in spreading semi-erect and erect varieties and by evolving the strain 'Karad 4-11' in the spreading group. It yields 10-14 per cent. over the local method. The gram strain 'Yedi-machindra-4' has emerged as promising.

Selection of improved strain in local *bajri* is still in progress and improvement of local types of *matki* obtain bigger sized variety and increased yield is being carried on.

Agricultural Research Station, Mahabaleshwar

There is a Wheat Rust Research Scheme at Mahabaleshwar. Its primary objective is to test the reactions of the wheat varieties and hybrids supplied by the wheat breeders in Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Andhra Pradesh against black-stem-rust which attacks the plants in the seedling stage in the glass-house and/or adult stage in the field. With this aim in view, the cultures of wheat 15, 15-c, 21, 24, 34, 40, 42, 42 b, 75, 117, 122 and 194 are maintained on N. P. 4.

As most of the local varieties of Bombay and Madhya Pradesh are susceptible to stem rust, they were hybridised with a view to evolving rust resistant and agronomically promising varieties. Growing resistant varieties is the only practical way of controlling the disease. The progenies of the above crosses tested at Mahabaleshwar have proved very popular amongst the cultivators and are known as

CHAPTER 4.
—.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

Kenphad Wheat in the State and as strains 11 and 65 in Madhya Pradesh. The varieties N 179 and N 345 developed as rust resistant at this research station are being released for general cultivation. These are expected to replace the Kenphad variety in those areas where it suffers from Alternaria sp. Promising selections are also available from crosses between Gaza, a highly rust resistant foreign wheat and the improved but highly rust susceptible Durem wheats from Maharashtra, Mysore and Madhya Pradesh. These selections are undergoing yield trials at various wheat breeding stations in these States.

The Agricultural School at Borgaon aims at training agriculturists in the modern improved methods and techniques of farming. It is expected of them that they will adopt these in practice on their lands after the successful completion of the training courses and further help to spread them or popularise them amongst the villagers. The following are the eight subjects taught in the schools :—(1) Agriculture including dairy, poultry, sheep and goat rearing, (2) Horticulture, (3) Co-operation, (4) Revenue and rural finance, (5) Veterinary, (6) Civics and Administration, (7) Hygiene, and (8) Hindi. The school owns a farm extending over an area of 331 acres on which different crops are taken. The students are given practical training and experience in agriculture. A retired Mahalkari and a district co-operative officer give lectures on the subjects of Revenue and co-operation respectively. Two agricultural graduates teach agriculture and allied subjects.

This course extends over a period of two years. Every year nearly 50 students are admitted and an equal number of students is to be found in the second year class. Thus every year there are in all 100 students who receive training in the school. Those who successfully complete the course are awarded certificates by the Department and most of them are absorbed in the service of the Department itself. There are, however, a few students who take to private farming and advocate as well as practise modern methods of crop-cultivation.

MANURES

Manures and fertilisers are of direct relevance in so far as the improvement in the fertility of the soil and the resulting increase in food production are concerned. The cultivators of Satara district are not lagging behind in the preparation and application of manures to crops. Farm yard manure is extensively prepared in the rural areas by digging pits and filling them with dung and urine of cattle, ash and other refuse. On an average, each cultivator prepares four to five cart-loads of farmyard manure. However, as these preparations do not meet their requirements fully, they resort to the use of fertilisers for crops like sugar-cane, turmeric, paddy, etc. The method of sheep folding in the field, one month before planting is also prevalent.

Compost Manure.

Green manuring is practised in few parts of the district by sowing the *tag* seeds in June and buring their vegetative growth in the field, by means of a hoe. This adds nitrogen to the soil. The Agricultural Department has been advocating improved methods of manuring

which, if adopted, will increase the quantity of farmyard manure. In order to encourage production of compost from forest refuse, the Department gives subsidy of six rupees per pit filled in.

The quantity of manure to be applied varies from field to field and from crop to crop. Farmyard manure is applied at the rate of five tons per acre for irrigated crops and two and a half tons for non-irrigated crops. In the western part of the district, the main crop is paddy. The farmers apply five to ten cart-loads of compost per acre. These heavy dozes require abundant supply of water. These are given in two instalments, one before puddling or sowing and the other, one month after transplanting. Ordinarily, neither *rabi* jowar nor bajra receives any manure, but for irrigated jowar about five to ten cart-loads of farmyard manure are applied per acre. For commercial crops, *viz.*, sugarcane, turmeric, tobacco, chillies, etc., farmers apply ten cart-loads of compost or farmyard manure per acre. The method of sheep folding in the field, one month before planting, is also followed. Cultivators pay cash to the shepherd so that he should graze the sheep and goats in the field. Their urine and droppings form a valuable manure. Sugarcane requires heavy dozes of nitrogenous manures. In Phaltan taluka where sugarcane is extensively produced, 20 to 30 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre are applied, as a basal doze, few weeks before planting. At the time of earthing up, 150 to 200 lbs. of groundnut cake and ammonium sulphate are used as top dressing.

Fruit crops also receive manuring. Each tree is given about 100 lbs. of farmyard manure together with five to ten lbs. of groundnut cake. Potato, one of the main cash crops taken on a large scale during the *kharif* season in Koregaon, Khatav, Man and Phaltan talukas, is given 10 to 20 cart-loads of farmyard manure per acre. The Agricultural Department has recommended manure mixture for potato at the rate of 300 to 400 lbs. per acre. Other vegetables receive farmyard manure at a rate varying between 10 to 20 cart-loads per acre.

In all, there were three schemes in operation, *viz.*, Town Compost Scheme, Rural Compost Scheme and Farmyard Manure Scheme. These were very popular amongst the cultivators. During 1958-59 the scheme for preparing compost from farm leaves was approved. The results obtained under the above schemes were as under :—

Compost Schemes.

Serial No.	Name of the scheme	Annual target (Pits)	No. of villages where it is in operation	Progress of the works (Pits)		
				Newly dug	Filled*	Refilled.
1	Rural Compost .	2,500	360	500	800	600
2	Farmyard Manure .	2,500	275	300	500	410

* This includes pits dug before launching of the scheme.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
MANURES.
Compost Manure.

Town Compost.

Total No. of Municipalities	No. of Municipalities which have undertaken work	Target in tons	Quantity of compost (Tons)	
			Prepared	Sold*
11	11	6,208	1,410	1,387

*The fertilisers such as ammonium sulphate, super phosphate, urea, etc. are supplied through the Sale Purchase Union, Karad and other societies, having regard to their demand and supply position.

PESTS.
Of Cereals.

There are three important pests of crops in Satara district and the detailed information about them is given in the following paragraphs. The damage done by the different pests cannot be estimated precisely, as it depends upon the severity of infestation in a particular year. The remedial measures suggested against the different pests described below are such as can be adopted by the cultivators at a moderate cost.

Bin pankhi tol, the wingless grasshopper of the Deccan (*colemania sphenaroides*) is a serious and widespread pest. The pest is active from June to December and mostly attacks the crops of jowar and bajra in the *kharif* season. Its nymphs and adults do not possess wings. The head of the adult is pointed and conical and the body is elongated and greenish to straw coloured, with purple stripes behind the eyes and along the length. The eggs are laid in the soil at a depth of two or three inches along the bunds and in the field; and also in fallow land in batches of 40 to 60 during October to December. These eggs remain dormant in the soil till the following June, when they hatch soon after the early showers of the monsoon. Annually there is only one generation. The nymphs and adults feed on leaves and when the infestation is severe, they cause complete defoliation. The pest can be controlled to some extent by destruction of egg masses when they are laid in the soil, by ploughing and harrowing the affected field especially along the bunds soon after the harvest of the crops. The insecticidal measures are two, *viz.* (1) Dusting 10 per cent. Benzene hexachloride (BHC) in the early stages of the pest at the rate of 20 lbs per acre. This is both effective and convenient and is adopted extensively. (2) Poison baits containing 5 per cent. BHC with rice husk or groundnut husk are spread in the infested field at the rate of 30 to 60 lbs. per acre. This bait may be prepared by mixing 10 lbs. of 5 per cent. BHC with 100 lbs. of husk soaked in water for about six to eight hours.

Hinge or *bali*, blister beetles (*Zonabruis pastalata*) affects the crops of bajra, jowar, cucurbits and beans. They are one inch and odd in length and about half an inch thick and are black in colour with yellowish brown stripes across their wings. The beetles emerge from pupae and remain active from August to December. The beetles feed on pollen and petals of flowers and affect the setting of grains

PESTS.
Of Cereals.

in the ear-heads. Preventive measures consist of collection of beetles by means of a handnet and their destruction. The beetles are also attracted to coloured lights and therefore, light traps may also be used. However, light traps are not very effective. Insecticidal measures are more satisfactory and include dusting of 5 per cent. BHC dust at the rate of 20 lbs. per acre. If dusting is done properly, it is highly effective.

Lashkari alya, Army Worms (*Cirphis lorei and Cirphis unipuncta*), are caterpillars who appear in swarms and generally migrate from infested fields to non-infested fields. They feed on the tender leaves of the growing young shoots with the result that growing shoots are destroyed. Full-grown caterpillars are smooth and stout and are one to one and a half inch long. They are dark-greenish in colour with broad light coloured stripes running lengthwise on the body. They feed mostly at night time whereas during the day they remain underground hidden in the whorl or in the clods. Larvae pupate in soil. The pest is active during the *kharif* season. The preventive measures consist of (1) Collection of egg masses and their destruction. (2) In case the attack is localised, special labour may be employed to collect and destroy them. (3) After the harvest the infested fields should be thoroughly ploughed to expose the pupae from the soil. Similarly, caterpillars lying in the central whorls of plants are crushed. Insecticidal measures have been found very effective. If the affected crop is dusted properly with 5 per cent. BHC dust at the rate of 30 lbs. per acre, the pest can be controlled successfully. Dusting if done in the evening proves more effective as the pest is a night feeder. If water is easily available, 5 per cent. BHC wettable powder may be used as a spray after diluting one pound of powder in 25 gallons of water. About 80 to 100 gallons of spray per acre are required to control the pest, having regard to the size of the crop. Five per cent. BHC poison bait broadcast in the evening also serves to control the pest in case of crops like *nachni*, provided the soil is dry and it does not rain.

DISEASES.

In addition to the damage done by pests, the crops suffer from various plant diseases. The following are the important diseases of cereal crops prevalent in the Satara district.

Of Cereals.

Kani, kajli, zipriya and *lamb kani* the jowar smuts (*ustilago tritici, spacelotheca crucuta, sorosporium reilianum* and *tolyposporium ehrenbergi*) : These diseases are responsible for extensive damage to the crops in this district. The smuts are of four types, of which the grain smut is the most destructive and if control measures are not adopted brings about heavy losses to the cultivators. This disease can be entirely prevented by treating the seed with 200-300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of one tola for one seer of seed.

Kevada, ergot and *kani* are important diseases affecting bajra. Of these, *ergot* has become serious, of late, in as much as the grain and ears affected are poisonous to both, human beings and cattle. Steeping the affected seed in 20 per cent. salt solution and washing it thereafter thrice or more in water and drying the same thoroughly is the only way of making the affected grain edible.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
DISEASES.
Of Cereals.

Tambera (*puccima graminis tritici*), *mar*, the wilt disease (*fusarium oxysporium*) and *kajli* (*spacelotheca crucuta*) affect the crop of wheat. Of these *tambera* is the most destructive and if resistant varieties are not grown, it annually brings serious losses. Growing of Kenphad variety is recommended as it is resistant to black stem rust. *Kajli*, the loose smut of wheat can be effectively controlled by a modified solar heat treatment of seed which consists of steeping the seed in cold water for four or five hours and then spreading it on a galvanised iron sheet in the sun.

Of Pulses.

Mar, the wilt disease of gram (*Fusarium Oxysporium*) causes extensive damage and is not amenable to any direct control measure so far. Whole plants all over the field dry up, generally at the flowering stage or a little later. Resistant varieties such as Nagpur 352 and Dohad, are being evolved. So far, only remedy for the disease has been to uproot the affected plants and burn them.

Of Spices.

Pan valne (virus) and *tikka* (*cereospora sp.*) are the two important diseases of chillies. *Pan valane* or *murda*, the leaf curl of chillies is a very serious disease and brings about severe losses to the cultivators. It is of a virus origin and the following schedule is to be followed for controlling the disease :—

(*i*) *On seedling stage.*—To spray Folidol E 605 (0·003 per cent. concentration) at weekly intervals.

(*ii*) *After planting.*—To spray Folidol E 605 (0·003 per cent. concentration) during the first month at an interval of 15 days and subsequently to continue the spray at the same interval with Folidol E 605 (0·002 per cent. concentration). The spraying should be discontinued two weeks before the harvest of fruits. Precaution should always be taken to wash the chillies well before marketing them.

Folidol is a parathion compound deadly poisonous to human beings and cattle. Spraying should be carried out on days when there are no strong blowing winds and should not be done against the direction of winds. The same labour should not be engaged for spraying operation, continuously or on successive days as it is deadly poisonous.

Of Oilseeds.

Tikka, the disease of groundnut occurs in an epidemic form every year and causes sizable reduction in the yield of the crop. Spraying the crop with Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 3 : 3 : 50 helps to check the disease to a great extent. But this is not found to be economical.

Of Vegetables.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew (*Erysiphe*) on cucurbit is universal. It can be easily controlled by dusting sulphur.

Kevda the yellow vein mosaic of *bhendi* is a virus disease and causes damage to both *rabi* and *kharif* crops. It is a highly infectious disease transmitted by white flies and may cause damage to the crop to the extent of 40 or even 100 per cent. Systematic rogueing and destruction of all affected plants preceded by a "close season" during April and May (i.e. *bhendi* should not be sown during these months)

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

DISEASES.

Of Vegetabels.

help to control the disease very effectively. Breeding disease resistant types of *bhendi* is the only reliable method of controlling this disease and work in this direction is in progress.

Mar (*verticillium dahliae*) and *tikka* (*cecospora sp.*) are the common diseases of brinjal. *Tikka* can be controlled by spraying Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 3 : 3 : 50 whereas *mar* cannot be controlled by any direct control method except growing of resistant varieties.

Pan valne, leaf curl of tomato is a very serious virus disease transmitted by white flies. No control methods have been devised as yet.

Kobi kujavya. the blackrot of cabbage (*xanthomonas campestris*) is a serious disease of cabbage, cauliflower and knol khol. However, this can be effectively controlled by soaking the seed prior to sowing in mercuric chloride in the proportion of 1 : 1,000 for about half an hour and subsequently washing the seed in cold water so as to remove all the traces of corrosive sublimate.

Bhuri, the powdery mildew of coriander affects all the green parts of plants. One dusting of sulphur at the time of flowering at the rate of 25-25 lbs. per acre is sufficient to control the disease.

Bangdi, the ring disease, *karpa* (*glososporium ampelophagum*) and *kevada* (*plasmopara viticola*) are the important diseases affecting potatoes. They cause extensive damage, if the control measures are not adopted in time. *Karpa* disease can be effectively controlled by spraying Bordeaux mixture in the proportion of 3 : 3 : 50 while *bangdi* and *kevada* can be prevented by growing fresh seed imported every year from Simla Hills where it is grown at an altitude of not less than 7,000 feet.

Of Fruits.

Mar, the Panama disease of banana (*fusarium oxysporum*) is a serious disease of this fruit. Particularly the variety '*son*' is highly susceptible to it. The only method of combating this disease is to grow wilt resistant varieties like '*basarai*'. *Kevada,* the chlorosis of banana, is caused by a virus. Affected plants remain stunted and show somewhat bushy appearance. Severely affected plants fail to yield fruits and in some cases the fruit is of a poor quality. The disease is transmitted by aphids. Preventive methods used to control this disease are as under :-

(1) Destruction by burning of all affected plants in the garden so as to prevent spread of the disease.

(2) Planting of disease free suckers obtained from healthy gardens.

Of Sugarcane.

Tambera, the red rot (*Colletotrichum falcatum*) ; *chabuk kani,* the whip smut (*Ustilago sacchari*) ; *us rangane* and *gautali phut* are the important diseases affecting sugarcane. *Gautali phut* is a disease of virus nature transmitted by aphids. *Tambera* can be controlled by growing resistant varieties of cane like P.O.J. and Co. The best method of controlling *chabuk kani* consists in systematic collection of all diseased shoots in early stages in tightly woven gunnies and burning

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.

them with a view to keep down the infection and prevent spread of disease. Ratooning should be avoided. Further, this can be controlled by planting disease free sets. *Us rangane* is now practically absent in the State on account of introduction of resistant varieties.

TENURES.

The most prevalent form of tenure in the Satara district is the *ryotwari* tenure. Before the implementation of the various land tenure abolition Acts, *ryotwari* tenures accounted for 72 per cent. of the occupied land; the rest being under *non-ryotwari* tenures. However, in 1959 the *ryotwari* tenures accounted for 92 per cent. of the occupied land whereas only 8 per cent. was under the non-*ryotwari inam* tenure. No land is exempted from paying land revenue except under tenures of contract or agreement under the terms of any Act of the legislature. In the *ryotwari tenure*, the land revenue is fixed not upon an estate as a whole or on a village as a whole, but on individual survey numbers or on sub-divisions of those numbers. The settlement of land revenue is made by the Government with each individual or *ryot*. Therefore, the survey settlement tenure is called *ryotwari* tenure. Under the *inam* tenure, the land is held on assessment which is not liable to revision and, in some cases, it is even free of any assessment. The land revenue assessments are fixed under the provisions of the Land Revenue Code as amended in 1939. Assessment is based not only on advantages arising from rainfall or kind of crop sown, etc., but also on those arising from soil, water resources and location. Agricultural lands are hence divided into three main classes, *viz*., dry crop, rice and garden lands and the classification value of soils of different grades of productivity are fixed in terms of *annas*. Land revenue settlements are ordinarily made every thirty years for a taluka. The lands used for agriculture are divided into groups on consideration of physical features and other factors mentioned in Section 117-G of the Land Revenue Code. The assessment is fixed on survey numbers and sub-divisions of survey numbers on the basis of standard rates fixed for the group, as the result of a settlement or revision settlement in accordance with the rules as laid down in the Land Revenue Code. In the case of an original settlement, the standard rate for a group should not exceed 35 per cent. of the average of the rental values of all occupied lands in the group for a period of five years preceding immediately the year in which the settlement is directed. In the case of a revision settlement the existing aggregate assessment should not be increased by more than 25 per cent. in the case of a taluka or a group or by more than 50 per cent. in the case of a survey number or sub-division thereof. These limits can be relaxed under special circumstances (such as highly irrigated areas). Government may declare, after a settlement is effected, that the assessment has been fixed with reference to specified prices of specified classes of the agricultural produce. When such a declaration has been made, the State Government may reduce or enhance the assessment in the area concerned by granting a rebate or by placing a surcharge on the assessment by a reference to the alteration of the price of the classes of the agricultural produce as specified in the declaration.

TENURES.

The assessment fixed under the settlement is not collected in full in all years. In years of distress, suspension of half or full land revenue is given on the basis of the condition of crops. The annual land revenue demand is then fixed on the basis of *annewari*, which means an estimate of the yield of crops in a particular year relative to the standard normal yield which is equated to sixteen annas. The land revenue thus suspended for one year becomes due for recovery in the next or subsequent years, provided that the crops are in a satisfactory position. In case there is a succession of bad seasons then the suspensions for the preceding three years are turned into remissions. The occupant holds his lands direct from the Government. He has a right to hold the land in perpetuity so long as he pays the land revenue to the Government as fixed at the time of settlement. He has full powers to sell, mortgage, sub-let or dispose of the land in the manner he thinks fit. Till 1946 the occupant of a land could lease a portion or whole of his holding on annual tenancy at a rent agreed upon with the tenant. But this right has been restricted by an amendment to the Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939, under which all tenancies were given a duration of a minimum period of ten years. The maximum rent was also fixed. A modified form of the *ryotwari* tenure known as the "new tenure" was introduced by the enactment of a new section 73-A and the insertion of a new proviso to section 66 of the Bombay Land Revenue Code in 1901. These restrictions are designed to protect the occupants against their imprudent readiness to alienate the lands and the security. This form of tenure applies only to new occupancies granted. Under this tenure, lands are granted at concessional rates of occupancy price only to *bona fide* cultivators belonging to backward classes and that too on condition that the land shall not be tranferred except with the permission of the Collector. The land is of course subject to the usual land revenue. After abolition of the various *inams* under the provisions of the land revenue abolition Acts, the resumed lands have been regranted to the original holders on similar conditions.

There is then the *inam tenure*. The word *inam* in its primary sense means a gift and in its secondary sense it means a grant. The land under this tenure is technically called "alienated land" which means "transferred in so far as the rights of Government to payment of the rent or land revenue are concerned, wholly or partially, to the ownership of any person" as defined in the Land Revenue Code. The main feature of this tenure is that the land is held on a reduced assessment not liable to revision and, in some cases, held free of assessment. The *inam* lands have now been settled on their present holders under the Survey Settlement Act of 1863. These *inams* (including both lands and cash allowances) can be broadly classified into two kinds; firstly, those held on the condition of performing some office or service or discharging some obligation or trust (in some cases, the duty of trust to be fufilled was charitable or religious); and secondly, those encumbered by any such burden, condition or liability. *Saranjams* or other political tenures (*inam* class I), religious endowments (*inam* class III), service *inams* (*inams*

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. TENURES.

class IV, V and VI) fall under the first category while personal *inams* (class II) fall under the second category.

Political *inams*, including *saranjams* and *jahagirs* generally mean grants by the State for performance of civil or military duty or for the maintenance of the personal dignity of nobles and high officials. Some of them were guaranteed by a special treaty between the Mughals and the British Government, while others were settled by the *Inam* Commisison. In the former case, the tenure is hereditary and is to last in perpetuity while in the latter case, it is to last for a short or long period as fixed by the Commission. Ordinarily these *inams* are impartible and inalienable. There are instances in which a *jahagir* has been held to be partible and alienable, but generally devolution of such *inams* is by the rule of lineal primogeniture, younger members being entitled to maintenance. According to the provisions of the Bombay *Saranjams*, *Jagirs* and other *Inams* of Political Nature Resumption Rules, 1952, the *inams* of political nature consisting of grant of soil with or without the exemption from payment of land revenue have been abolished with effect from 1st November 1952, and the *Saranjams* consisting of exemption from payment of land revenue only were abolished with effect from August 1, 1953, if the amount of such exemption exceeds Rs. 5,000 and with effect from 1st August 1955 in all other cases. Under the provisions of the Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (*Jagir*) Abolition Act, 1953, the *jagirs* in merged states have been abolished with effect from August 1, 1954.

Personal or *Jat inams* (Class II) are gifts conferred on individuals. Some of them are in the nature of compensations. These are heritable and transferable properties of the holders or their lawfull successors subject to the payment of fixed dues to the Government. By the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act (XLII of 1953), which came into effect on 20th June, 1953, all personal *inams* are extinguished; in the case of personal *inams* consisting of exemption from the payment of land revenue only either wholly or partly with effect from August 1, 1953, if the amount of such exemption is equal to or exceeds Rs. 5,000 and with effect from 1st August 1955, in all other cases. Till June 1959 there were 206 personal *inams* and scattered lands together measuring 3,36,511 acres affected by the Act.

Devasthan *inams* (Class III) are lands granted to religious bodies for the maintenance of temples or mosques and to similar institutions. The grant is made in perpetuity and the amount of land revenue fixed is not liable to revision. Devasthan *inams* are ordinarily inalienable and impartible. Succession thereto is regulated by the terms of the grant and the customs and usages of the endowment. The holders for the time being manage the *inams* in the capacity of trustees for the benefit of the endowment.

All Kulkarni *watans* along with the right of services were abolished with effect from May 1, 1951, by the Bomaby Pargana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act, 1950. Under the provisions of section IV (*1*) of the Act, the holder was allowed to credit occupancy price for the regrant of the land on or before 30th April 1956. The resumed lands for which the ex-holders failed to pay occupancy price vested in

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

TENURES.

the Government on 1st May, 1956 and the *watan* land not regranted to the holders of the *watan* is to be granted to the persons in actual possession thereof on payment of occupancy price equal to the proper market value to be fixed on the basis of statistics of sales of similar lands in the locality.

Service *inams* are holdings of lands or rights to receive cash payment or to levy customary fees or perquisites for the performance of certain services to the community or to the Government. The holders of such *inams* or *watans* are divided into two classes; firstly. district officers like the *desais, deshmukhs or deshpandes* who were the chief instruments for the collection of revenue under the *Peshwas*; and secondly, village officers useful to the Government like the *patils* or the *kulkarnis* who were given an adequate remuneration in the form of land or cash and village servants useful to the community such as the *hajams*, the *kumbhars*, the *lohars*, the *sutars* and the *mochis* among other artisans. The Bombay Service Inams Abolition Act, 1953, abolished with effect from April 1, 1954, all *inams assigned* for the performance of services useful to the community. The resumed lands of which the holder has not paid occupancy price before 31st March 1959, vest in the Government on 1st May 1956. These lands are to be regranted to persons in actual possession thereof on payment of occupancy price equal to twenty-six times the assessment, if the holder of the service *inams* is in their actual possession. However, in the case of a holder, who is not a holder of the service *inam* but is in its actual possession and has permanent tenancy rights, an occupancy price equal to six times the rent is to be charged. In all other cases, an occupancy price to be charged is equal to the proper market value of the land. The Bombay Inferior Village Watans Abolition Act, 1958, puts an end to the *inams* assigned for the performances of services such as those given to the *mahars*, *ramoshis*, etc. (except *patil* inam). The area resumed till June 1959 as a result of the application of the Act amounted to 56,897 acres.

TENANCY.

The Bombay Merged Territories Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955, became effective from August 1, 1955. The Act aims at abolition of alienations and resumption of lands with a view to conferring on the holders the occupancy rights. The word 'alienation' for the purposes of this Act means a grant or a recognition as a grant, of a village, portion of a village or land with or without exemption from payment of land revenue or of assignment of the whole or part of land revenue thereof. The number of villages in different talukas of the district affected by the implementation of the Act together with the area affected is as under :—

No. of villages affected.		Area. A.	g.		Taluka.
2	..	8,834	27	..	Koregaon.
2	.	1,823	1	..	Khatav.
73	.	25,554	13	..	Phaltan.
12	.	1,531	11	..	Karad.
13	..	4,568	23	..	Khandala.
102	..	42,331	35		

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. TENANCY.

The Act applies to all miscellaneous *inams* in merged territories. However, *Devasthan inams* or *inams* held by religious or charitable institutions do not fall within the purview of the Act. Occupancy rights are conferred in accordance with the provisions as laid down in Sections 6, 7, 8 and 9 of the Act, on payment of occupancy price.

Cultivation of land by tenants is found to prevail in *inam* as well as in *ryotwari* lands. However, the practice is more common in case of the former. The lease of land to tenants occurs mainly on account of the landowners leaving villages for better employment in the nearby towns and cities.

The transfer of lands to non-cultivating creditors has also tended to produce the same effect. The growing pressure on land due to a disproportionate increase in agricultural population, the absence of other means of subsistence, an appalling poverty accompanying the increasing magnitude of indebtedness are the factors that impelled the cultivators to take the tillage of land on whatever term the landlords might choose to impose. Furthermore, the lack of fixed tenure as well as of protection against rack-renting seem to have led to the lack of incentive for the proper cultivation of land. For land instead of being utilised for greater production very often became more of a speculative commodity and passed into the hands of non-agriculturists. This enhanced the growth of absentee landlordism and reduced the productivity of the soil still further. The land-lord tenant relationship was regulated by the provisions of the Bombay Land Revenue Code, 1879 and other legislations applicable to local areas. These provisions, however, did not ensure an equal status to the lessee who enjoyed only an inferior position in matters of contract or agreement *vis-a-vis* the lessor. The class of tenants was not guaranteed any permanency and continued to be tenants-at-will and as such they could be deprived of their tenancy at the will of their landlords. Besides doing farm operations for the landlords in lieu of rent, the tenant was in most parts of the district compelled by local usages and customs to pay unregulated rent or to offer unremunerated labour to the landlord. Thus, very frequently the tenants remained subservient to the landlord.

According to the Manual of Revenue Accounts, four modes of tenant cultivation were in operation in the district, namely, cash rent, crop share rent, a fixed quantity of produce as rent and lastly a rent in service involving some combination of the foregoing three forms. The terms of the contract varied in each case. However, the cash rent and the crop share rent were the two main forms of rent. Cash rents are preferred by the absentee landlords usually residing in towns. They are also common in case of grass and garden lands. The landlords residing in villages lease out their lands on a crop share basis. But the amended Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1956, (discussed later) allows only payment of cash rent.

No steps were taken for giving protection to the tiller of the soil till 1937, when the then Congress Government announced its intention of enacting legislation aimed at vesting the control of land in the

actual tiller of the soil. Hence, the Government of Bombay passed the Bombay Tenancy Act of 1939, with a view to ameliorating the condition of tenants without injuring the legitimate interests of landlords. Those tenants who had held land for a period of not less than six years immediately preceding 1st January, 1938, were declared protected tenants. Such tenants could not be evicted, unless they ceased to cultivate the land personally. The other provisions of the Act were those relating to firstly, tenancies and their duration, secondly, fixation of maximum rent; thirdly, abolition of any cess, rate, *vero, huk*, etc.; fourthly, determination of reasonable rents; fifthly, commutation of crop-share rent into cash; sixthly, prohibition of receiving rent in terms of service or labour; and finally, retention of special rights and privileges. The Act was first applied to a few selected areas as an experimental measure and then to this district with effect from 11th April 1946. The Act was subsequently amended on 8th November, 1946 with a view to removing certain difficulties envisaged during the course of the implementation of the act in dealing with a variety of tenures and a number of usages and customs prevailing in different parts of the State. But after independence in order to ensure, firstly, increase in agricultural output; secondly, maintenance of agrarian efficiency; and finally, preservation of tenants' interests in the land, steps were taken to hasten agrarian reforms. For the successful implementation of the policy, the Government felt it necessary to assume management of estates held by landowners as well as of fallow lands, to impose restrictions on transfer of agricultural lands, to prevent uneconomic cultivation and lastly, to create, foster and encourage the peasant proprietorship in respect of holdings of suitable size. Taking all these factors into consideration, the Act was amended on 28th December, 1948 and was entitled Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948.

The new enactment retains the important provisions of the earlier legislation with an addition of certain peculiar features of its own. It is devoted to the management of the estates of landlords in case of dispute or of fallow lands and their acquisition, too, where necessary; imposition of restrictions on transfer of agricultural lands, and finally, to the exclusion of the jurisdiction of the civil court over tenancy matters. The Act has statutorily fixed the maximum rate of rent at one-third and one-fourth of the total produce in case of non-irrigated and irrigated lands respectively. It empowers the Government to fix rent at a rate lower than the maximum. The right of a landlord to terminate the tenancy of a protected tenant for the purpose of taking over the land for his personal cultivation is limited by the Act. He cannot terminate the tenancy, if he is already cultivating other land, fifty acres or more in area. However, if he cultivates less than fifty acres, the right is limited to such area as will be sufficient to make up the area for his personal cultivation to the extent of fifty acres.. The protected tenant is also given the right of purchasing his holding from the landlord at a reasonable price, provided that thereby his own holding is not increased to more than fifty acres or that the landlord's holding is not reduced to less than fifty acres.

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
TENANCY.

The onus of continuing a protected tenancy to the heirs of a deceased protected tenant is shifted on to the landlord. Other provisions of the Act authorise the Government to assume management of the estate of a landholder for the purpose of improving the social and economic conditions of the peasants or for ensuring full and efficient use of the land for agriculture. A provision is made for the payment to the lawful holders of the net surplus in respect of estates taken over by the Government for management after deduction of the appropriate cost incurred by the Government, and of the amount, if any, required for the liquidation of debts and liabilities. The Act prohibits transfer of agricultural lands to non-agriculturists, but the Collector may permit such transfer in exceptional cases. The landlord has to transfer his agricultural lands to persons in the set priority, the same being laid down as ; firstly the tenant in the actual possession of land ; secondly, the individual or individuals personally cultivating any land adjacent to the land to be sold ; thirdly, a co-operative farming society ; fourthly, any agriculturists ; and finally, any person who has obtained from the Collector a certificate to the effect that the person concerned intends to take to agricultural pursuits. The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948, was subsequently amended by the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (Amendment), 1952 which came into effect on 12th January, 1953. The Act effected important amendments to Sections V, XIV, XXV, XXXII, XXXIV and LXXXVIII. Section XXXII of the Act provides for purchase of the land by a tenant on instalment basis. Similarly, Section XXXIV maintains that the landlord cannot eject the tenant even on the ground of personal cultivation, unless such cultivation is the main source of maintenance for the landlord and subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions imposed as per section XXXIV-2-A.

The Government's objective behind all these enactments was obviously to remove gradually all intermediaries and to make the tiller of the soil the owners of the land. However, in course of time certain defects and deficiencies were disclosed since it was impracticable to translate into practice the ideas of ceiling on land and the concept of economic holding. It was hence necessary to solve satisfactorily these key problems of agrarian reforms. The Amending Tenancy Act, 1956, defines these, fixes the maximum and minimum limits of rent, provides for a compulsory purchase of land by tenants, stipulates prices at which lands are generally to be sold to a tenant and urges the need for maintaining land as a security. Restrictions on the tenant in respect of the purchase of land in excess of the ceiling area and those on the landlord in respect of evicting a tenant from a holding below an economic size have also been imposed. The amended Act came into force with effect from August 1, 1956 and it conferred on the tenants the right of compulsory purchase of lands by the tenants from the landlords with effect from April 1, 1957 on payment of purchase price in 12 instalments. Under this Act, every tenant is deemed to have purchased the lands leased to him on April 1, 1957 subject to certain exceptions. For instance, industrial areas or commercial undertakings as well as the areas growing sugar-cane and fruits are excluded from the application of the Act.

Similarly, the municipal or cantonment areas have been excluded from the orbit of the Act. It is thus felt that the Amending Tenancy Act, 1955 will succeed in establishing a stable rural economy by bringing the tenants into direct relation with the State, thereby putting an end to the landlord-tenant nexus. The Act is expected to enable the Government to take decisive steps to direct re-distribution of land in excess of ceiling area so as to afford equal opportunities to landless labourers. Further, the Government issued the Bombay Ordinance III of 1957 and the Bombay Act XV of 1957 in order to remove all doubts and practical difficulties which may crop up in the execution of the Act. But this was not enough since there still remained some difficulties which could not be overcome without amending certain provisions of the Act. Hence, the Bombay Act XXVIII of 1957 and the Bombay Act LXIII of 1958 were enacted. The Government also undertook from time to time various other measures in the form of supplementary legislation for implementing the policy of agrarian reforms in other directions. Among these can be included the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1939, the Bombay Khoti Abolition Act, 1950, the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947 and the various enactments abolishing special *watans*, tenures, *inams* and *jahagirs*. To sum up, all these legislations contribute substantially towards the fulfilment of the two-fold objective of the Planning Commission which consists in the full economic exploitation of land to bring about maximum net produce therefrom and in the attainment of social justice by securing to the tiller permanent rights in the land as a fair reward for his labourers.

Working of the Tenancy Act.

The following table indicates the number of applications filed every year under the Tenancy Acts during 1948 to 1957 and other particulars pertaining to them.

TABLE No. 37.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TENANCY ACTS IN THE SATARA DISTRICT. 1948-1957.

Year		No. of cases filed	No. of cases disposed of	No. of cases pending	No. of cases decided in favour of tenants	No. of cases decided in favour of landlords	Rest of the cases
1948	..	634	563	71	220	260	3
1949	.	1,557	1,294	312	711	502	81
1950	..	944	1,020	212	617	388	11
1951	..	839	903	124	449	399	64
1952	..	821	775	156	368	351	16
1953	.	970	881	190	438	397	44
1954	.	1,548	1,473	242	677	469	27
1955	..	2,538	2,243	495	761	771	711
1956	..	4,672	3,139	1,914	1,476	1,524	132
1957	..	20,077	13,758	7,400	8,357	4,683	208

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

RURAL WAGES.

Casual Labour.

In Satara district, there is a tendency among the big farmers and the agriculturists to employ casual field labourers, particularly when there is pressure of work on the farm. This phenomenon is also explained by the very slow progress of mechanisation of agriculture which involves the use of tractors and the like with the result that most of the work is carried out with the help of manual labour. Generally, male labourers undertake heavy work whereas female labourers are employed to attend to light type of work such as weeding, threshing, etc. These casual labourers belong to either of the following categories :—(1) poor cultivators having small holdings, (2) landless persons in the village, (3) persons belonging to backward classes, and lastly (4) persons obliged to seek employment outside their own villages. Casual labour is more often than not hired on daily wage basis and is paid in cash or in kind or partly in cash and partly in kind. When it is employed on a seasonal basis, usually payment is made once in a month. In tracts having work all the year round, for instance sugarcane tract in Phaltan taluka, the labourers are employed on yearly basis. Such labourers are known as *saldars* and the rates of wages paid to them depend upon their skill and efficiency as well as upon the nature of the work done. The wages are paid in cash or alternatively partly in cash and partly in kind. In Khandala peta casual labour is paid in kind at the time of harvesting. Now due to the availability of more profitable employment at Lonand railway station or at some construction work or other type of work forming part of a project or a scheme of the Government, supply of casual labour for agriculture has relatively declined. In Satara taluka, child labour is rarely employed as it is normally engaged on their family farms.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

RURAL WAGES.

Casual Labour.

TABLE No. 38.

RATES OF WAGES, CASUAL RURAL LABOUR AND SALDARS* IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

(In rupees.)

Taluka	Daily			Monthly			Yearly		
	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child
Jaoli ..	1·00 to 1·25	0·50 to 0·62	0·50	40 to 50	..	20 to 25	....	..	200
Karad ..	1·00	0·50	0·37	....	..	....	150 to 200*	..	60 to 100
Khandala ..	1·00	0·62	0·50	....	..	...	250 to 350	..	100 to 125
Khatav ..	1·25	0·50	0·62	45	..	22·50	500	..	200
Koregaon ..	1·00 to 1·25	0·50	0·50	45	..	22	500	..	200
Man ..	1·25	0·50	0·62	45	..	22·50	500	..	200
Mahabaleshwar ..	1·25	0·50 to 0·62	0·50	....	..	25	....	..	200
Patan ..	1·50	0·62	0·62	40	..	25	450	..	250
Phaltan ..	1·25 to 1·50	0·50 to 0·75	0·62	45 to 50	..	22·50 to 25	500 to 600	..	225 to 250
Satara ..	1·00	0·50 to 0·75	.	....	..	....	150 to 200†	..	....

*Labourers employed on yearly basis.
†The cash wages paid are in addition to facilities like food, clothing, etc., provided by the employer.

CHAPTER 4.
—
Agriculture and Irrigation.
RURAL WAGES.
Daily and Monthly Wages.

The above table outlines the rates of daily and monthly wages paid to casual labourers and the rates of wages paid to *saldars*. The table reveals that daily wage rate for a male labourer varied between Re. 1·00 and Rs. 1·50 in all the talukas of the district. However, the normal average rate of wages paid amounted to Rs. 1·25 per day. A female labourer is usually paid half the wage paid to a male worker. Thus their daily wages varied between Re. 0·50 and Re. 0·75. Not much distinction is made between female labour and child labour so far as the payment of wages is concerned. However, female labour is preferred to child labour by the landlord or the employer since wages paid to both of them are almost the same whereas output of female labour is likely to be higher. The rate of wages paid to child labour varied between Re. 0·37 and Re. 0·62, the more usual rate being Re. 0·50. Sometimes labourers are also employed on a monthly basis in which case, as can be seen from the table, the wages paid to them are almost proportionate to the prevalent daily wage rates. Monthly wage rates varied between Rs. 40 and Rs. 50 for male labourer and between Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 for child labourer. It appears that female labour is not employed either on monthly or on yearly basis in any of the talukas in the district.

Annual Servants *Saldars*.

Annual servants called *saldars* are usually employed by those cultivators whose holdings are of such a size as can provide a continuous and regular employment throughout the year.

There are no fixed hours of work for the *saldar*. He is supposed to offer his services whenever called for. Occasionally children are also employed as *saldars*. Throughout the district women are nowhere employed as *saldars*. The tenure of the contract with a *saldar* holds good generally for a period of one year. Normally the payment to a *saldar* consists of fixed monthly instalments, the net balance due to him being paid at the end of the year. Sometimes they are paid in advance or are granted loans in which case they continue to work till the amount borrowed is repaid in full.

It will be noticed from table No. 39 that the rates of wages paid to them varied between Rs. 150 and Rs. 200 in Karad and Satara talukas and Rs. 500 and Rs. 600 in Koregaon, Khatav, Man and Phaltan talukas. In case of Karad and Satara talukas the wages paid are lower because, besides cash payments, *saldars* are also paid in kind. Payment in kind includes provision of three meals a day, clothing, tobacco for chewing and smoking and a cup of tea twice a day, etc In Karad taluka, over and above these facilities, they are given four or five holidays on festive occasions. Low wage rates in Khandala peta are to be explained in terms of the comparative barrenness and hilly nature of the tract. In Koregaon, Khatav, Man and Phaltan talukas they are paid a consolidated higher cash wage of Rs. 500 since they are not provided with any other facilities like food, clothing, etc.

Table No. 40 indicates the rates of wages paid to casual labourers according to the nature of agricultural operations.

TABLE No. 39.

RATES OF DAILY WAGES ACCORDING TO THE NATURE OF AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1955-56.

(In rupees.)

Name of operation.	Jaoli			Karad			Khatav		
	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child
Harvesting	1·25	0·62	0·62	....	....	....	1·25	0·60	0·50
Transplanting paddy	1·25	0·62	0·62	....	....	....	1·25	0·60	0·50
Threshing grain	1·25	0·62	0·62	....	....	....	1·00	0·50	0·50
Earthing-up cane	....	....	....	3·00	....	....	2·00	....	....
Cutting cane	....	....	....	2·50	....	....	1·25	....	....
Gul preparation — Gulava	....	....	....	4·00	....	....	2·50	....	....
Gul preparation — Jalva	....	....	....	2·00	....	....	2·50	....	....
Operating implements	1·25	....	....	1·25	....	....	1·25	....	....

Name of operation.	Koregaon			Mahabaleshwar			Man		
	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child
Harvesting	1·25	0·50	0·50	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·25	0·60	0·60
Transplanting paddy	1·25	0·50	0·50	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·25	0·60	0·60
Threshing grain	1·00	0·50	0·50	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·00	0·60	0·60
Earthing-up cane	2·25	....	....	....	....	....	2·00	....	....
Cutting cane	1·25	....	....	....	....	....	1·25	....	....
Gul preparation — Gulava	2·50	....	....	....	....	....	2·50	....	....
Gul preparation — Jalva	2·50	....	....	....	....	....	2·50	....	....
Operating implements	1·25	....	....	1·25	....	....	1·25	....	....

TABLE No. 39—*contd*

Name of operation.	Patan			Phaltan			Satara		
	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child	Man	Woman	Child
Harvesting	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·25	0·60	0·60	1·25	0·75	0·50
Transplanting paddy	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·25	0·60	0·60	1·50	0·75	0·50
Threshing grain	1·25	0·62	0·50	1·25	0·60	0·60	1·50	0·75	0·50
Earthing-up cane	2·50	....	....	2·50	....	....	3·00	....	....
Cutting cane	1·00	....	....	1·25	....	....	2·50	....	....
Gul preparation .. *Gulava*	3·00	....	....	2·50	....	....	4·00	....	....
Gul preparation .. *Jalva* ..	2·00	....	....	2·50	....	....	2·00	....	....
Operating implements ..	1·25	....	....	1·50	....	....	1·25	....	....

RURAL WAGES.

The above table reveals that there was uniformity or near-uniformity among different talukas of the district so far as rates of daily wages for operations like harvesting, transplanting of paddy and threshing of grain were concerned. A male labourer was paid Rs. 1·25, a female labourer Re. 0·60, except in Koregaon and Satara talukas where the payment was Re. 0·50 and Re. 0·75 respectively; and a child labourer Re. 0·50 except in Jaoli, Man and Phaltan talukas where the payment was Re. 0·62. The work of operating implements is carried out usually by male labourers who are paid Rs. 1·25 per day, since it involves heavy manual labour. For earthing up cane, a male worker was paid between Rs. 2·00 and Rs. 2·50 and for cutting the cane Rs. 1·25 in Khatav, Koregaon, Man, Patan and Phaltan talukas whereas in Karad and Satara talukas he was paid Rs. 2·50 and Rs. 3·00 respectively.

In the preparation of *gul*, *gulava* and *jalva* are the two important persons on whose skill and vigilance depends the maintenance of the quality of *gul* manufactured and consequently they are paid relatively higher wages as compared to those paid in regard to other operations. *Gulava* and *Jalva* were paid Rs. 4;00 and Rs. 2·00 respectively in Karad and Satara talukas, Rs. 3·00 and Rs. 2·00 in Patan taluka while in the remaining talukas both received a uniform wage rate of Rs. 2·50. Further the table reveals that rates of wages paid to men and women for various operations were somewhat higher in these three talukas compared to the prevailing wage rates in other talukas of the district.

FAMINES.

Occurrence of famines is common in many parts of the country; though their frequency and extent of severity may vary from region to region.

Famine* may be caused by excessive rains or by total failure of rains. The former is known as wet famine and the latter as dry famine. In Satara district famines are largely confined to the eastern part comprising Man, Phaltan and Khatav talukas and Khandala mahal. The rainfall in this region is not only meagre and precarious but is also unevenly distributed. In the far eastern parts of these talukas, sometimes, long spells of drought intervene between rainy days which results in the failure of crops in this region. Hence migration in search of employment during the season in order to supplement, the otherwise scanty means of livelihood becomes the annual feature of this tract. During the last five centuries and a half numerous famines took place in the district and their detailed account is given below**.

Its uncertain and scanty rainfall makes eastern Satara most liable to suffer from failure of crops. The earliest record of famine is the

* This account is based on the information supplied by the office of the Collector, Satara district.

** The account of famines between 1396 to 1877 is taken from Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, Satara; and pertains to the former Satara District.

CHAPTER 4.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

FAMINES.

1396-1408. famous Durga Devi famine, which beginning in 1396, is said to have lasted twelve years and to have spread all over India south of the Narmada. The districts were emptied of their people, and for upwards of thirty years, a very scanty revenue was obtained from the territory between the Godavari and the Krishna.[1]

1460 The famine of 1460, which is known as the famine of Damaji Pant, is remembered over the greater part of the Deccan.[2]

1520 In 1520, mainly owing to military disturbances, the crops in the Deccan were destroyed and a famine followed.[3]

1629-30 In 1629-30 severe famine raged throughout the Deccan. The rains failed for two years causing a grievous loss of life.[4]

1791-92 According to local tradition the famine of 1791-92 was the severest ever known. It seems to have come after a series of bad years, when the evils of scanty rainfall were aggravated by disturbance and war. The early rains failed entirely in the Bombay-Karnatak, were scanty in the Deccan and Gujarat, in Kathiawar and Marwar, and were deficient in the districts along the coast from Broach to Ratnagiri. In October rain fell abundantly, and the famine was ended by a good harvest in the spring of 1792. In Satara, the rupee price of Indian millet is said to have risen to six pounds (3 *shers*). The Government granted large remissions of revenue, the export of grain was forbidden, and the sale price was fixed. Rice was brought from Bengal to Bombay.[5]

1802-03 In local opinion the famine of 1802-03 came next in severity to the 1791-92 famine. It was most felt in Khandesh, Ahmadnagar, Sholapur, Bijapur, and Dharwar; but it also pressed severely on Belgaum, Satara, Poona, Surat, and Kutch; elsewhere it was comparatively light. In 1802 rainfall was scanty, but in Satara the harvest would have been good or fair, but for the ravages of Yeshvantrao Holkar and his Pendharis who destroyed the early crops as they were coming to maturity and prevented the late crops being sown. This scarcity was followed by the failure of the late rains in 1803. The local loss and scarcity were increased by the inflow of starving people from the districts of the North Deccan where the failure of rain was more complete than in Satara. The result was that the famine was almost as severe in Satara as in the North Deccan. The pressure was greatest in July and August 1804, and was so grievous that, according to tradition, men lived on human flesh. Corn is said to have been sold at two pounds (1 *sher*) a rupee. About 25,000 strangers are said to have flocked into the town of Wai, in the hope of obtaining relief from the liberality of the Pant Pratinidhi, Raste, and other wealthy families and no fewer than 10,000 persons are said to have died in the town of Wai alone. Abundance of water and plenty of grass, for the early rains (June-August 1803) had been abundant, did much to lighten the general distress.[6]

1824-25 In 1824-25 a failure of the early rains caused considerable and widespread scarcity. In Satara Indian millet prices rose to twelve pounds

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, p. 59.

[2] Col. Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 99.

[3] Col. Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 100.

[4] Elphinstone's History, 507.

[5] Colonel Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 55, 58, 96, 98, 122.

[6] Colonel Etheridge's Report on Past Famines, 76, 80, 87, 97.

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.
FAMINES.
1862.

(6 *shers*) the rupee. In 1862 a scanty fall of rain in the early part of the season caused widespread scarcity. Grain prices were so high that grain compensation was granted to all Government servants whose monthly salaries were less than Rs. 200.[1]

1876-77

The scanty and badly distributed rainfall of 1876, thirty-nine compared with an average of fifty inches, led to failure of crops and distress amounting to famine over about one-half of the district.[2] The east and south-east suffered most. As rain held off the early crops failed in Man, Khatav, and the greater part of Kolhapur and Tasgaon. In addition to this failure of the early rains, September and October passed with only a few showers and but a small area of late crops was sown. With high grain prices, millet at seventeen instead of thirty-five pounds,[3] and no demand for field work, the poorer classes fell into distress. The need for Government help began about the beginning of October. The grain-dealers withheld their stores and no grain was offered for sale. The distress and panic, especially among the lower orders of towns people, were so great that the Collector ordered Rs. 8,560 worth of *jvari* from Bombay. The arrival of the grain in November had the excellent effect of showing the grain dealers that they could not at one bound force prices to a famine level. As soon as the traders saw that Government were ready to import grain, they opened their shops and began to import on their own account. From December to March the pressure of distress was lighter as large supplies came into the district. In the hot months, with rising prices, the distress increased. The long period of dry weather in July and August forced grain prices still higher and caused much distress and suffering; but the plentiful and timely rainfall of September and October removed all cause of anxity. By the close of November the demand for special Government help had ceased.

The following details show, month by month, the various phases through which distress passed and the measures taken to relieve it. In September 1876 rain so completely held off that people could not prepare their fields for the cold-weather crops. The early crops failed in Man, Khatav, and the greater part of Khanapur and Tasgaon; elsewhere, except in Malcolmpeth where about the middle of the month there were a few good showers, the crops were withering. In Khatav, Khanapur, and Tasgaon, fodder was scarce and dear. At Satara grain prices rapidly rose till about the end of the month *jvari* fetched eighteen pounds the rupee. With want of field employment and such high grain prices, the loss caused by the failure of the early crops began to deepen into distress. Early in October there was a little rain at Wai, and on the 21st showers fell at Koregaon, Tasgaon and Islampur.

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[1] Colonel Etheridge's Report, 153.

[2] The estimate was in an area of 2,682 out of a total of 4,792 square miles, and in population 461,000 out of 1,062,350.

[3] Thirty-five pounds of millet or *bajri* and thirty-nine pounds of Indian millet or *jvari* were the ordinary rupee prices.

CHAPTER 4.
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Agriculture and Irrigation.
FAMINES.
1876-77

The early crops continued to wither, while throughout the district, except the *shalu,* the cold-weather crops were either not sown, or where sown were dying. Cattle were starving for want of fodder, and in Khatav and Man were being sold at nominal prices or given away. In some places the crops were cut down for fodder. Grain importations had not begun and grain-dealers withheld their stores. Prices rose so high that the Collector thought it necessary to order grain from Bombay. Arrangements were also made with a Satara merchant to import grain for sale at a moderate profit. At Tasgaon grain was so difficult to buy that the Collector sent fifty cartloads of *jvari* from Satara. To help the import of grain the municipal dues in Satara and Tasgaon were suspended. Great commotion and clamour prevailed, especially among the Mahars, Mangs, and Ramoshis in Khatav and Tasgaon, and people began to leave the district. Thefts were frequent, and in Tasgaon, bands of the poorer classes assembled and demanded work. In the Collector's opinion, had not the arrival of Government grain forced the local dealers to bring forward their stores, these meetings would have turned into grain riots. To allay the disorder local funds works were opened, and, on the 17th, Government placed a sum of Rs. 25,000 at the Collector's disposal for charitable relief. In November only a few showers fell in Satara, Patan, and Man. Where they had been sown the late crops withered. In the south and east water was growing scarce. In Man the only supply was from holes dug in river beds. Grass and straw were very scarce, and in places even sugarcane was used for fodder. The grain ordered by the Collector arrived from Bombay through Chiplun. Its presence had a favourable effect and stimulated private imports of grain. To stimulate imports treasury orders on Bombay and other large towns were given to traders at par, and it was proposed to remit tolls on grain carts. The rupee price of *jvari* rose from eighteen pounds at the beginning of the month to sixteen pounds towards the close, and that of *bajri* from twenty to seventeen pounds. There was much movement among the people, some leaving the district, others coming in large numbers from Phaltan, Jath, Miraj, Sangli, and other neighbouring states. Still, as most landholders had reaped some small harvest and did not seek relief until their stock of grain was finished, the pressure on the works was not great, the daily number of labourers rising from 1,000 in the beginning of the month to 11,414 at the close. Of 4,371, the average daily number for the month, 4,056 were able-bodied expected to do a full day's work and superintended by public works officers, and 315 were aged or feeble, expected to do less than a full day's work and superintended by civil officers.[1] Early in the month meetings were held at Satara and Tasgaon, and relief committees were formed. On the 9th Rs. 2,000, out of the Gaikwad's grant of Rs. 10,000 were placed at the Collector's disposal to be spent on alms.

[1] The original day's wages were, for a man 2 as., for a woman 1½ as. and for a boy or girl 1 a. About the middle of November a sliding scale was introduced, providing that when prices rose over sixteen pounds the rupee, the money rate should vary with the price of grain, and that a man should always receive the price of one pound of grain in addition to one anna.

About the end of the month cholera made its appearance. December passed without the rain and with no change in crop prospects. Grain importations continued, and the rupee prices fell for *jvari* from eighteen pounds at the beginning of the month to 20½ pounds about the close, and for *bajri* from seventeen to 19½ pounds. The scarcity of fodder was increasing, and people were moving with their cattle to the Konkan. A mild form of cholera was prevalent. The numbers of the destitute increased on public works from 4,056 to 13,371, and on civil works from 315 to 2,703.

In January 1877 no rain fell. Grain importations continued and the supply was sufficient. *Jvari* remained steady at twenty pounds the rupee, and *bajri* fell from 19½ to twenty pounds. Small-pox broke out among the labourers at the Nher lake. Otherwise public health was good, except at Tasgaon, where, about the middle of the month, there was slight cholera. The numbers on relief increased, on public works from 13,371 to 15,639, and on civil works from 2,703 to 3,289. About the middle of February rain fell in the western sub-divisions of Satara, Patan and Jaoli. The grain supply continued sufficient. The rupee price of *bajri* rose from twenty to 18½ pounds and *jvari* continued steady at twenty pounds. Cholera was prevalent and was increasing. The numbers on public works rose from 15,639 to 23,728, on civil works, in consequence of a reduction in pay in the civil works and of the transfer of workmen to public works, they fell from 3,289 to 178.[1] During the months twenty-four persons were on charitable relief. Early in March rain fell over most of the district. The grain supply continued sufficient, the rupee price of *jvari* rising from twenty to 18½ pounds, and that of *bajri* falling from 18½ to nineteen. Emigration to Bombay and the Konkan continued. Cholera was prevalent and increasing. The numbers on relief rose, on public works from 23,728 to 26,539, on civil works from 178 to 239, and on charitable relief from twenty-four to 197. During April some good showers, especially in the south and south-east, improved the scanty water supply. The rupee price of both *jvari* and *bajri* rose from nineteen pounds at the beginning of the month to seventeen pounds about the close. The hill villages of Karad and Patan suffered severely, the people living chiefly on wild fruits and roots. The number of the destitute rose on public works from 26,539 to 32,122, on civil works from 239 to 514, and on charitable relief from 197 to 645. The mortality from cholera continued heavy. Late in May good rain fell in Satara, Jaoli, Wai and Valva, and showers in Man and Tasgaon. Emigrants were slowly returning. Among the hill people in the Khandala petty division of Wai there was great distress, but many had left their homes and found employment on the Nira canal in the Poona district. In Khanapur, the Mahars and Ramoshis were in great want, and grain was distributed to them at their homes.[2] The

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[1] The new rates were, for man the price of one pound of grain and ½ a. instead of 1 a.; for a woman the price of one pound and ¼ a. instead of ½ a.; and for a boy or girl the price of half a pound of grain and ¼ a.

[2] In June the Collector put a stop to this mode of relief, as it was opposed to the spirit of Government orders.

CHAPTER 4. — Agriculture and Irrigation. FAMINES. 1876-77

supply of grain continued sufficient, but rupee prices rose, for *jvari* from seventeen to 15½ pounds and for *bajri* from seventeen to 16½ pounds. The scarcity of fodder was pressing hard, and the mortality among cattle was increasing. For the benefit of the infirm poor ten additional relief houses were established. Cholera continued prevalent and the mortality was heavy. The numbers of the destitute considerably increased, on public works from 32,122 to 42,731, on civil works from 514 to 1,564, and on charitable relief from 645 to 1,833. About the second week in June the eastern storms began. In Tasgaon on two consecutive days about six inches fell in torrents. At Valva and other places the western rains had steadily set in by the 22nd of June. During the month an average of 10·81 inches fell. Emigrants were coming back, and about the middle of the month large numbers began leaving the relief works to return to their fields. The sowing of the early crops was begun and was rapidly progressing, and in places the young crops had begun to show. The supply of grain continued good, but rupee prices for *bajri* and *jvari* rose from 15½ and fifteen pounds at the beginning of the month to fourteen pounds towards the close. The people largely supplemented their food with green vegetables, which had now become plentiful, and in Valva mango, jack, and other fruits could be had in abundance. In Patan and Valva, the young grass was high enough to afford grazing for cattle and was finding its way to the markets. The numbers of relief fell, on public works for 47,849 at the beginning of the month to 41,046 about the close, and on civil works from 2,560 to 1,400.[1]

The mortality from cholera continued heavy. During July there was a fair rainfall in the west but only a few light showers in the east. Crop prospects continued good, but in places more rain was badly wanted. Emigrants were still returning. Cart-rates from Tasgaon to Poona and back rose from ordinary rates of Rs. 16 to Rs. 35, and grain traffic in carts from Chiplun was stopped. This, joined to the break in the monsoon, raised grain prices, for *jvari* from fourteen to 10¾ pounds and for *bajri* from 14½ to 11¾ pounds the rupee; on the 22nd, at Tasgaon, grain was sold at seven pounds the rupee. These high prices caused less distress than might have been expected, as vegetables could be had in abundance and were freely eaten, but partly from the want of salt, caused much disease, especially dysentery. Green grass was coming to market and fodder was much cheaper. The mortality from cholera continued heavy. The numbers on relief fell, on public works from 46,377 to 28,632, on civil works from 2,214 to 806, and on charitable relief from 3,768 to 3,051. In August there was an average fall of 7·37 inches. Except *udid*, *mug*, and *rala*, which in parts were much damaged by the scanty fall of the previous month, the crops were generally in good order but in the east required more rain. The supply of grain continued fair. Rupee prices both for *bajri* and *jvari* remained steady at eleven pounds. Cholera continued prevalent but was decreasing. The

[1] For June the average daily number of the destitute was, on public works 46,317, on civil works 2,214, and on charitable relief 3,768.

numbers on relief works fell considerably, on public works from 28,632 to 19,517, and on civil works from 806 to 524; on charitable relief they rose from 3,051 to 5,345. In September there was a good and heavy fall of rain, averaging 10·53 inches. Except in parts of Man, Wai and Jaoli the crops were everywhere good. In Karad in some places the maize, *vari*, *sava* and *rala* were harvested and grain was coming to market. Cart traffic to Chiplun, which had been stopped, was again opened. Rupee prices fell, for *bajri* from twelve pounds at the beginning of the month to nineteen pounds about the close, and for *jvari* from 11½ to 17½ pounds. The condition of the people considerably improved. Cholera continued to decrease. The numbers on relief fell, on public works from 19,517 to 16,601 and on civil works from 524 to 494 on charitable relief they rose from 5,345 to 10,342. In October an average of 6·91 inches of rain fell. The sowing of the cold-weather crops was in progress, but it was kept back by the heavy rain, which also in some places injured the ripe early crops. Grain prices fell, for *jvari* from nineteen pounds at the beginning of the month to twenty pounds about the close, and for *bajri* from 21½ to twenty-four pounds. The numbers on relief fell, on public works from 16,601 to 9,718, on civil works from 494 to 113, and on charitable relief from 10,342 to 7,113. Early in the month (6th) all civil agency works were closed. A mild type of cholera continued prevalent. In November there were a few showers in Satara, Patan, Valva and Tasgaon. The harvesting of the early crops was nearly finished and *rabi* sowing was almost complete. During the month grain prices averaged 23¾ pounds for *jvari* and for *bajri* 29¼ pounds the rupee. The numbers on public works fell from 2,755 about the beginning of the month to 469 at the end, when the works were closed. The numbers on charitable relief fell from 1,073 at the beginning of the month to 134 on the 24th. In the last week no one was charitably relieved. In December a few showers greatly benefited the cold-weather crops. Grain continued to grow cheaper, *jvari* falling to thirty-one and *bajri* to thirty-two pounds. No one took advantage of the Government offer to charitable relief.

The following table of millet prices and numbers receiving relief shows that during the first three months of 1877 grain kept pretty steady at nineteen pounds the rupee, or nearly twice the ordinary rates; that its price rose rapidly in April, May, June and July, till it reached 11 1/3 pounds in August, and that it then quickly fell to 29¼ pounds in November. As early as December 1876, the numbers on relief works reached 16,074. From that they rose steadily to 48,531 in June, and then falling to 29,438 in July owing to the large demand for field labour, continued to decrease till November, when the works were closed. The numbers on charitable relief rose steadily from 24 in February to 3,768 in June. They then fell to 3,051 in July, and, after rising to 10,342 in September, fell to 328 in November.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FAMINES.
1876-77

TABLE No. 40.

SATARA FAMINE, 1876-77.

Month		Average Daily Numbers				Average Prices		Rainfall
		On Relief Works			On Gratuitous Relief.			
		Civil Agency	Public works	Total		Bajri	Jvari	
1876—								
November	..	315	4,056	4,371	....	$16\frac{3}{4}$	$17\frac{1}{8}$	0·07
December	..	2,703	13,371	16,074	....	$18\frac{2}{3}$	$19\frac{1}{8}$	....
1877—								
January	..	3,289	15,639	18,928	....	$19\frac{3}{11}$	20	....
February	..	178	23,728	23,906	24	$19\frac{1}{2}$	$20\frac{1}{4}$	0·28
March	..	239	26,539	26,778	197	$19\frac{3}{4}$	$19\frac{2}{5}$	0·04
April	..	514	32,122	32,636	645	18	$17\frac{3}{4}$	0·37
May	..	1,564	42,731	44,295	1,833	$16\frac{1}{2}$	16	0·74
June	..	2,214	46,317	48,531	3,768	$14\frac{2}{3}$	$14\frac{1}{8}$	10·81
July	..	806	28,632	29,438	3,051	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$12\frac{1}{8}$	5·89
August	..	524	19,517	20,041	5,345	$11\frac{7}{8}$	$11\frac{1}{6}$	7·37
September	..	494	16,601	17,095	10,342	$14\frac{3}{4}$	14	10·53
October	..	113	9,718	9,831	7,113	$23\frac{2}{5}$	$19\frac{2}{5}$	6·91
November	..	....	1,128	1,128	328	$29\frac{1}{2}$	$23\frac{3}{4}$	0·73
Total	..	12,953	2,80,099	2,93,052	32,646	....	....	43·72
Average	..	1,079	21,546	22,542	3,264	....	....	....
Total Cost Rs.	.			10,75,281	1,06,091			
				18,11,372				

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

Famine Census.

FAMINES. 1876-77

A special census taken on the 19th May 1877, when famine pressure was general and severe, showed that of 46,235 labourers, 44,344 on public and 1,891 on civil works, 18,316 belonged to the sub-divisions where the works were carried on; 13,998 belonged to the different sub-divisions of the same district; 6,702 were from other districts; and 7,219 from neighbouring States. As regards their occupation, 3,062 were manufacturers or craftsmen, 24,611 were holders or under-holders of land, and 18,562 were labourers.

Cost.

The total cost of the famine was estimated at Rs. 11,81,372 of which Rs. 10,75,281 were spent on Public and Civil Works, and Rs. 1,06,091 on charitable relief.

Relief Houses.

Of twenty relief-houses or camps opened in the district between November 1876 and November 1877, five were on the irrigation works at the Pingli, Nher, Islampur, and Mhaswad reservoirs and on the Krishna canal extension. Of the twenty relief-houses, one was started in November 1876 and the rest during 1877, three in February, one in March, ten in May, four in June, and one in September. Except at the Pingli, Nher, Islampur, and Mhaswad reservoirs where small huts were raised at Government expenses, the buildings used for the relief houses were generally *dharmshalas* or rest-houses, *chavdis* or village offices. and temples. The following are the dates at which the twenty relief houses were opened and closed: the relief house at Tasgaon was opened on the 16th of November 1876 and was closed on the 1st of November 1877; at a cost of Rs. 16,237 it relieved a monthly average of ninety-four men, sixty women, and eighty children. The relief-house at Pingli reservoir in Man was opened in February 1877 and closed on the 31st of October; at cost of Rs. 28,812, it relieved 3,58,760 persons in all or a monthly average of 39,862. The relief-house at the Nher reservoir in Khatav was opened in February 1877 and closed on the 23rd of October; at a cost of Rs. 5,992, it relieved 95,138 persons in all or a monthly average of 10,571. The relief-house at the Islampur reservoir in Valva, was opened in February 1877 and closed on the 30th of September; at a cost of Rs. 1,591, it relieved 17,472 persons in all or a monthly average of 2,184. The relief-house at the Mhaswad reservoir in Man was opened in March 1877 and closed on the 30th of November; at a total cost of Rs. 21,590, it relieved 2,32,964 persons in all or a monthly average of 25,885. The relief-house at Peth in Valva was opened on the 14th May 1877 and closed on the 30th of June; at a total cost of Rs. 348, it relieved a monthly average of 214 men, 208 women, and 165 children. The relief-house at Medha in Jaoli, was opened on the 15th of May 1877 and closed on the 11th of July; at a cost of Rs. 355, it relieved a monthly average of 900 men, 1,150 women, and 1,230 children. The relief-house at Koregaon was opened on the 18th of May 1877 and closed on the 2nd of June; at a cost of Rs. 142, it relieved 1,620 persons or a monthly average of 810. The relief-house at Satara was opened from private funds on the 18th of May 1877 and closed in November; at a cost of Rs. 5,624, it relieved 67,770 persons or a monthly average of 11,295. The relief-house at Kadegaon in Khanapur was opened

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

FAMINES. 1876-77

Relief Houses.

on the 19th of May 1877 and closed on the 29th of June; at a cost of Rs. 140, it relieved a monthly average of 157 men, 270 women, and 125 children. The relief-house at Vita in Khanapur was opened on the 20th of May 1877 and closed on the 30th of October; at a cost of Rs. 3,360, it relieved a monthly average of 600 men, 800 women, and 840 children. The relief-house at Khanapur was opened on the 22nd of May 1877 and closed on the 1st of November; at a cost of Rs. 1,176, it relieved a monthly average of 190 men, 225 women, and 176 children. The relief-house at Khandala in Wai, was opened on the 26th of May 1877 and closed on the 1st of July; at a cost of Rs. 174, it relieved a monthly average of 565 men, 468 women, and 464 children. The relief-house at Patan was opened on the 28th of May 1877 and closed on the 30th of June; at a total cost of Rs. 611, it relieved a monthly average of 2,125 men, 2,969 women, and 4,506 children. The relief-house at Wai was opened on the 30th of May 1877 and closed on the 1st of July; at a total cost of Rs. 100, it relieved a monthly average of 463 men, 718 women, and 1,218 children. The relief-house at Helvak in Patan, was opened on the 1st of June 1877 and was closed on the 16th of the same month; at a cost of Rs. 59, it relieved a monthly average of forty-two men, thirty-one women, and five children. The relief-house at Vaduj in Khatav was opened on the 11th of June 1877 and closed on the 11th of November; at a cost of Rs. 2,433, it relieved a monthly average of 363 men, 504 women, and 752 children. The relief-house at Mayni in Khatav was opened on the 18th of June 1877 and closed on the 25th of June; at a cost of Rs. 78, it relieved 1,057 persons or a monthly average of 204 men, 615 women, and 238 children. The relief-house at the Krishna canal extension was opened in June 1877 and closed on the 30th of September; at a cost of Rs. 49, it relieved 595 persons or a monthly average of 148. The relief-house at Karad was opened on the 7th of September 1877 and closed on the 7th of November; at a cost of Rs. 267, it relieved a monthly average of 297 men, 584 women, and 707 children. Besides, the cost on these relief-houses, Government spent about Rs. 23,860 in village charity.

Relief Staff.

To superintend relief works four mamlatdars were employed to the end of October 1877, one in Man from the 10th of January 1877, one in Khanapur from the 17th of January, one in Tasgaon from the 31st of January, and one in Khatav from the 14th of the May. Besides these four mamlatdars, during the various periods of the famine, the relief staff included five other officers. In addition to these relief officers, sixty circle inspectors were employed on village inspection in 1877 from the 10th of May to the 30th of June. Large relief camps on the works at the Pingli, Nher, Islampur and Mhaswad reservoirs, and the Krishna canal extension were superintended by a staff of public works officers.

Grain.

Some municipalities sold grain at fixed rates to the poor, a mode of charity which was much appreciated. It is a part of outdoor relief, and if well supervised has no effect on trade or on prices. The abuses to be guarded against are simply those which are always present when either grain or money are distributed without a test of alleged poverty. Grain sold at or below cost price meets, the case of those who are not paupers, are much straitened, but yet so long as they can earn anything in their usual way or have any means left, will not go to work. For the same reason loans of grain to respectable people, willing to maintain their dependents are safe and are valuable. During the fair season grain came in large quantities, into Satara from Bombay by sea to Chiplun and from Chiplun to Karad by the Kumbharli pass road; during the rains it chiefly came by rail to Poona and from Poona in carts to Satara along the Poona-Belgaum road. In the east, grain also came by rail to Sholapur and from Sholapur in carts to Satara.

Emigration.

A great number of people from the Man, Khatav, Khanapur, and Tasgaon sub-divisions left the district in the early days of distress. Some of them went north and north-east to Bombay, Berar, and Khandesh, and others went south-west to the Konkan. The people who left the district, were those in charge of cattle, who usually had some means, and field labourers and small landholders, who had no stock of grain and no credit. Of these three classes the labourers were the most numerous. The small landholders took with them their pair of bullocks and a cow or two, and left nothing behind but an empty house and a barricaded door. Some of them went to the Konkan and the rest to the Berars. Many, especially of those who went to the Berars, are believed to have found openings and settled. Of the labouring classes, the better-off left first and found work in distant parts; others went to the public works and remained there pretty steadily; others wandered to the Sahyadris whence later on they wandered back in much distress; and others, especially the women, hung about the villages living on next to nothing and dying in thousands on the first fall of rain.

Difficulties.

The chief difficulties in dealing with the famine, were the obstinacy of some who would not leave their villages for the works and the vagrancy of others who persisted in wandering instead of working. These difficulties were met by careful village inspection and gentle pressure in the case of the stay-at-homes, and by watchful supervision by officers of all grades in the case of the vagrants.

Results.

In the eastern sub-divisions, according to the agricultural returns, the number of cattle fell from 994,272 in 1876-77 to 775,393 in 1877-78, that is a loss of 218,879. In 1876-77, the actual number of offences reported was 5,912 against 4,664 in 1876-77. Serious crime, such as murder, dacoity and robbery seems to have been more prevalent and the number of thefts was considerably more than double what it was in 1876-77. In 1878, the tillage area fell short of that in 1876 by about 18,400 acres. Of about Rs. 15,57,400, the realizable

CHAPTER 4.
Agriculture and Irrigation.

land revenue for the year 1876-77, Rs. 13,02,670, were collected in 1876-77, Rs. 5,820 remitted, and the rest was collected in subsequent years.

FAMINES. 1925-55.

In the district, scarcity conditions or near-famine conditions prevailed on several occasions between 1925 and 1955. The following statement indicates the years of famine as well as the number of villages and the population affected.

In 1925-26, the relief works undertaken in Man taluka were as under :—

(i) Clearing the silt of Lodhawada *Pat* (canal), estimated to cost nearly Rs. 3,000 and to provide work to 300 persons.

(ii) Cleaning the silt of Bidal feeder channel estimated to cost Rs. 3,000. It provided employment to 250 persons.

(iii) Special repairs to Satara-Pandharpur road estimated to cost Rs. 15,700. Approximately 400 persons secured employment. Gratuitous relief was extended to these persons to the tune of Rs. 7,843 and 25,000 bales of hay were distributed free to half-starved cattle.

TABLE No. 41.

NUMBER OF VILLAGES AND POPULATION AFFECTED BY FAMINES.

Year.[1]	No. of villages affected.	Population affected.
1925-26	73	54,315
1929-30	38	22,326
1931-32	14	11,217
1932-33	23	20,468
1935-36	12	N. A.[2]
1936-37	12	N. A.
1937-38	11	N. A.
1938-39	12	N. A.
1939-40	12	N. A.
1940-41	12	N. A.
1941-42	27	11,373
1945-46	153	1,49,598
1947-48	14	N. A.
1950-51	54	N. A.
1951-52	61	N. A.
1952-53	164	1,65,815
1953-54	16	N. A

[1] Famine year relates to the period from 1st August to 31st July.

[2] N. A. = Not available.

During 1940-41, the relief works undertaken in Khandala mahal consisted of an approach road at Wathar Bk., road work near Andori. Lonand-Shirwal road and Lonand-Khandala road. The gratuitous relief extended to the persons affected by scarcity conditions amounted to Rs. 1,020 whereas 35,250 bales of hay were distributed free as fodder to cattle.

The famine of 1945-46, was more severe than the earlier ones and affected particularly Khandala mahal and Man taluka. The work of deepening and repairing existing wells was undertaken in 18 villages at an estimated cost of Rs. 1,500. It enabled 100 persons to secure employment. Besides this, Dahiwadi-Malwadi road, Dahiwadi-Padegaon-Jingli-Mardi road and Shewari-Ranand road works were also executed. Gratuitous relief to the extent of Rs. 46,071, was given to approximately 1,000 persons. Food to the extent of 146 B. maunds, 542 tons of oil-cake and 125 tons and 1,710 bales of hay for cattle were distributed free to the cultivators.

After the occurrence of famine in 1952-53, relief work was commenced in Khandala mahal. It included bunding works at Padli and Sukhed and collection of metal on Lonand-Khandala road Similar works undertaken in Man taluka, were as under :—

(1) Construction of Ranand tank at a cost of Rs. 5,50,124, which provided employment to 900 persons.

(2) Metal collection work on Mile Nos. 45, 46, 50 and 52 of Pandharpur road.

(3) Repairs to Kukundwad-Mhaswad road.

(4) Repairs to Mayni-Kukundwad road.

(5) Repairs to Mhaswad-Shinganapur road.

In Khatav taluka. the following three works were undertaken.—

(1) Construction of Daruj tank, estimated to cost Rs. 2,73,840 and expected to provide employment to nearly 1,600 persons.

(2) Bunding works at Katar-Khatav and Nadhwal estimated to cost Rs. 7,453. Nearly 150 persons were employed

(3) Deepening of wells and removing the silt in 23 villages at a cost of Rs. 6,750.

Construction and repair works undertaken in Phaltan taluka were as under :—

(1) Construction of percolation tanks at Salpe and Adarki Kd. Average number of workers employed daily at the site of works was 650 and 250, respectively.

(2) Repairs to Phaltan-Asu road estimated to cost Rs. 90,000 and spread over a distance of six miles. Daily attendance of labourers was around 3,000.

(3) Construction of Jaoli-Andrud road. An amount of Rs. 15,000 was spent and on an average 150 labourers got employment.

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

Famines. 1925-55

(4) Widening of Sahara nalla on Mahad-Pandharpur road;

(5) Repairs to Phaltan-Satara road between Adarki to Wathar in Phaltan taluka.

Gratuitous relief was extended to the tune of Rs. 15,833 to the sufferers to enable them to overcome some of their hardships. Food comprising 82 B. maunds of rice, 36 barrels of milk; jowar worth Rs. 1,410; clothes worth Rs. 3,000; 2,670 B. maunds of oil-cake 2,77,513 lbs. and 591 bales of hay, were distributed free to the agriculturists so as to help them meet some of their basic needs as well as those of cattle. Besides these measures, tagai loans to the extent of Rs. 88,846 were granted to the cultivators in Khatav taluka while the corresponding figure for Khandala mahal stood at Rs. 8,876.

It will be seen from the foregoing account that with the passage of time, the persons affected by scarcity or famine have been getting assistance, larger in magnitude and in various forms. It is also partly due to the experience gained by the Government machinery in meeting the scarcity conditions on various occasions since the phenomenon is of a recurring nature.

CHAPTER 5—INDUSTRIES.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

DURING THE LAST CENTURY SATARA WAS INDUSTRIALLY BACKWARD, having only a few crafts. The chief crafts* were making gold and silver ornaments, copper and brass pots and iron tools, stone-cutting, pottery, carpentry, cotton-weaving, dyeing, blanket-weaving, tanning and shoe-making. Besides working in gold and silver a few *Sonars* (Goldsmiths) were well known for their skill in stone-setting. *Tambats* and *Kasars* (copper and brasssmiths) were found in almost all towns. Copper and brass pot-making was one of the chief local industries. Blacksmiths, stone-cutters (*Patharvats*), potters (*Kumbhars*), carpenters (*Sutars*), weavers (*Salis, Koshtis* and *Khatris*) and blanket weavers (*Sangars*) were found to flourish in almost all towns and large villages.

History of industrialisation in Satara dates back to 1916 when a glass manufacturing factory was established at Ogalewadi. The year 1916 also gave birth to an electricity generation plant in the district. The pace of industrialisation was, however, very slow. No new industries were started during the period following the First World War. A groundnut decorticating factory was established in 1928. Increase in the area under sugarcane cultivation gave impetus to the starting of a sugar factory in 1933. The sugar factory was a landmark in the history of industrialisation of the district. Two electricity generation plants were established in 1933 and 1940, respectively. The other industries like extraction of edible oil, copper and brass rolling and general engineering came into existence after India became politically free.

Sugar industry is one of the important industries in this district. It gives employment to a large populace of sugarcane cultivators, skilled and unskilled workers in factories and a number of technicians. There are at present, three sugar factories in this district. The Cooper Engineering Works at Satara Road have established a countrywide reputation for the manufacture of engines, spare parts, machine tools, powerlooms and agricultural implements.

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* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency (Satara), Vol. XIX, 1885, pp. 220-23.

CHAPTER 5. — Industries. INTRODUCTION.

In the small scale industries sector, general engineering, *gul* manufacture, oilseeds crushing, weaving and pharmaceautical industries are important.

It is difficult to indicate the extent of industrialisation of Satara district in comparison with other districts of Maharashtra. Such an appraisal will necessitate the consideration of complicated issues such as availability of raw materials, capital, private initiative and entrepreneurship, economies of localisation, etc. It may be said however, that the district has not achieved a high degree of industrialisation. There remains much to be accomplished. The available resources regarding raw materials and supply of labour are not exploited to the fullest extent.

As regards mineral deposits, Satara does not enjoy a favourable position. However, some of the tracks were found to possess deposits of iron ore, lime stone and salt. Near the Sahyadris, in twenty villages of Javli and thirty of Patan, iron ore* was found in the *murum* or crumbled trap below the laterite. The iron ore was smelted by a class of Musalmans called *Dhavads*. In fixing where to dig for ore the Dhavads looked first to the presence on the surface of small lime nodules or pieces of *kankar* of the size of a *masur* bean. The next best sign of ore was a heavy blackish-yellow earth. The methods of mining and smelting the ore were very crude. It was not economic and, hence was abandoned.

Because of its nearness to the Sahyadris and the rocky nature of much of its soil the district is well supplied with stone for building and for road metal. The prevailing stone is trap in the plains and laterite on the hills. The trap is dark in colour and weighs 180 to 185 pounds per cubic foot. It is a hard compact stone well suited for masonry purposes. Lime stone is found all over the district in the plains, especially near Wai. It is either nodular called *kankar*, or it occurs in seams along river banks. *Kankar*, it properly burnt, makes good mortar, but the river seams yield the best lime for building. Before the passing of the Salt Act of 1873, considerable quantities of salt were produced from earth deposits in Man in the north-east of the district.

Koyana Electric Grid.

The Koyna Electric Grid Scheme is a unique feature of the district. It is an important landmark in the industrial development of the district and the areas of southern Maharashtra. It is one of the biggest hydro-electric projects in Maharashtra. It will encourage industrial growth and rural electrification in the areas. The programme of rural electrification forms an integral part of the Koyna Scheme.

* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency (Satara District), Vol. XIX, 1885. Mining has, however, been abandoned since the beginning of this century.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

The project is estimated to generate about 5,00,000 k.w. power on completion. But initially in the first stage, it would generate about 2,40,000 k.w. Under this scheme it is proposed to construct the following major transmission lines from Koyna Power House to Karad, Satara Road and Vishrambag. It will serve Satara, Panchgani, Wai, Mahabaleshwar, Karad and Satara Road.

The Koyna Electric Grid Scheme will have a considerable impact on the industrial development in this area. It will also fulfil the long-felt need of rural electrification.

The following statement gives statistics of the economically active (i.e. self-supporting) persons engaged in industries which might be grouped under 'Processing and Manufacture' and 'Construction and Utilities'.

TABLE No. 1.

NUMBER OF ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE (i.e., SELF-SUPPORTING) PERSONS ENGAGED IN INDUSTRIES UNDER "PROCESSING AND MANUFACTURE" AND "CONSTRUCTION AND UTILITIES" IN SATARA DISTRICT IN 1951.

Classification of Industries	Total		Employers		Employees		Independent Workers	
	males	females	males	females	males	females	males	females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Division I.								
1. Processing and manufacture of foodstuffs, textiles, leather and products thereof.	10,840	1,271	278	33	2,140	292	8,422	946
2. Food industries otherwise unclassified ..	165	13	6	....	4	4	155	9
3. Grains and pulses	411	15	70	2	237	7	104	6
4. Vegetable oils and dairy products ..	649	127	32	4	132	17	485	106
5. Sugar industries	966	40	2	....	864	32	100	8
6. Beverages	34	...	5	....	26	....	3	....
7. Tobacco	85	47	9	....	39	14	37	33
8. Cotton textiles	2,164	273	17	3	588	98	1,559	172

9. Wearing apparel (except ready-made footwear) and textile goods.	1,720	99	47	4	97	4	1,576	91
10. Textile industries otherwise unclassified ..	2,958	425	42	8	23	24	2,893	393
11. Leather, leather products and footwear ..	1,688	232	48	12	130	92	1,510	128
Division 2.								
1. Processing and manufacture of metals, chemicals and products thereof.	2,832	94	63	....	1,483	31	1,286	63
2. Manufacture of metal products otherwise unclassified.	1,333	63	43	....	164	4	1,126	57
3. Iron and Steel	15	3	1	....	14	3	....	....
4. Non-ferrous metals	38	....	....	....	....	....	38	....
5. Transport equipment	126	2	5	....	65	....	56	2
6. Electrical machinery apparatus, appliances and supplies.	1	....	....	....	....	....	1	....
7. Machinery (other than electrical machinery) including engineering workshops.	1,217	16	3	....	1,164	16	50	....
8. Basic industrial chemicals, fertiliser and power alcohol.	10	2	1	....	7	2	2	....
9. Medical and pharmaceutical preparations ..	4	3	....	....	4	2	...	1
10. Manufacture of chemical products otherwise unclassified.	88	7	10	....	65	4	13	3

CHAPTER 5.
Industries.
INTRODUCTION.

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

Classification of Industries	Total		Employers		Employees		Independent Workers	
	males	females	males	females	males	females	males	females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Division 3.								
1. Processing and manufacture not elsewhere specified	5,905	332	126	6	1,266	59	4,513	267
2. Manufacturing industries otherwise unclassified	971	20	16	....	26	3	929	17
3. Bricks, tiles and other structural clay products	105	15	11	....	50	7	38	8
4. Cement, cement pipes and other cement products	9	....	....	....	9	....	....	....
5. Non-metallic mineral products ..	2,040	123	29	1	854	40	1,157	82
6. Rubber products manufacture ..	1	....	....	....	1	....	....	....
7. Wood and wood products other than furniture and fixtures	2,537	166	46	4	132	4	2,359	158
8. Furniture and fixtures manufacture ..	11	...	....	....	1	....	10	....
9. Paper and paper products manufacture ..	31	4	....	....	31	4	....	....
10. Printing and allied industries ..	200	4	24	1	156	1	20	2

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

Division 4.								
1. Construction and Utilities	3,024	317	74	2	834	40	2,116	275
2. Construction and maintenance of buildings.	2,053	278	73	2	140	16	1,840	260
3. Construction and maintenance of bridges, roads and other transport works.	268	14	....	....	107	4	161	10
4. Construction and maintenance operations—irrigation and other agricultural works.	369	5	....	....	297	5	72	....
5. Works and services—electric power and gas supply.	118	2	....	....	112	1	6	1
6. Works and services—domestic and industrial water supply.	57	4	1	....	21	....	35	4
7. Sanitary works and services including scavengers.	159	14	....	....	157	14	2	....

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

An attempt has been made in this chapter to give an idea of the industrial situation of the district. The first part deals with mechanised industries which are registered under the Factories Act. It contains a general description, location and number of factories, capital investment, employment of labour, production and marketing of the products of the large-scale and small-scale industries. Cottage industries are described in general in the second section. The third section deals with the progress of trade union movement in the district.

SECTION I--INDUSTRIES, LARGE AND SMALL.

LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

Engineering Industries.

There are four engineering units, two of which repair equipment and manufacture trays, bolts, nuts, etc. The third manufactures agricultural implements and the last diesel engines, shaping machines, looms and agricultural implements. Two are situated at Koynanagar, one at Karad and the last near Satara Road railway station of the Southern Railway Line. Of these four, two are very small units, the third a small scale unit which had Rs. 66,444 as fixed assets and Rs. 56,047 as current assets in 1957. The fourth concern which is a large scale unit had an investment of Rs. 1,21,33,565 including Rs. 72, 48, 698 as working capital in 1958.

The small-scale unit consumed raw materials like iron, steel, etc., worth Rs. 65,342 and produced implements like ploughs, soil scoopers, winnowing fans, chaff cutters, etc., worth Rs. 1,83,619. The total consumption of raw materials like iron, steel, brass, copper, aluminium and chemicals by the large unit was 4,465 tons, valued at about Rs. 70,00,000 in 1958 It produced 8,135 oil engines, centrifugal pumps, shaping machines, looms and implements valued at Rs. 1,38,75,381 in the same year.

The total employment in the two concerns was 2081. The total wage bill of employees in the large unit was Rs. 37,51,587 and of those in a small unit was Rs. 43,759 in 1957. Surrounding villages were the source of labour supply to these concerns. The products of the former were marketed all over India as well as to Middle Eastern and Far Eastern countries and of the latter in Maharashtra only.

There is one furniture making concern at Koynanagar and one manufacturing handlooms, *Ambar charkhas* and *Nutan Tel Ghanis* at Karad. The latter is a co-operative unit.

The former unit which was started in 1955 had an investment of Rs 65,000 including Rs. 60,000 as working capital. The total employment in it was 18 who were employed on daily wages and paid Rs. 11,000 in 1957. The unit consumed materials like wood, nails, and polishing materials worth Rs. 35,000, and produced furniture worth Rs. 60,000 in the same year. The market for these products was Poona, Satara and Karad towns. The latter unit which was started for the benefit of ex-servicemen had an aggregate investment of Rs. 55,000 including Rs. 50,000 as fixed

capital. It produced handlooms, *Ambar charkhas* and did repair work worth Rs. 53,000 in 1957-58. It provided employment to 10 persons who were shareholders and workers engaged on daily wages. A skilled worker was paid between three to four rupees and an unskilled worker one rupee per day. The factory has now been attached to the Maharashtra Village Industries Board.

Two more concerns which repair automobiles are situated at Koynanagar. They were started in 1955 and 1956, respectively. One concern is owned by Government of Maharashtra. The other is a private concern in which about Rs. 11,00,000 were invested in 1957. The total employment in them was about 200 and the total wage bill Rs. 2,48,000 in 1957. The latter unit which employed about 175 persons purchased materials like petrol, diesel oil and spare parts worth about Rs. 2,00,000 in the same year.

Three depots, one each at Karad, Satara and Wai, owned by the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation, maintain and repair vehicles owned by the Corporation. Two were started in 1948 and one in 1949. An amount of Rs. 4,27,000 was invested as fixed capital and a total of 330 persons were employed in them. They consumed raw materials and spare parts worth Rs. 2,61,735 in 1957.

Electricity Generation.

There are five power houses which generate electricity in the district. The power house at Bhatghar was commissioned in 1916. The other three, at Satara, Karad and Koregaon were started between 1933 and 1940 and the last one at Wai was commissioned in 1956. The first and the last are under the control of the Maharashtra State Electricity Board.

The following statement gives the location of each power house, its nature, installed capacity, area of supply, quantity supplied, the number of consumers and charges per unit.

TABLE No. 2.

POWER HOUSES IN SATARA DISTRICT.

Station.	Total installed capacity in K.W.	Composition.	Voltage		Quantity (Units.)	Area of supply.	Customers.	Charges per unit	
			Max.	Min.				Lighting and fans, etc.	Industries.
								Rs. nP.	Rs. nP.
Bhatgar .	1,060	4 Sets of 265 K.W each.	N. A	N. A.	23,20,000	Rajawadi, Shirwal, Nira. Navapur, Lonand. Bhor. Phaltan.	780	0·33	N. A.
Karad ..	526	N. A. ..	N. A.	N. A.	5,36,257	Karad town ..	1,486	0·42	0·25 upto 3 KWS and 0·17 over 3 KW.
Koregaon ..	N. A.	2 Sets of 24 K. W. each.	N. A.	N. A.	30,000	Koregaon ..	N.A.	0·56	0·25
Satara	582	2 Sets of 982 B.H.P	11,000	400	9,18,096	Satara town and 21 villages.	N. A.	0·39	N. A.
Wai ..	130	3 Diesel Sets of (1) 55 K.W. (2) 50 K.W. (3) 25 K.W	N. A. N. A	N. A.	86072	Wai town ..	483	0·53	N. A.

CHAPTER 5

Industries

LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

Electricity Generation.

The aggregate capital invested in these five concerns was Rs. 29 lakhs in 1957-58. They employed 128 persons who were paid about Rs. 1,50,000 per year as wages. A skilled worker was paid between Rs. 55 and Rs. 100 as basic wage per month and an unskilled one between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 per month. Three concerns consumed crude oil and diesel oil worth Rs. 20,000 in 1957-58. All of them generated about 36,48,000 units of electric energy in that year.

The industry faces two great problems, viz., the high cost at which electricity is generated and the inadequacy of the supply of energy. It satisfies the needs of only a fraction of population in urban areas. This long standing problem of inadequate supply at a high cost would be solved with availability of electricity from the Koyna Project. It would also help to introduce electricity in rural areas.

Sugar Industry.

This industry has developed only after the expansion of area under sugarcane plantation. Prior to 1933, sugarcane was mainly used for the manufacture of *gul*. With the expansion of area under sugarcane and availability of railway transport, the first sugar factory was started in 1933.

The factory expanded steadily during Second World War. One more sugar factory was started in 1954. The two factories which are situated at Phaltan and Sakharwadi and *gul* factories which are situated at different places in the district consume all the sugarcane produced in the district. The sugar factory at Phaltan is a co-operative concern.

The former had an investment of Rs. 6,05,848 in plant, machinery and buildings and Rs. 11,34,059 as working capital in 1958. The latter had a total investment of Rs. 2,22,90,340 including Rs. 1,85,80,616 as working capital in 1957-58.

Raw materials used are sugarcane, lime, sulphur and other chemicals. One factory produces some quantity of sugarcane on its owned land and also purchases from agriculturists. The other one has no cultivable land of its own and makes purchases of sugarcane from agriculturists. The total consumption of sugarcane by both the factories was 2,44,731 tons, valued at Rs. 1,12,96,422 in 1958. The other materials, valued at Rs. 2,44,848, were consumed by them in the same year.

Each one is having a sugar plant with a crushing capacity varying from 800 to 1,000 tons per day. Coal, coke, fire-wood, oils, etc., are used as fuels. One of them consumed fuel worth Rs. 1,26,131 in 1958.

CHAPTER 5

Industries

LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Sugar Industry.

Though it is a seasonal industry working from November to May, it maintains permanent as well as seasonal labour. Permanent labour is used to overhaul machinery after the season. The total employment in both was 2,700 including permanent, temporary and seasonal workers. The seasonal workers are employed during the season only when the factories work in three shifts. The total wage bill of both was Rs. 38,70,855 in 1958.

They produce two varieties of sugar, 29D and 29E. The total production of sugar was 25,238 tons valued at Rs. 1,78,38,975 in 1958. Most of the produce is exported to Poona, Belgaum and Bombay.

Sugar manufacturing is one of the biggest industries in India. There is great scope for expansion for this industry if adequate capital and new machinery are made available. With the available facilities of irrigation, the area under sugarcane cultivation can further be increased which will yield larger output of sugarcane. Electricity will be available in abundance on the completion of the Koyna Project. There is no problem of finding a market for sugar. The problem of finance could also be tackled by organising sugar factories on a co-operative basis.

The following table shows the position of capital investment, consumption of raw materials and production of the factory in 1937-38 and 1946-47 :—

TABLE No. 3.

	1937-38	*1946-47*
Total Investment (Rs.)	50,85,191	94,90,625
Consumption of sugarcane (tons)	80,153	75,971
Value of sugarcane consumed (Rs.)	8,21,765	24,74,446
Production (bags) (29D quality)	91,943	79,630
Value of production (Rs.)	20,20,989	46,19,162

Process of Sugar Manufacturing.

Sugarcane is harvested in the fields and brought to the factory either in lorries or by bullock carts. The cane is loaded in a cane carrier, which takes it to the mills for crushing. On its way, it is cut into pieces by two sets of knives and is prepared for milling. The milling operation consists of applying pressure to the cane by heavy rollers and extracting juice. The bagasse (cane after extraction of juice) goes to boilers as fuel, where steam is generated for processing purposes and for generating the necessary power in the factory.

The whole quantum of juice is collected and sent to an automatic weighing tank where it is weighed, and heated up to 60° C. and treated in a continuous liming and sulphitation. Lime, sulphur and triple superphosphate are added to the juice to precipitate impurities and clarify the juice. After the juice is treated with these reactants, it is boiled and allowed to settle in a clarifier. The clarified juice is taken to the evaporator where the thin juice is concentrated to a syrupy liquid. The residue accumulated at the bottom of the clarifier is filtered in a rotary vacuum filter and the filtrates are taken for re-processing. The residue is useful as farm manure.

CHAPTER 5 — Industries LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES Sugar Industry *Process of Sugar Manufacturing.*

The syrup is again sulphited for bleaching and this is boiled in vacuum pans and crystals are obtained and grown by maintaining proper supersaturation conditions. When the crystals grow to a fair size, the material is dropped in crystallisers from where it is taken to centrifugal machines. In these machines sugar crystals are separated from the mother liquor or molasses, which contains quite a bit of sugar. Molasses is then boiled twice to extract the remaining sugar content. If this process of boiling twice is found uneconomical, molasses is sent out as final molasses, which is a bye-product of the sugar industry. This can be subjected to several types of fermentation yielding several types of materials like ethyl alcohol, butyl alcohol, and acetone and acetic acid, etc. The sugar obtained in the centrifugals is washed and then dried in a different set of centrifugals by superheated steam. The dried sugar is then graded into separate sizes and bagged. The weighed bags (each bag contains 2¾ maunds of sugar) are sent to godown.

Gul Making

The old Gazetteer of Satara district describes *gul* manufacturing as a major rural industry. Its position as a major industry remained unchanged almost till the period following the First World War (1920-30). The pace of its development received a set-back when sugar production began to make headway. During the thirties the sugar factory which was in existence consumed about 80,000 tons of sugarcane and the remaining sugarcane output of the district was diverted towards manufacturing *gul*. The position remained unchanged almost till the period following the Second World War. The establishment of another sugar factory and the steady expansion of the first gave a great set-back to the industry. In 1954 there were 49 *gul* factories registered under the Factories Act. But with the expansion of the two sugar factories, their number came down to only 29 in 1959. These factories were located in Karad, Phaltan and Wai talukas.

The aggregate capital invested in 14 factories for which information was available was about Rs. 2,50,000 including Rs. 1,39,947 as fixed capital in 1957.

Sugarcane is the main raw material required. Lime is also used to remove dirt from the juice. About 1,200 tons of sugarcane valued

CHAPTER 5 — Industries LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Gul Making.

at Rs. 46,000 were consumed in these factories in 1957. Diesel engines, cane crushers and iron mills worked by bullocks were the equipments used in this process.

It is a seasonal industry which works for about three months after December. On an average each factory worked for about two months in that season. About 200 workers who were paid about Rs. 16,000 were employed in the season of 1957. The total production of the season in these factories was about 13,000 maunds valued at Rs. 1,69,000. The market for the product was Poona and Baramati. A small portion of the produce was locally consumed.

Process of Gul making.

Sugarcane is crushed by mechanised crushers. The juice collected is mixed with lime so as to remove dirt from it and boiled in an open large pan. On cooling it is poured in a pit where it is solidified. Finally it is filled in bucket-type moulds to give the required shape and is sent to the market for sale.

The methods adopted in the process of *gul* making are old and crude. Sugarcane juice is extracted on sugarcane crushers run by bullocks although a few diesel engine sets have replaced the bullocks in some factories. As there is a constant demand for this article improved methods will have to be adopted for increasing its output. Improvement in the technique is an essential pre-requisite for increasing its production.

Edible Oil Industry

There are eleven oil mills and decorticating factories in the district. Of these four oil mills, information for which was available, were situated at Karad. One each was started in 1947 and 1948 and the remaining two in 1956 and 1957. Groundnut seeds which are mainly crushed in them are locally available. One mill crushes groundnuts and *karanji* seeds. They also bring groundnuts from Bijapur and Bagalkot as the percentage of oil content in the groundnuts produced in that area is more than that of Karad. Three factories consumed about 2,312 tons of groundnut seeds valued at Rs. 12,94,720 and 48 tons of *karanji* seeds in 1957.

In 1957, the total investment in these factories was about Rs. 8,50,000 including Rs. 4,00,000 as working capital. Groundnut shell was mainly used as a fuel as coal was not available in the required quantity. Eight big expellers with crushing capacity of two tons each and two baby expellers with crushing capacity of a ton each were working in these factories.

The total production of the three factories in 1957 was 925 tons of groundnut oil valued at about Rs. 15,00,000 and 1,387 tons of groundnut cake valued at Rs. 2,77,400 and 63 tons of *karanji* oil. These products were marketed to Konkan areas and Poona.

In 1957, 59 persons were employed in these factories. The factories worked in two shifts in the season (from November to May) and in one shift afterwards. The average number of working days of each factory was 264 in 1957.

Lack of adequate finance was the main problem confronted by the industry.

Groundnut Decorticating.

Two factories, for which information was available, decorticated groundnuts and ground turmeric. Both were situated at Karad. One was established in 1928 and the other in 1954. More than a lakh of rupees were invested in them in 1958. Groundnuts and turmeric valued at about Rs. 14 lakhs were decorticated and ground respectively, in 1958. They employed as many as 35 persons; most of them were employed on daily wages and a few on contract basis. Persons employed on daily wages were paid Rs. 1/12 per day. Those who were employed on contract were paid Rs. 14 for decorticating 100 bags of groundnuts.

Copper and brass works.

At Karad a factory manufacturing brass and copper utensils, was started in 1948. It is a rolling mill in which a sum of Rs. 6,76,586 was invested in 1958-59. The total investment in land, buildings, plant and machinery, etc., was Rs. 2,09,559 while the working capital was Rs. 3,67,027.

Brass, copper plates and zinc, which are imported from foreign countries and brass and copper scraps collected from various parts of the State, are used as raw materials. The factory consumed about 1,385 tons of metal and metal sheets, valued at about Rs. 24,00,000 in 1958-59 and produced about 1,070 tons of brass and copper coils and utensils valued at Rs. 33,00,000.

The factory has a rolling mill, heating and melting furnaces cutting, packing, drilling and shaping machines, etc. It consumed about 67,000 units of electric energy and 146 gallons of oil in that year.

The total employment in it was 53 including seven persons other than workers. They were paid Rs. 42,190 in 1958-59.

It is a small-scale unit and has constant demand for its products. But due to inadequate supply of raw materials and capital it is not flourishing.

Glass Manufacturing.

There is a factory producing glass and glasswares, lanterns and enamelwares situated at Ogalewadi. Started in 1916 as a small proprietory concern, it has made considerable progress during the last 45 years. Originally its output was restricted to glass articles; but subsequently, the factory began to manufacture hurricane lanterns. Its investment was Rs. 5,00,000. During the Great Depression of the thirties, when it lost much of its market, the factory began to produce safety stoves and stainless steel utensils.

CHAPTER 5. — Industries. LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES. Glass Manufacturing.

The Second World War offered opportunities for expansion of the factory and it started producing other glass articles. In the post independence period a loan of Rs. 20,00,000 was given to it by the Industrial Finance Corporation of India for further expansion.

The factory produces electric motors in addition to the items enumerated above.

The investment in fixed and current assets of the concern was Rs. 51,53,877 in 1958. It had Rs. 25,00,000 as authorised capital and Rs. 14,87,315 as subscribed capital at the end of 1958.

The raw materials required by the factory are tin plates, black sheets, brass sheets, tin, sand, soda ash, saltpetre, lime, marble powder, borax, sodium nitrate, titanium oxide and many other materials. Tin plates and black sheets are partly imported from foreign countries, like U.S.A. and U.K., and partly brought from Tatanagar. All other materials are available in India. The factory consumed articles worth Rs. 19,94,016 in 1958. It consumed diesel oil, furnace oil, kerosene, petrol, lubricants and electric energy valued at Rs. 5,87,658 in that year.

It produces glasswares like chimneys, globes, bottles, jars, roofing and flooring tiles, dishes, ash trays, bowls, hurricane lanterns, safety stoves, enamelwares and electric motors. In 1958 the total production of glasswares was 2,800 tons, of lanterns 61,800 dozens, of enamelwares 3,10,000 sq. ft. and of safety stoves 26,100 units. The total value of all these products was Rs. 64,76,581. The market for these products is indigenous and also some middle-east countries.

The total employment was 1,644 including 195 persons as supervisory and other staff. Nearby villages are the source of labour supply. A skilled worker is paid between Rs. 55 to Rs. 100 as basic pay per month, a semi-skilled worker between Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 and an unskilled between Rs. 26 to Rs. 56. The monthly wage bill was Rs. 1,37,900. The factory works in three shifts.

Lack of capital and inadequate supply of raw materials are the main factors that have hampered its yet greater development. The industry has much more scope for expansion as its overseas market is increasing gradually. The factory trains apprentices in new methods of glass manufacturing.

Plastic Industry.

A factory producing phenol formaldehyde moulding powder is a recent one, started at Satara in 1947. It was closed in 1954 and was reopened in 1958. The total investment in 1959 amounted to Rs. 5,50,000 including Rs. 4,00,000 as working capital.

Phenol, formaldehyde, hexamine, carbon black, dyes, pigments, lactic acid, wood-flour, magnesium oxide, cotton waste, asbestos, slate powder, mica, lime, stearic acid, oxalic acid, caustics etc., are the materials used in the manufacturing process. Most of the materials like phenol, formaldehyde, hexamine, carbon black, pigments, lactic acid are imported from foreign countries, like U.S.A., U K. and Germany, while rest of the articles are available in India and are mostly purchased from Bombay. Coal, fire, wood and diesel oil are used as fuel.

The factory employed 45 workers, 18 permanent and 27 temporary, in September 1959. A skilled worker was paid between two and three rupees and an unskilled worker about a rupee.

About 250 tons of phenol formaldehyde moulding powder of different kinds valued at Rs. 6,00,000 was produced in 1959. The products are sold all over India. There is a great scope for further expansion of the industry as there is a growing demand for its products. The factory has recently started producing phenol formaldehyde, cast resinous sheets, rods and tubes.

Printing and book-binding.

In 1959, there were nine printing presses in the district which were registered under the Factories Act. Six were situated in Satara town, two in Wai and one in Koregaon. The oldest press which is in Satara was started in 1867. It was followed by the other in 1925 in the same town. Five more presses were started between 1935 and 1937 and two in 1948. All these presses print books, booklets, hand bills, memo forms, etc. One press published a weekly also.

The total investment in them in 1957 was Rs. 4,03,251 including Rs. 93,456 as working capital.

They use paper, printing ink, a variety of types, stationery and binding materials, most of which are brought from Poona and Bombay. The value of articles consumed in 1957 was about Rs. 2,60,000. Their mechanical equipment consists of printing machines, cutting and stitching machines, treadles, perforating and binding machines and cylinder machines. About 20 treadles were working in these factories in 1957.

They consumed kerosene oil, crude oil, and electricity as fuel worth Rs. 4,000 in 1957.

The industry provided employment to 102 persons whose total wage bill amounted to Rs. 94,500.

All these presses did job work, binding work and printing of books. This industry does not get sufficient work so as to get even marginal returns on its capital. Some units are running at a loss. Competi-

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

LARGE-SCALE AND SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES.

tion among the printing presses and paucity of demand have deteriorated the economic position of the presses.

Ayurvedic Medicine.

The Ayurvedic pharmacy at Satara is the only one of its kind in the district. Started in 1941 with an investment of Rs. 34,000 and employment of 11 workers it has expanded greatly during the last 20 years. Its total assets in 1958 were Rs. 2,32,667 including Rs. 1,65,789 as working capital.

It utilises various kinds of herbs and plants, mercury and vermilion as raw materials. Most of the herbs and plants, are brought from the Konkan forests and other materials from Bombay. The value of raw material used in 1958 was about Rs. 60,000.

The factory uses a grinding machine for making powders, bottle washing, filling and capping machines and a tablet making machine in the process of manufacturing.

Babul wood is mainly used as fuel. About 36 tons of *babul* wood valued at Rs. 4,459 was used in 1958.

There were 63 workers of whom 39 were permanent and 24 temporary. A male worker was paid Rs. 1·25 and a female worker one rupee per day. Their annual wage bill was Rs. 26,488 in 1958. Three persons were employed as Supervisors and Clerks who were paid Rs. 3,456 in 1958.

The factory produces 16 different varieties of Ayurvedic medicines of which 11 are its speciality. The total value of products in 1958 was Rs. 84,905. The biggest market for the products is Maharashtra which consumes about 75 per cent. of the total produce. The remaining is exported to Mysore and Madhya Pradesh.

Transport difficulties and lack of finance are the main problems faced by the factory, which has good scope to expand if necessary capital is made available.

Silk dyeing

A factory, twisting and dyeing silk yarn situated at Satara was started in 1929. The aggregate capital invested in it was Rs. 1,50,000 including Rs. 60,500 as working capital in 1957. The total employment was about 55 persons who were paid Rs. 12,000. It consumed 57,600 lbs. of art silk valued at Rs. 2,78,000. The market for the goods was Belgaum, Poona, Sholapur, Ichalkaranji, Malegaon and Bagalkot.

Power loom weaving.

There is one power loom factory at Satara. Originally it was started at Limb and was shifted to Satara in 1948. It produces dhotis, saris and other varieties of cloth. The factory had 10 power looms of which only four were working. It employed four persons who were paid Rs. 1,500 in 1957-58. It consumed 3,300 lbs. of yarn valued at Rs. 6,000 and produced 11,000 yards of cloth in 1957-58. The market for the products was Satara district.

The two brick factories registered under the Factories Act were located at Satara and Karad. The former was started in 1947 and the latter in 1951. Both were seasonal and worked about four months in the year. The latter is reported to have closed down. The total investment in both in 1958 was Rs. 6,000, of which working capital formed a major portion.

Clay, coal-ash, horse dung and other materials, valued at Rs. 4,300 and fuel like coal, firewood, etc, valued at Rs. 3,600 was consumed by them in 1958. Most of these materials are available in the towns where factories were located.

About 40 persons who were paid Rs. 6,400 as wages were employed. They manufactured about 4,00,000 bricks, valued at about Rs. 11,500 in that season The availability of abundant clay on the banks of the Krishna and Koyna enhances the scope for the development of the industry. The industry does not require large capital. This industry can advantageously be organised on a co-operative pattern.

SECTION II–COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Almost all cottage industries which are developed in the district are old and hereditary. Persons engaged inherit them from generation to generation. Among these industries cotton and wool weaving, carpentry; black, copper and gold smithies, basket making, pottery, rope-making, *gul* making, etc., are important. During the last century these industries were carried out by hand processes and no motive power was used in them. The impact of the West has caused a gradual change in the technique of their production. Throw shuttle loom which was commonly used in cotton weaving has now been replaced by an automatic loom. Carpenters, black and copper smiths use varieties of improved tools and implements so as to get more and better output. Improvement in the technique of leather working and tanning have yielded different kinds of leather goods. Similar improvement in the technique of pottery and other industries can also be seen. Recently *gul* making industry has received a set back due to the expansion of sugar industry in the district, as most of the sugarcane cultivated in the district is being diverted towards sugar manufacturing.

Prior to 1900 caste was the basis of determining the occupation to be followed by a particular person. *Salis* and *Kostis* were obliged to follow cotton weaving, *Sutars* carpentry. *Lohars* blacksmithy, *Kumbhars* pottery and *Rangaris* dyeing and bleaching. Under the British regime convention of following a specific occupation by a particular person became loose as education spread wider and wider To-day, persons irrespective of caste and creed are to be found in all occupations. Persons other than carpenters follow carpentry as the means of their livelihood. Brickmaking, cotton weaving, lime burning, leather-work, etc. are followed by persons irrespective of their caste and creed, though the hereditary influence still persists.

CHAPTER 5. — Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

The employment in different industries like carpentry, basket making black and copper smithies, cotton and wool weaving, rope-making, leather-working etc., can be seen in the table given in the introduction of the chapter. The table contains figures for both Satara and Sangli districts for the years 1911, 1921 and 1931. Census figures of 1951 pertain to Satara only.

FOREST INDUSTRIES.

There are a few forest industries like beekeeping, charcoal manufacturing, collection of *shikekai* and *hirda* and walking-stick making followed at Mahabaleshwar, out of which the first two are important. Beekeeping can be pursued in spare time without much labour at a place where there is ample vegetation. Perennial flora from which honey can be sucked is available in abundance in the Mahabaleshwar forests in which bees fly about two furlongs from their hives and collect honey. Two units are engaged in beekeeping at Mahabaleshwar out of which one is run by Government. About 4,500 beehives are distributed among the people in the surrounding area of Mahabaleshwar and over 45,000 lbs. of honey of 15 different varieties valued at Rs. 57,000 are annually collected and marketed to places like Bombay and Poona.

The other forest industry located at Mahabaleshwar is charcoal making. Forest coupes are purchased by forest labourers' societies which cut unwanted wood, and manufacture charcoal. In 1956-57 there were six such societies, one each at Dhebewadi, Helwak, Kumbharoshi, Mahabaleshwar, Ural and Wai. In addition to charcoal manufacturing the societies at Helwak and Kumbharoshi collected *hirda*, *shikekai*, and *apta* leaves valued at Rs. 7,000 in the same year. The unwanted trees from the coupe are cut in small sizes and are arranged in a parabolic type of furnace closed from all sides with mud and its top with hay and mud. The furnaces are of two different sizes, *viz*., 40′ × 40′ and 20′ × 20′. It is set on fire from the bottom where arrangement is made for such purpose. These two furnaces char five and two tons of wood respectively at a time in ten days.

The industry functions in winter and summer and yields about 200 tons of charcoal annually.

Societies have not to bear any cost for producing charcoal except wages paid to labourers for cutting wood and arranging furnace. Each man is paid Rs. 1·50 nP. and a woman 50 nP. per day. The entire charcoal output is purchased by Government at Rs. 65 per ton. Most of the output is sent to Panchgani and about 20 per cent. is sold in Mahabaleshwar.

The six societies with a membership of 625 had Rs. 6,820 as share capital and total turnover of Rs. 3,43,241 in 1956-57.

Making of walking-sticks is another cottage industry found at Mahabaleshwar. There were ten such establishments making sticks and employing about 40 persons in 1960. The sticks are made of *lokhandi or chimath or apti* wood which is available in abundance in the Mahabaleshwar forests. They are dried for about a week and baked and are given shape as required. Many a time designs are carved on their handles. The industry is seasonal and works for about three months in a year. In the off season these workers take to some other employment. In the brisk season from January to May their wages vary from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per day.

The sticks are sold locally as well as sent to Bombay. The price of each stick at Mahabaleshwar varies from annas twelve to Rs. 2·75 nP.

Basket Making.

Basket making is a hereditary industry of Buruds who number about 800. They make *supas, topalis, duradis, rovlis* and *karandis* for stocking fruits and eggs. The industry is located in Mahabaleshwar, Patan and Satara talukas. In Satara town there are about 35 *Burud* families who make these articles. Besides them Kaikadis make *kangolis* and *tattis* from *ghaneri* bush.

Bamboos which grow in Mahabaleshwar and Helwak ranges and *ghaneri* bushes form the main raw materials. The best variety of bamboos is sold at Rs. 40 to Rs. 50 per 100, medium variety at Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per 100 and inferior variety at Rs. 30 per 100. Bamboo strips are taken out with a *koyata* which costs Rs. 5 and baskets are made with the help of knife. No other tools are used in the industry. Men take out bamboo strips and women make the bamboo articles.

The cost of producing the following articles and their selling prices are as follows :—

Article.	Size.	Cost. Rs. nP.	Selling Price. Rs. nP.
Sieve (duradi)	1½'×6' ..	0 44	0·50
Winnowing fan (supa)	1½'×1½' ..	0 22	0 25
Basket (caging) of hens.. ..	3'×4' diameter ..	0·37	0·80
Basket (storing) of eggs.. ..	1½' height .	0·50	0·62
Basket (karandi)	1¼' breadth and 1½' height.	0·62	0·75
Bamboo mat (tattya) . ..	6'×12' ..	5·00	6·00

The workers work throughout the day in all seasons and earn about one rupee or Rs. 1½ each per day. The industry does not require substantial amount of capital. To start with Rs. 15 are sufficient in the initial stages. As the establishment is expanded more capital is required for stocking raw materials.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Tanning.

The market for the products is generally local. No co-operative society was organised in the industry till 1958-59.

Tanning industry engages about 1,000 artisans. It is followed by dhors and chambhars who are hereditary artisans. Before 1950, centres where the industry was located were Dahiwadi, Gondawle, Karad, Mhaswad, Mardi Pal, Satara and Wai.

After the conversion of Mahars to neoBuddhism who have stopped, flaying dead animals and supplying raw hides to tanners, the industry has suffered considerably. Satara and Wai are now the only important centres where the industry is concentrated. In other villages there are one or two *dhor* families who do this work. The industry is managed independently by Dhor families who purchase raw hides from local Mahars or bring them from outside.

Raw hides, lime and some chemicals like potassium dichromate constitute the main raw materials. Wet and raw hides are brought from Bombay and Poona at Rs. 19-20 per Bengali maund as local supply is inadequate to meet the requirements. In rural areas tanners purchase raw hides from local Mahars or Mangs whose hereditary occupation is to collect dead bodies of animals and supply hides to tanners after removing flesh and bones. *Hirda* (myrobalan) and *babul* bark, *tarvad* bark are used in this process. These articles are available locally.

Tools and Implements.—Two or three lime pits, tanning pits, washing tanks and tools like wooden mallets, *rapis*, *aris* and few tubes, barrels etc., are the tools and equipment used in this process. Generally each family has a set of tools worth Rs. 500.

Production.—One family of three members tans 20 pieces of buffalo hides weighing about 1,000 lbs. a month. The cost of tanning 20 hides including charges for raw hides, *hirda*, *babul* bark, lime, fibre for stitching, wages, etc., is about Rs. 803.

Process of tanning.—These artisans follow a back tanning process. There is no difference between this method and the method which is followed at Kolhapur. The hide is macerated in lime water to separate the hair, the fat and the fleshy parts from it. After the hide is well soaked, the hair is scrapped with a scraper and the fat and fleshy parts are removed with a knife (*rapi*). It is then washed and soaked for nearly three days in a light solution of *babul* bark or *tarvad* bark and *hirda* water. To have a thorough tanned hide the process of soaking is repeated thrice. The hide is then tied into a bag and hung up with a stronger solution of *babul* bark and *hirda* water. It is left in such a state for seven days. On the eighth day it is washed and again dried. It is then ready for sale.

The market for these goods is generally Bombay. These artisans are exploited by middle men to the utmost and do not receive adequate payment for the work they do.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Tanning.

Tanning is a full-time work. Tanners work from morning till evening with the help of their families. Generally no outside labour is employed in this process. But in a centre like Satara a few artisans are employed on daily wages of Rs. 2 each. Most of these artisans are under debt as they cannot make both the ends meet.

An artisan on an average requires Rs. 1,500 to 2,000 as working capital. Middle-men generally advance this amount and recover the same from the tanned hides they purchase from the artisan.

There were three tanners' co-operative societies with 103 members and Rs. 3,523 as share capital in 1957-58. They did not undertake any activities till then. There is one tanning centre at Satara run by the Department of Cottage Industries. It receives raw hides from Bombay and from peripatetic school at Wai. The school imparts training to students from the Dhor community.

Government have established a tanning centre at Satara in 1957 with an object to produce tanned leather by pit tanning method which yields better and durable tanned leather in minimum time. Tanned leather produced at the centre is sold to the leather workers' co-operative society.

The industry is suffering from a strong set-back as it cannot compete with big leather-working concerns who can sell their products at comparatively cheaper prices.

Blacksmithy.

It is a common calling found all over the district. In each village there are one or two Lohar families who produce and repair agricultural implements and domestic articles like spades, pick-axes, axes, furrows, sickles, hoes, axles, flat pans (*tavas*), frying pans (*kadhais*) and prongs (*sandshis*). In 1951, 1041 persons were having blacksmithy as a principal means of livelihood in the district. There were 149 establishments engaging 240 persons. Karad, Koregaon, Satara and Wai are important centres of blacksmithy.

Iron and steel are brought at Poona and Sangli as raw materials. Due to short supply of the metal sheets the artisans purchase them at a price higher than the controlled price. Iron plate weighing 18 seers is required for a band, 35 seers for an axle of cart. In rural areas necessary metal is supplied to them when an order is placed for an implement. They do such type of work on piece rates, and usually charge a rupee for producing an axe or a sickle, Rs. 10 for producing an angle, Rs. 5 for producing a chair and Rs. 4 for fixing a band on a wheel. An artisan does the work worth Rs. 5 in a day. His work is usually brisk during summer while during rainy season he takes to farm labour.

Tools required are anvil (*airan*), sledge-hammer (*ghan*), hammer (*hatoda*), pincers (*sandshi*) bellows (*bhata*), etc. The whole set costs about Rs. 200. Each artisan usually possesses the whole set.

CHAPTER 5.
Industries.
COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.
Leather-Work.

The artisans are very poor. Many a time they move from place to place in search of employment. Capital required is borrowed at a higher rate of interest.

Leather-work is a common industry followed by Mochis or Chambhars, who number 2,700. In 1951, there were 368 leather-working establishments engaging about 511 persons. Satara, Wai, Phaltan, Mahabaleshwar, Karad, Koregaon and Khed are few important centres. The main leather products are footwears, shoes, chappals and sandles. Formerly the artisans were engaged on *baluta* system, which is now fast disappearing. Leather goods are sold directly on cash payment.

Tanned leather or rubber for soles, dyed and fancy leather for uppers, nails, polishes, etc., constitute raw materials for the industry. Sole leather is brought from Kolhapur or purchased from local market and upper leather from Bombay, Calcutta, Kanpur and Madras. The prices of leather were as follows :—

		Rs. nP.
Chrome leather	..	1·00 per sq. ft.
Calf leather	..	1·50 per sq. ft.
Pressed tanned hide	..	2·12 per lb.
Unpressed tanned hide	..	1·81 per lb.

Tools which are most commonly used are *ari,* chisel, iron spike, hammer, wooden blocks, flat stone, *pakkad,* etc. A set of such tools including a new sewing machine costs Rs. 800 and without a sewing machine about Rs. 100.

Production : Chappal is the main product while shoes and sandles are also produced in urban areas. Shoes produced at Mahabaleshwar are popular in Bombay. The cost of production of a chappal is about Rs. 4·80 nP. which is sold at Rs. 5 per pair. The market for the products is generally local. A small percentage of the produce is sent to towns and cities like Poona and Bombay.

Leather-working provides full time employment in which artisans are helped by their families. They earn about Rs. 2 to 3 per day. In urban areas they are employed by big establishments on piece work In the rainy season when their work is slack they take to agriculture.

An artisan on an average requires Rs. 400 to Rs. 500 as capital investment.

There were six leather-workers' co-operative societies which were situated at Aundh, Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Satara, Shirwal and Wai. Five of them had 209 members and Rs. 20,773 as share capital. The society at Satara produces footwears. It receives Government orders for supply of shoes to Police Department.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Oil Crushing.

As the district has a large area under groundnut crop, oil industry has an important place in its economy. It is reported that there are about 700 village *ghanis* which engage about 1,200 artisans. Charegaon, Deur, Karad, Lonand, Malharpeth, Masur, Patan, Pusegaon, Satara and Wai are important centres where *ghanis* are found.

Groundnut, safflower and *karanji* seeds, which are used as raw materials, are purchased from local market and are stored during the season.

Kolu ghanis driven by one or two bullocks are mostly used for oil crushing. A few artisans use *Nutan ghanis*. There are no other implements except drums for oil storage and an iron bar. The cost of *Kolu ghani* is about Rs. 300. The whole set including a bullock requires about Rs. 700.

The *kolu ghani* consists of a wooden trough which holds seed and a wooden cylinder about four feet high fitted right in the centre of the trough with a heavy cross beam on the top in a standing position, one end of which rests about a foot from ground. A semi-circular block of wood is attached to the lower part of the trough with a piece of wood projecting and forming a right angle with the upper beam at the end nearest the ground. On this piece of wood a large stone is placed and communication with the upper beam is effected by means of ropes playing on a pulley and as the ropes are tightened and the block rises the pressure of the cylinder is increased. A blind-folded bullock is yoked to the upper beam. The bullock goes round the trough and by the revolving of the cylinder the seeds are crushed. Oil is squeezed out and falls to the bottom of the trough while the residue forms into a solid mass round the sides of the trough as oilcake.

Production.—On an average about 100 lbs. of groundnut seeds are crushed in ten hours. The cost for crushing 100 lbs. of groundnut which yield about 30 lbs. of oil and about 70 lbs. of cake comes to about Rs. 30. The market for the products is generally local. A small percentage of it is sent to Ratnagiri district.

In this industry both men and women work. Men do the work of extraction of oil and women of cleaning groundnut or safflower. It is a seasonal industry which works for eight months in fair weather. In the rainy season when artisans are without employment they follow agriculture as a subsidiary occupation.

Groundunts are stocked in bumper season when the prices are low. The stocks are purchased on personal credit and in a few cases advances are made by merchants to the artisans on the hypothecation of their products.

There were eight oilmen's co-operative societies. one each at Charegaon, Deur, Karad, Malharpeth, Lonand, Pusegaon, Satara and Wai in 1957-58. They had 209 members and Rs. 20,773 as share capital. The Maharashtra Village Industries Board advances loans for share capital and working capital to them.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Handloom. Weaving.

Handloom weaving was carried on in almost all towns and large villages in the district by Khatris, Koshtis, Salis and Momins. Cotton yarn of coarse count was brought from Tasgaon, Jath and Athani and of fine count from Bombay. Khatris, Koshtis and Salis wove coarse cloth and Momins cheap turbans. Though weavers worked throughout the year, their earnings were hardly sufficient to support them as they could not compete with mill-made cloth. This situation worsened in post war period between 1920-1935 and almost remained static till the dawn of independence, as their interest was never safeguarded by the British Government. In the post-independence period, Government has been taking keen interest in the uplift of their economic lot by giving them financial aid and training them in the improved methods of weaving and arranging for the sale of their products. Abolition of intermediary has proved to be a boon. As a result the industry is regaining strength.

Among the existing cottage industries in the district, handloom weaving is the most important. It employs about 4,000 persons. There are 1,900 handlooms, of which 1,300 are pit-fly shuttle looms, 150 frame fly shuttle looms and 450 automatic looms. They are located at different centres like Bavdhan, Janugadewadi Kale, Karad, Kolewadi, Mhaswad, Morve, Phaltan, Rajapur, Umbraj, etc. Almost the whole industry is managed by independent weavers and a small part of it is controlled by master weavers who engage weavers on daily wages or on piece work.

In this area the main handloom product is *bandhani* sari in which cotton yarn of 20s and 30s or 40s and 40s is used in its body and of 40s and 60s or silk or artificial silk is used in its border and *anchu* or *padar*. Silk or artificial silk is used only in costly saries. Cotton yarn is purchased from open market. It is also supplied by co-operative societies to their members and by master weavers to artisans dependent on them. The average consumption of yarn per loom per month is as follows :—

Count No.	Consumption on flyshuttle looms. (lbs.)	Consumption on automatic looms. (lbs.)
10	50	75
20	40-45	60-65
30-32	30	35
40	20	25
60	10	15
80	6	8

Cotton yarn dyeing is done at Karad or Poona. The charges for dyeing varied from Rs. 4 to Rs. 15 per 10 lbs. Sago and gum are used in sizing. Looms and their accessories are wider stays, drop box shuttles, reeds, healds, warping frame, dobbies, etc. Old and

crude methods of weaving were followed by the artisans. A few of them are trained in new methods of weaving by the Department of Cottage Industries. The cost of accessories of an automatic loom which has recently been introduced is as follows :—

	Name of accessory	Cost.
		Rs.
1.	Automatic take up motion attachment. ..	70
2.	Wider stay	50
3.	Drop box shuttle	30
4.	Steel reed	10
5.	Varnished heald	20
6.	Dobbies with latics	30
7.	Warping frame	400
8.	Paddle loom	700
9.	Iron temples	10
10.	Automatic loom	250

Production :—The products are coarse and fine *saris* and *dhotis*, *uparne* and *pasodis*, shirting, coating, bed sheets and towels. But the percentage of products like fine cloth is much less as they are very recently introduced. The special product is a sari of *Bavdhan* type in which cotton yarn of 40ˢ is used in warp and wept. This sari is 8½ or 9 yards length and fifty inches in width. The cost of production of 40 such saries, which require about 50 lbs. of cotton yarn, 21 lbs. of silk is about Rs. 400. The details of cost are given below :—

	Rs.
Cost of yarn 50 lbs.	185
Cost of artsilk 21 lbs.	10
Dyeing charges	80
Warping, winding, sizing charges ..	25
Wages to labour	90
Packing charges	10
	400

The market for the products is almost local. Government has opened five sales depots one each at Satara, Kolewadi. Wai, Mhaswad and Phaltan for the sale of the products.

On an average, an automatic loom can produce about eight yards of cloth while a fly shuttle loom can produce only four to five yards of cloth per day. The average net income of a weavers' family which consists of two adult members and two children is about Rs. 3 per day.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Khadi Weaving.

There were 21 weavers' co-operative societies which had 1,682 members and Rs. 18,103 as share capital in 1957-58. Their total turnover in that year was about Rs. 3,39,811. Men usually weave and women do other preliminaries like carding, sizing, etc. Their working day is seven to eight hours, with a holiday on *amavasya*, the last day of each month of Hindu-calender.

The total number of 775 persons engaged in *khadi* weaving centres located at Bhadale, Kaledhaon, Khed, Lalgaon, Mayni, Nimsod, Rajapur, Taradgaon etc. was 775 in 1956-57. These artisans used *kisan* or box *charkha* and a loom for weaving and a carding machine as tools and equipment. The total production of *khadi* was about 17,000 yards, valued at Rs. 32,000 (1956-57).

Wool Weaving.

Wool Weaving :—Wool weaving is one of the old industries of the district. During the last century Sanagars, who wove woollen blankets, were found all over the district. Their number has now diminished. The process of making blankets is as follows. The wool is soaked in tamarind water and dried in open air and combed. It is resoaked and dried again before it is used for weaving. *Yava*, piece of wood about three feet long and six inches round, with a pointed end, *otkula*, a long piece of wood about four feet long and an inch broad, and *niri*, a long piece of wood with an indented side, are the tools used by them. These artisans are very poor and do not have much capital. Their condition has remained much the same for decades together.

There are about 2,10,700 sheep and the wool output in the district is estimated to be 7,00,000 lbs. The total population engaged in wool weaving was about 600 in 1956-57. In 1951, 73 stablishments employing 144 persons were engaged in wool spinning and weaving. Dhanagars who usually shear sheep and Sanagars who weave *kambalis* are engaged in the industry. The Dhanagars move from place to place and shear sheep twice a year, once before rainy season and secondly at the beginning of winter. Bidal, Chitali Kaledhon, Gulumb, Mahimangad, Mhaswad, Shivade, etc., are the important centres.

Wool, tamarind seeds, woollen yarn, constitute the main raw materials of the industry. Woollen yarn spun by shepherds is abundantly available in the markets at Lonand and Mhaswad where raw wool is sold at about a rupee per lb.

The artisans in the industry follow primitive methods and use very old fashioned tools. They used pit and throw shuttle looms and very crude apparatus for spinning, carding and weaving. A hollow bamboo 12" in length and one and a half inches in diameter is used as a suttle. All the looms and their accessories are manufactured and repaired locally. A loom with its accessories costs about Rs. 100.

A rough *kambal*, which is locally known as *ghongadi*, 100 inches in length and 50 inches in width is the main product. A good weaver weaves one *kambal* in a day and an average weaver five in

a week. The cost of a medium type of *Ghongadi* is Rs. 7 which includes cost of woollen yarn. *Ghongadis* are sold at Rs. 50 to Rs. 90 per "bodh" which contains eight *Ghongadis*. Ratnagiri and Kolaba constitute the main markets for these products where they are sold prior to the advent of the rainy season. Uttar Satara Jilha Khadi Gramodyoga Sahakari Sangh purchases these articles from the weavers.

Wool Weaving.

Wool weaving is a seasonal industry which engages artisans for about eight months in fair weather. They take to agriculture in the rainy season when their work is slack. Wool is first graded and carded by a hand carder and then spun into yarn. Then follows warping and weaving.

Weavers require capital for the purchase of raw materials which are to be stocked. They get advances from local merchants on hypothecation of their products. At times Rs. 700 to Rs. 800 are required for the stock of raw material. The amount is usually borrowed from local merchants.

There were seven wool weavers' co-operative societies in 1957-58, one each at Dudebhavi, Gulumb, Mhaswad, Malharpeth, Shivade, Wathar and Wai. They had 336 members and Rs. 11,847 as share capital. The turnover of these societies was Rs. 4,370, in the same year.

Rope-Making.

Ghaypat (Agva-Sisalava), from which fibre is extracted, is grown all over the district but abundantly in Man and Khatav talukas. It is planted on bunds which serves as a fencing to the field or grown on the banks of the river Krishna. It is an old industry in which about 5,000 persons are said to be engaged. In 1951, 569 establishments with 1,292 persons were engaged in this industry. It is a hereditary occupation of *Mangs*. Mayni, Vaduj and Gondavle are a few of its important centres.

The main material required is *Ghaypat* from which fibre is extracted by the process of retting. Superior quality of fibre is sold at Rs. 10 per maund of 24 seers. As the whole process of rope-making is done by hand, no tool except a wooden twisting wheel is used in it.

The main products are ropes of different sizes, such as required for agricultural purposes, *nadas*, *kasaras* and *saundars*. A family of three persons produces in a week 15 *nadas*, thick ropes used on a *mot* for fetching water from a well. Each *nada* is sold at about Rs. 6. The market for these articles is generally local and for fibre Poona and Ahmadnagar distritcs.

Rope making is done only in fair weather as it cannot be done in the rainy season. On an average a family of four persons engaged, in this industry earns about Rs. 4 per day.

These artisans are always in need of finance which is usually advanced to them by merchants at high rates of interest on hypothecation of their products. There were ten rope makers' co-operative

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Rope Making.

societies situated at Andori, Borgaon Gondavle, Khind, Karad. Khatav, Mayni, Ladegaon, Godanale and Nidhal. Out of them four were defunct and one was newly started. They had 343 members and Rs. 3,831 as share capital. The annual turnover of the five was Rs. 11,508 in 1957-58.

Process of rope making. *Ghaypat* is retted in water for eight days and dried in air for a day and thrashed by a wooden stick. It is then cleaned in water to get pure fibre.

A handful of fibre is taken and twisted into thin strands which are then carried by the same process to a suitable length. One person takes the long strand and the other goes to a distance of 30 to 60 ft. and starts twisting it again. The twisted length is folded and again twisted with the help of a wooden twisting wheel into a rope consisting of three to twelve strands as required.

Brick and Tile Industry.

Almost all villages have two or three Kumbhar families whose hereditary occupation is to make earthen vessels and toys and to supply them to the village people. At a few places like Karad, Satara, Wai and Phaltan they make idols of Goddess Gouri and God Ganapati during Ganapati festival and *gadgis* during the days of Makar Samkrant, idols of cobra during Nagpanchami festival and various other idols during Divali. Those artisans who live in villages round about the rivers Koyna and Krishna make bricks and tiles. About 2,500 artisans are engaged in this occupation. Formerly this occupation formed one of the twelve *balutas* in the rural areas. This system is now fast vanishing. Black and red clay free from stones is required to make earthen vessels, bricks and tiles. Both the type of clays and falling leaves of *pimpal* and banyan trees used for baking are available in plenty on the banks of the two rivers. Groundnut husk which is available in plenty and coke obtained from the Southern Railway stations at Wathar, Karad and Koregaon are also used in *bhattis* for baking them.

The tools of a potter consist of an earthen wheel for making vessels a brick-kiln for baking bricks, tiles and vessels and wooden moulds for making bricks. The construction of a potter's wheel is as follows: a flat piece of wood is first cut into a circular form of about eight inches in diameter and a small flat circular stone having a hollow in the middle is fixed in the centre of the piece of wood. Six thin sticks are inserted as spokes in the piece of wood which serves as the nave. Three hoops are then tied to the ends of the spokes with a thin rope and the circumference of the wheel is loaded with a mixture of clay and goat hair to make it heavy. A slant wooden peg about nine inches long is buried in the ground. A pit is filled with water and the wheel is placed on the peg which rests in the hollow of the stone fixed in the nave. The total value of a set of these tools is about Rs. 50.

These artisans produce vessels like *ranjan*, *gadgi*, *madki*, toys, tiles and bricks. A few skilled artisans produce *kundis* for gardening purposes. The cost of 10,000 bricks which are produced

Brick and Tile Industry.

by ten persons in ten days is about Rs. 330 including wages, cost of fuel, etc. Bricks are sold between Rs. 40 and 45 per 1,000. Those artisans who are *balutedars* give their products to agriculturists and in return get a fixed quantity of grains. It is a seasonal industry. In the rainy season when artisans are out of employment they take to either agriculture or do *shakarani* work (covering of roof with thatch or grass and tiles) on daily wages.

There were two potter's co-operative societies, one at Karanje and the other at Arale, both in Satara taluka. These had 62 members and Rs. 2,130 as share capital and produced bricks worth Rs. 1,255 in 1957-58.

Hand-made Paper.

There is one hand-made paper producing factory. It is situated at Ogalewadi. It produces high grade hand-made paper from cotton and hosiery rags. It was originally started at Poona and was shifted to Ogalewadi in 1949. The total investment in 1949 in buildings, plant, machinery, raw material, and goods-in-process was about Rs. 3,70,000 which rose to Rs. 5,60,000 in 1959.

The main requirements of the factory are bleached or unbleached rags of cotton and hosiery, washing soda, caustic soda, bleaching powder, sulphate of alumina, rosin, zinc oxide, etc., which are brought from Bombay.

The factory produces different kinds of hand-made paper with the help of one power plant of 100 B. H. P., beaters; rack cutting machines, vats, moulds, hydraulic press calender and paper cutting machines. The total employment in it was 150 in September 1959. An unskilled worker is paid Rs. 1·35 and skilled, Rs. 2·75 per day.

The main products are drawing paper, bond paper, air mail paper, bristle board and degree paper. It produces annually about 75 tons of high grade hand-made paper valued at Rs. 5,00,000. Originally there was no adequate market for its products and it was running at a loss. From 1955, the Khadi and Village Industries Commission is using the factory as a training centre for production of high quality hand-made paper. Since then it has received orders from various Government offices and Universities and wiped out much of its deficit.

Lack of finance and adequate supply of cotton rags at reasonable prices are the main problems faced by the factory.

Process of hand-made paper.—Cotton rags after being cut into small pieces are digested in a digester of Vomiting type and are washed in a washing machine. They are then beaten into pulp in a beater of Hollender type. The pulp is taken for making paper sheets on a semi-automatic vat. This process gives wet paper which is then pressed in a hydraulic press so as to remove water from the wet paper and then it is dried in the air. After being sized by gelatine and dried, it is calendered in a plate glazing machine and sorted and packed into moisture proof wrapping paper and sent for sale.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Carpentry.

Carpentry which formed the occupation of only Sutars in the past is now followed by communities like Marathas, Muslims, etc., who construct houses, make furniture and repair agricultural implements in rural areas. At places like Karad, Koregaon and Satara, they make carts and tongas. About 1,500 persons are engaged in this industry. Its main centres are Karad, Koregaon, Mhaswad, Satara and Vaduj.

Tools required are chisels, saw. files, plaining machines, measuring foot, hammers, etc. The whole set of tools costs about Rs. 500. Each artisan possesses one set. Teak, *babul* and *khair* wood are locally available.

Carpenter is a skilled worker who earns about Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 daily when he is engaged in construction of houses. Those who are independent workers earn about Rs. 5 each per day. In rural areas necessary wood is supplied to them when an order is placed. They undertake such work on piece rate.

Carpentry is a full time employment which keeps the artisans busy for about ten hours in a day. They usually enjoy holiday on *Amavasya*, the last day of the month. A carpenter, alongwith an assistant, produces a bullock cart within a fortnight. It is a seasonal industry which keeps the artisan busy for about eight months in a year. In the rainy season when they are unemployed, they take to farm labour.

The artisans do not require a big capital in the industry except those who are having big establishments. An average artisan requires about Rs. 400 to start with. He usually borrows the same from local money-lenders or co-operative societies.

There were two carpentry and smithy co-operative societies in 1957-58. They had 31 members and Rs. 1,250 as share-capital.

Copper and Brass works.

Tambats and Kasars were found in almost all towns in Satara district in the last century. The metal was brought from Bombay and Poona. Most of the output was sold locally and small quantity of it was sent to Bombay. Their earnings were hardly between Rs. 50 and Rs. 500 per year. During the first world war the industry received little fillip and was adversely affected during the period of the Great Depression. The Second World War did not prove to be a boon for its expansion as the domination of intermediaries and poverty of artisans came in the way of its development. The industry has remained almost static throughout the last seventy-five years.

This industry which engages about 2,000 artisans belonging to Twashtra Kasar community is mainly centred at Karad and Satara. There are about 40 small *karkhanas*, engaging about two or three artisans each. A few Marathas, Malis, Muslims have also taken up this occupation.

Brass and copper sheets are mainly used for preparing vessels. Independent artisans obtain them from Bombay at Rs. 4·12 per seer of brass plate and Rs. 4·50 per seer of copper plate. Hammers, chisels, cutters, tongs, calipers, etc., are used at tools.

Main products are brass and copper utensils, such as *ghagari, handas, lotas* and *tapelis* for domestic use. One artisan produces two *tapelis* weighing about 16 lbs. per day, the cost of which is about Rs. 29·50 nP. Those who are employed on contract take the following wages :--

(1) Rs. 4 for a *tapeli* of copper weighing eight seers.

(2) Rs. 5·50 for a *ghagar* or *handa* of copper weighing eight seers.

(3) Rs. 7 for a *ghagar* or *handa* of brass weighing eight seers.

The market for the products is Sangli, Sholapur and Mysore.

These artisans are mostly employees who produce utensils on piece rate basis or on contract basis. They do not require large capital, for the provision of raw materials is made by the merchants. Their establishments are situated at the places of their residence where both manufacturing and selling of products take place.

No co-operative societies were organised in this industry till 1958-59.

SECTION III.—LABOUR ORGANISATION.

LABOUR ORGANISATION. Trade Unions.

The district is industrially backward. Growth of industrialisation is of recent origin, mostly after the Second World War. The origin of the trade union movement can be traced to the post-war period. During this period most of the unions were organised by workers engaged in the sugar, glass and machinery manufacturing industries and those engaged in the services of local bodies. The first union was the sugar-workers' union registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in October 1948. Three more unions, one of which was a hotel keepers' association, the other a *saraf* association and the third glass-workers' union, were registered in 1952-53 and eight more during 1955-56. At the end of March 1956, there were 12 unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. The industry-wise distribution of these unions was as follows :—

One was from agriculture and allied industries, six from manufacturing industries, four from services of local bodies and one from miscellaneous group of industries. Out of the 12 unions, the registration of two was cancelled in 1956 because of failure to submit their annual accounts.

Members.

There were two registered unions in 1951-52. Their total membership was 747, out of whom 651 were males and 96 females. In 1952-53, the number of registered unions rose to four They had 2,404 members, including 2,228 males and 176 females. In 1953-54, their number was the same as in 1952-53; but their total membership increased to 4,261, including 359 females. The number of unions in 1954-55 was seven, which had 4,049 members including 331 females. Out of the ten unions in 1955-56, the membership of nine was 3,274, including 338 females.

CHAPTER 5. — Industries. LABOUR ORGANIZATION. Trade Unions. *Income of Unions.*

The main sources of income of these unions were contributions from members, donations interest on investments or funds and other miscellaneous items. During 1951-53, two unions had a total income of Rs. 4,184. The income of four unions in 1952-53 and 1953-54, was Rs. 6,268 and Rs. 12,083, respectively. In 1954-55, Rs. 18,773 was the total income of seven unions and in 1955-56, Rs. 13,961 of nine unions.

Expenditure.

The main items of expenditure of these unions were salaries paid to office-bearers, expenses incurred on legal matters, compensation paid to members and expenses incurred on items like education of children of the members of the unions, etc. The total expenditure of the two unions in 1951-52, was Rs. 6,455; of the four in 1953-54, Rs. 6,310; of the seven in 1954-55, Rs. 10,822 and of the nine in 1955-56, Rs. 23,604.

Assets and Liabilities.

The total assets of the two unions in 1951-52 were Rs. 1,854; of the four in 1953-54, Rs. 15,864; of the seven in 1954-55, Rs. 23,842; of the nine in 1955-56 Rs. 23,099. The total liabilities of the two unions in 1951-52 were Rs. 1,854; of the four in 1953-54, Rs. 15,842; of the seven in 1954-55, Rs. 23,842 and of the nine in 1955-56 Rs. 23,604. The following table shows the total number of members, total income and expenditure of these unions during 1951-52 and 1955-56:—

TABLE No. 4.

NUMBER, MEMBERSHIP, INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF TRADE UNIONS IN SATARA DISTRICT.

	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56
Number of Unions ..	2	4	4	7	7
Membership	747	2.404	4,261	4,049	3.274
Male	651	2,228	3,902	3,718	2,936
Female	96	176	359	331	338
Income (Rs.)	4,184	6,268	12,083	18,773	13,961
Expenditure (Rs.) ..	6,455	4,791	6,310	10,822	14,395
Assets (Rs.)	1,854	10,459	15,864	23,842	23,604
Liabilitis (Rs.) ..	1,854	10,459	15,864	23,842	23,604

Most of the unions were not affiliated to any organisation of an All India level.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

LABOUR ORGANIZATION.

Strikes

Two strikes were organised in 1952, which affected the sugar factory at Phaltan and glass factory at Ogalewadi. The workers in the sugar factory organised the strike for non-payment of bonus. It continued for ten days in May 1952. The total number of workers involved in it was 636, who lost 3,180 working days. The other strike organised by the glass workers ended in four hours. The total number of workers involved in it was 1,350, who lost 675 working days. The workers were unsuccessful in both these strikes. During 1953-56, 13 strikes of workers in hand-made paper industry were organised. The main demand of these workers was for payment of arrears of wages. The total number of workers involved in them was 897.

Industrial Relations.

With the enactment of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 of the Government of India, the relations between the industrial employees and employers have been precisely regulated. The Bombay Industrial Relations Act came into force on 29th September 1947, and the Industrial Disputes Act on 1st April 1947. The former Act provides for a machinery for settlement of industrial disputes either by conciliation or by arbitration and the latter by conciliation or adjudication.

The following unions were registered as representative unions under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act for the industries and local areas as shown against them :—

Name of the Union.	Industry.	Local Area.
(1) Satara Reshim Kamgar Union, Satara.	Silk.	Satara Taluka excluding village Panchayat limits of Limb.
(2) Phaltan Taluka Sakhar Kamgar Union, Phaltan.	Sugar.	Phaltan taluka.

During 1952-56, 12 cases regarding pay and allowances, one regarding bonus and two pertaining to miscellaneous causes were referred to conciliation under the Industrial Disputes Act. Of these, six were settled, one was withdrawn, three failed and five were pending. Figures regarding cases referred to conciliation under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not available.

During the same period, under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 11 cases were referred to the Industrial Court. Of them, nine were decided during the period and two were pending. No case was registered in the Industrial Court from this district under the Industrial Disputes Act during this period. Two cases pertaining to fixation of wages were received and disposed off by the Wage Board.

The Labour Welfare Board of the Government had not started labour welfare activities in any part of the district till 1957, nor was the Employees' State Insurance Scheme extended to it till then. The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, covered only five factories employing 2,125 workers.

CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE

SECTION I—BANKING AND FINANCE.

THIS CHAPTER IS DIVIDED INTO TWO PARTS. The first part, *viz.*, Banking and Finance, describes the banking and financial institutions in Satara district in their historical and structural aspects. As such, this section gives narration of indigenous banking, joint stock banking, co-operative finance and the state of indebtedness in this district. The second part, *viz.*, Trade and Commerce, is devoted to the analysis of the historical and structural aspects of trade and commerce in the district. It also describes the extent and volume of import and export trade, wholesale trade, regulation of agricultural marketing, co-operative marketing and the various agencies engaged in trade and commerce.

The present section gives a brief account of the functional aspects of the various economic and credit institutions obtaining in the field of finance. The latter include the money-lender, the co-operative societies, the commercial banks, the joint-stock companies, the Life Insurance Corporation and many other agencies directly undertaken, controlled or regulated by the Government. These institutions are important in the sense that to a very large extent the material prosperity and economic advance of the district depend upon the successful operation of these institutions or agencies.

The recent years have witnessed some remarkable changes in the field of finance of the district largely affecting its economy. The age-old institution of money-lenders which was the prominent source of credit to a large section of the people—especially the agricultural population, is fast losing ground and is being replaced by the modern organised banking system. Many governmental agencies are coming forth to extend financial assistance in the agricultural and industrial spheres of the district. Co-operative movement, too, has spread far and wide and has touched most of the economic activities of the people. Mention must be made especially of the Large-Sized Multipurpose Societies formed by the amalgamation of the small units or societies, which have made possible the organisation of co-operative movement on a sound footing and a great expansion of its activities. No study of finance would be complete without the analysis of these major changes which have taken place in the financial institutions of the district.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.

With Independence, the Government began to take active interest in public affairs. New policies were chalked out, new laws were administered, and new schemes were brought out—all with a view to enhance public welfare. This sort of increasing intervention of the Government into public life resulted in a gradual expansion of the public sector and a simultaneous shrinkage of activities in the private sector. These manifold changes, significant as they are, not only affected the size and structure of the credit institutions functioning in the district but also affected and regulated the conditions of their working.

Money-lenders.

The section describes in detail all these changes in the financial set-up of the district as well as gives an account of some of the schemes recently introduced by the Government to augment its financial resources such as the small savings movement, which was started with a view to secure whole-hearted co-operation from the people to build up a mighty reserve out of the petty savings of the individual citizens which usually go unattended and the establishment of the Life Insurance Corporation consequent upon the nationalisation of the insurance business in the year 1956.

Towards the end of the last century the only institution carrying on financial operations was that of money-lenders. This age-old institution served a very useful purpose by catering to the financial needs of urban and rural population of the district. The old District Gazetteer of the Satara District describes their functions in the following manner.

Of all forms of investment, money-lending is the commonest. Money-lending is practised in different degrees by members of almost every class.

The leading professional money-lenders are Brahmans, Gujarat Vanis, Marwar Vanis, Jains, Lingayats, Marathas and Musalmans. Few live solely by money-lending. The Brahmans are husbandmen, land proprietors, traders, and to a small extent, pensioned Government servants and pleaders. A few of them have large capital and combine money-lending with trade as their chief calling

Gujarat, Lingayat and Marwar Vani money-lenders are mostly traders and in some cases land-holders.

Classes of Money-lenders.

Professional money-lenders may roughly be arranged under three chief classes—large, middle and small. The first or the substantial banker or *savkar* carries on a considerable business in bills or *hundis* and is careful to make advances only to persons of substance and on good security. The large land-holders are often hopelessly in debt to large money-lenders.

The second or middle class of lenders forms the greater portion of the most respectable lenders of the present day. They are those who, with no great capital, lend money in smaller sums and at higher rates than the first class but still carefully and on good security and who are glad to avoid the courts. This class in most cases keeps the day-book and ledger.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.
Classes of Money-lenders.

The third class of small lenders have little or no capital. They borrow from wealthy firms and lend small sums to poor borrowers at extremely high rates. Lenders of this class keep the most meagre accounts. Their transactions are on mortgage, personal security and pawn. All of their agreements are on the hardest terms as the security is generally doubtful. Besides, debtors are tied down to the creditors and can seldom afford to be dishonest.

In fixing the terms of a loan every circumstance in the case has its weight.

According to the returns received, on easily convertible moveable property and on good landed security, large sums were borrowed at six to twelve per cent. a year. For smaller sums and in ordinary pawn transactions the rate increases to eighteen per cent. In transactions on personal security a well-to-do borrower may raise a loan as cheaply as at nine per cent. On the other hand, hardly any limit can be set to what a destitute borrower may have to pay. On unsecured debts a husbandman of scanty means has generally to pay twenty-four to 37½ or even forty per cent.

As in old days, there are few people who do money-lending as their sole business. Many of the shop-keepers and merchants who are generally Gujaratis, Jains or Vanis, advance sums on interest. Money-lending therefore, has always been found combined with some other business.

The influence of money-lenders has been undermined by a number of economic developments during the inter-war period and after. With the emergence of modern banking organisations and the spread of the co-operative movement, the importance of money-lenders has diminished considerably. The scope of money-lenders' activities was further restricted when with a view to relieving the agriculturists from their ancestral debts and the harassments by money-lenders, the Government enacted laws bringing the money-lenders under their purview. Financial assistance to agriculturists by the Government was also responsible to a certain extent in ebbing the importance of money-lenders.

Despite the fact that the importance of money-lenders has been continuously on the decline since the Second War, it cannot be denied that they still occupy a dominant position in the over-all credit structure of our country, especially in its rural parts. According to the "*Rural Credit Survey Report*" (published in 1954) of the Reserve Bank of India, the private agencies taken together supplied about 93 per cent. of the total credit requirements of the cultivators, of which money-lenders accounted for more than 70 per cent

The money-lenders' class is different from that of indigenous bankers. The money-lender does not accept deposits from the public, is not particular about the purpose for which the loan is contracted and does not insist upon security unlike the indigenous banker. His methods of lending money are quite simple and flexible and are easily understood by the people.

CHAPTER 6.
—
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.

Broadly these money-lenders can be placed into two categories—the town money-lender and the village money-lender. The field of operation of the former is larger than that of the latter. His clients are mainly petty merchants, workers and salaried employees and occasionally small industrialists. The village money-lender, on the other hand, advances loans usually to agriculturists.

Classes of Money-lenders.

It is no doubt true that the money-lenders as a class are of immense use to the rural community in the sense that they meet with their credit needs. However, the methods they adopted in recovering their dues from their clients were harsh and coercive. The demands for advance interest from the clients, and for a present for doing business known as *girah kholai* (purse opening), deceiving the clients into giving thumb impressions on a blank paper with a view to inserting any arbitrary amount at any date if the debtor became irregular in the payment of interest, general manipulation of the account to the disadvantage of the debtor, insertion in written document of sums considerably in excess of money actually lent, and taking of conditional sale deeds in order to provide against possible evasion of payment,—these and such other malpractices were extremely harassing to the clients.

Money-lenders' Act of 1946.

In order to check such malpractices of money-lenders and relieve the agriculturists from their clutches the then Bombay State passed on the 17th September 1947 an Act known as the Money-lenders' Act of 1946.

Under the provisions of this Act the State Government is authorised to appoint Registrar General, Registrars and Assistant Registrars of Money-lenders for the purposes of the Act and to define areas of duties. Licensing and maintaining of cash-book and ledger in a prescribed form and manner was made compulsory to the money-lenders. The latter were further prohibited from molestation of a debtor while recovering loans. Molestation, in fact, was treated as an offence and was to be penalised. Arrest and imprisonment of a debtor who personally cultivates land and whose debts do not exceed Rs. 15,000 were also prohibited.

This act was subsequently amended, the important amendments being the introduction of forms 4-A and 5-A and Pass Book system, provision of calculating interest on *katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit quarterly statements of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a cognisable offence. In 1956, special measures were adopted for protecting Backward Class people. The Registrars and Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking up accounts of money lenders in respect of their transactions with Backward Class people.

Steps were also taken to induce money-lenders to advance more sums or to call forth capital that was shy due to a number of Acts passed restricting to a certain extent the activities of the money-lenders in favour of the debtors. The structure of interest rates, too,

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.
Money-lenders' Act of 1946.

was raised and came into operation on 5th July 1952. Accordingly, the maximum rates of interest were raised from six per cent. to nine per cent. per annum on secured loans and from nine per cent. to twelve per cent. per annum on unsecured loans. In addition, money-lenders were allowed to charge a minimum interest of rupee one per debtor per year if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee.

Before the Money-lenders' Act of 1946 came into operation there was no law nor executive effort on the part of Government to assess the amount of money advanced as loan by the creditors. It is only after the Act was passed that maintenance of accounts and registers became obligatory on the money-lenders. A systematic account of their advances is, therefore, available only since 1947. The following table gives the financial transactions of money-lenders since that year :—

CHAPTER 6.
—
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.

TABLE No. 1.

TRANSACTIONS OF MONEY-LENDERS FROM 1947-48 TO 1957-58, DISTRICT SATARA.

Period.	Loans to Money-lenders not exempted under section No. 22.	Loans to Traders by Money-lenders exempted under Section 22.	Loans to non-traders by		Total Columns 2 and 4.	Total of Columns 3 and 5.	Total of Columns 6 and 7.
			Money-lenders not exempted under section 22	Money-lenders exempted under section 22.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1947 to 48 ..	1,59,729	22,35,667	4,07,207	2,09,879	5,66,936	24,45,546	30,12,482
1948 to 49 ..	3,33,498	30,73,571	4,93,574	1,87,107	8,27,072	32,60,678	40,87,750
1949 to 50 .	7,32,776	33,05,515	3,67,046	12,37,270	10,99,822	45,42,785	56,42,607
1950 to 51 ..	6,35,447	29,56,893	6,19,946	15,87,883	12,55,393	45,44,776	57,00,189
1951 to 52 .	...	..	.	.	....	....	....
1952 to 53 ..	7,64,907	11,66,011	12,42,694	10,29,103	20,07,601	21,95,114	42,02,715
1953 to 54 .	6,76,613	6,38,118	11,02,173	4,85,722	17,78,786	11,23,840	29,02,626
1954 to 55 ..	8,14,148	.	13,50,385	74,433	21,64,534	74,433	22,38,967
1955 to 56 ..	4,42,275	...	12,95,170	12,215	17,37,445	12,215	17,49,660
1956 to 57 ..	...		....	.		....	....
1957 to 58 ..	.... 6,09,179*		.... 21,33,694* ...		.	...	27,42,873

*Separate figures are not available.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.
Money-lenders' Act of 1946.

The table indicates some of the broad trends of the money-lenders' business in the Satara district since the Money-lenders' Act came into operation. In the first instance, it will be seen that the total amount of money advanced by the money-lenders shows every year considerable increase from 1947-48 to 1950-51. Thereafter, there is a general decline in the total amount of advances with slight variations from year to year. The fall continues till 1957-58 when, again, a considerable rise is to be seen in the total sum lent. Taking into consideration the fact that the number of money-lenders in the district has risen, although gradually, during recent years, this sum does not show any great improvement over former years. In a number of cases we do not find any rise in the amounts of loans advanced individually.

Secondly, there appears to be a definite decline in the sums lent to the farmers. This decline in the total amounts can be traced to the fact that many of them have benefited through the liberal assistance of State in the form of "Tagai" or help to grow more food.

Thirdly, loans advanced to traders do not show any increase. This might be due to the stringency of the rules under which money-lenders have to advance loans.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.

Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.—Even before the Money-lenders' Act was passed, the Government had brought into operation on a small scale the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, 1939. It was enacted with a view to reducing the aggregate indebtedness of genuine agriculturists so as to bring it reasonably within the compass of their capacity to repay. The term "agriculturist" as defined in the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act, 1879, which, too, had been enacted to deal with the problem of agricultural indebtedness, was found to be actually bringing into its fold not only genuine agriculturists of the cultivator class, but also *pseudo*-agriculturists. Under the term "debtor" as defined in the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act, the indebted person must be a holder of land and must also be cultivating land personally. Further his income from sources other than agriculture should not exceed a certain maximum limit. Income from land got cultivated by tenants was to be regarded as non-agricultural income under the Act.

The above Act was first applied to one or two selected talukas of a few districts of the State, in 1942. In the light of its working in those areas, the Act was amended in 1945, and was applied to selected talukas of all districts except Bombay Suburban District, and from February 1947, it was applied to the whole of the State. In 1947, it was once again amended to introduce radical changes, one of which was the transfer of the administration to Civil Courts.

The application of the Act has been restricted to debts not exceeding Rs. 15,000 in any individual case. The rate of interest in case of awards should not exceed 6 per cent. per annum or such less rate as may be notified in that behalf by the State Government or the rate agreed upon between the parties when the debt was originally incurred or the rate allowed by the decree in respect of such debts, whichever is

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act.

the lowest. For the co-operative years 1948-49 and 1949-50 (July to June), Government had fixed 4 per cent. per annum as the rate of interest for the purposes of awards passed under section 32 (2). In the case of awards passed in favour of land mortgage banks under section 33, the bank is entitled to recover the amount due to it from the debtor together with interest at such rate not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum as the State Government may notify in that behalf. Government had fixed 6 per cent. per annum as the rate of interest for the co-operative years 1948-49 and 1949-50 for the purposes of and award made under section 33 (3) of the Act.

Co-operative Movement.

The co-operative movement in this district had attained considerable importance during recent years on account of its numerous activities, such as extension of agricultural credit, reorganisation of agriculture, processing and marketing of agricultural produce, sale of agricultural and domestic requisites, organisation of subsidiary industries and formation of unions by producers or suppliers of various commodities. Activities for the welfare of backward classes have also been brought within the co-operative fold. The co-operative movement, in other words, envisages the growth of agricultural co-operative credit societies, multi-purpose societies, land-mortgage banks, non-agricultural credit societies such as urban co-operative banks, salary earners' society and a district central co-operative bank. The following pages review the evolution, the functioning and the progress of these societies in the district.

The co-operative movement started in this district at the beginning of the present century when in 1907, the first Agricultural Credit Society, was registered at the village Bodhe in Man taluka. Since then the principle of the movement gradually gained popularity with social workers and rural masses and similar societies were registered in various parts of the district. In early days of their existence the societies had no share capital; they were run mainly on the funds collected from the members by way of savings and deposits. As there was no financial agency to supplement the funds of societies, the deposits had added significance. For, the movement had to rely upon local savings and restrict its activity to the provision of credit to the needy agriculturists. Growing needs of agricultural finance and the realisation on the part of the people of the importance of forming societies on a co-operative basis, led to the development of a new outlook towards them. Consequently, the co-operative societies had to undergo changes as regards their legislation as well as their structure. Accordingly, the system of share capital was introduced. At the same time two central financing agencies—the North Satara Central Co-operative Bank and Shri Laxmi Central Co-operative Bank—were formed and co-operatives with limited liability and with the object other than provision of credit (such as supervision, education, supply of agricultural requirements, etc.) came into existence. In the beginning the idea of single-purpose society was predominant and in order to keep the members in close touch with each other's needs and affairs, society was allowed to enroll more than hundred members. It is for this

reason that in some villages we still find a number of societies only undertaking the supply of agricultural credit.

The idea of a single-purpose society being predominant the necessity of organising other societies serving entirely a different end was felt by the people, with the result that different kinds of societies such as Sale and Supply Societies, Better Farming and Better Living Societies Taluka Development Boards, etc. were formed. Similarly, in due course of time, Supervising and Marketing Societies of a federal type working at taluka levels came into existence. Gradually, however, the idea of single-purpose societies gave way, having lost its significance to that of the multi-purpose society. This has revolutionised functioning of the societies and changed them from purely credit supplying societies to service organisations.

The history stated above will help understand the present structure and development of the co-operative organisations and the significance of new trends visible in their operations. The progress of the movement was slow till the year 1945, whereafter it accelerated as could be seen from Tables No. 3 and 4 to follow.

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.

These societies form the corner-stone of the co-operative movement as the development of the movement in all other fields depends upon their efficiency and successful working. A large number of these societies are organised in rural areas. The societies are engaged in the supply of short-term and intermediate-term (i.e., not exceeding five years) finance to agriculturists. The area of operation of such a society is usually a large village, although in some cases smaller villages where it is not possible to organise separate societies are also included in its jurisdiction. Membership of these societies is open to all residents of that area on certain conditions. The societies function under the principle of unlimited liability.

Funds.

The societies raise their funds in any or all of the following ways :—

(*a*) by entrance fees; (*b*) by issue of shares; (*c*) by receiving deposits from (*i*) members or (*ii*) non-members residing within the area of operation of the society, (*d*) by raising loans and overdrafts from other co-operative credit societies or from financing institutions; (*e*) by donations. The face value of each share is generally Rs. 5 and the maximum number of shares a member is allowed to hold must not exceed 600. The societies accept savings deposits and fixed deposits of a duration of not less than six months. The rate of interest is approved by the financing agency.

Nature of loans.

The societies grant short-term and intermediate-term loans for agricultural as well as domestic purposes. Short-term loans are granted for meeting expenses on seed. manure, working capital, etc. Intermediate term loans are granted for purchase of bullock carts, iron implements, etc. and for the payment of old debts and works of land improvement. The loans are granted for a period of five years.

CHAPTER 6.
—
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Co-operative Movement.
Nature of loans.

The rate of interest charged by agricultural co-operative credit societies depends upon their financial position as well as on the rate of interest at which they borrow from the financing agency. The rate of interest charged in 1960 was 6¼ per cent.

There were 576 agricultural credit societies in 1960 in this district with a membership of 65,790 and Rs. 1,02,31,901 as working capital These societies also include multi-purpose societies in the district.

During recent years agricultural credit societies or village primaries (as they are called) are being converted into multi-purpose societies with the object of making them broad-based so as to enable them to cater to the multifarious needs of the members. Since the implementation of the pilot scheme the process of conversion of these societies into large-sized multi-purpose societies received an impetus and many new multi-purpose societies are formed either anew or by amalgamating weak and uneconomic units.

The multi-purpose societies serve the rural sector in many ways In addition to the supply of finance, they also undertake various activities for the betterment of the village populace such as providing pure and improved seeds and agricultural implements, effecting consolidation of holdings, marketing the produce of the members, etc.

TABLE No. 2.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (UNLIMITED).

Year.	Number of Societies with membership in brackets	Loans made during the year to		Loans due by			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		
		Individuals	Banks and Societies.	Individuals	Of which overdue.	Banks and Societies.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1938-39	192 (11,497)	2,05,819	..	17,35,462	13,07,656	....	2,34,790	1,53,328	6,766
1939-40	328 (16,999)	6,83,313	....	21,00,997	8,88,018	6,430	1,97,214	1,43,827	6,644
1940-41	329 (16,881)	9,51,516	6,278	21,58,325	8,92,406	8,177	1,85,580	1,34,521	9,896
1945-46	403 (19,285)	8,85,702	...	15,58,673	5,40,049	3,234	1,78,791	1,30,640	4,286
1946-47	423 (21,015)	11,99,121	...	17,60,979	6,29,308	...	2,04,515	1,53,606	20,139
1947-48	455 (22,838)	13,71,999	...	19,31,842	6,03,085	....	1,92,355	1,35,071	13,371
1948-49	260 (13,661)	6,07,500	150	7,37,571	2,08,900	150	90,557	13,463	1,479
1950-51	377 (21,911)	16,27,443	...	16,57,873	5,89,400	....	1,09,676	30,033	1,08,090
1951-52	393 (23,869)	17,08,48	..	21,97,897	9,86,888	...	19,556	12,713	32,134
1952-53	401 (24,909)	19,35,747	.	26,76,762	11,39,130	...	1,04,378	21,229	1,947
1953-54	410 (26,099)	18,75,268	...	28,36,034	11,69,355	...	94,546	16,963	5,292
1954-55	429 (27,263)	14,63,565	..	28,85,011	14,07,083	...	1,00,436	13,280	11,266
1955-56	425 (28,561)	30,71,089	..	36,68,128	13,76,309	..	97,822	15,759	11,021
1956-57	423 (30,022)	30,07,503	...	39,65,464	16,89,819	...	85,445	18,942	24,054

Note.—The date for the years 1941-42 to 1944-45 and for 1949-50 was not available.

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Co-operative Movement.

TABLE No. 3.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (LIMITED).

Year.	Number of Societies with membership in brackets.	Loans made during the year to		Loans due by			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		
		Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks and Societies.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1938-39	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1939-40	13 (404)	2,030	....	2,030	....	....	383	400	....
1940-41	13 (485)	17,649	....	12,771	932	....	531	2,319	....
1945-46	35 (4,012)	23,068	....	26,669	8,357	....	18,470	2,656	2,074
1946-47	41 (5,041)	19,212	....	31,044	14,439	....	37,851	13,302	1,038
1947-48	48 (5,433)	74,905	....	59,220	12,067	....	11,968	7,679	930
1948-49	64 (8,827)	73,809	....	63,546	18,211	....	53,013	17,013	4,091
1950-51	74 (10,654)	1,79,318	....	1,75,177	47,603	....	15,986	12,177	19,010
1951-52	76 (10,854)	2,90,674	....	2,35,103	1,06,430	....	19,556	12,713	32,134
1952-53	76 (11,109)	3,73,448	....	4,18,385	1,33,454	....	10,813	3,882	9,613
1953-54	82 (11,800)	3,47,261	....	5,08,752	2,30,580	....	12,576	5,773	17,750
1954-55	87 (12,395)	2,26,094	....	4,65,368	2,82,081	....	14,073	2,833	21,752
1955-56	89 (17,748)	6,65,650	....	7,80,985	4,06,314	....	14,036	5,729	22,866
1956-57	92 (13,236)	6,69,970	....	8,40,012	3,99,600	....	19,676	4,474	17,478

Note.—The data for the years 1941-42 to 1944-45 and for 1949-50 was not available.

The total amount of liability a multi-purpose society can incur is calculated from the amount of its actual liability, deducting therefrom a sum equal to amounts, which it borrows from a central financing agency on the security of agricultural produce.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

The village primaries and multi-purpose societies together serve as many as 1,152 villages and 15 towns. That is to say they cover 92 per cent. of the target figure fixed under the Second Five-Year Plan. In terms of agricultural population these societies cover about 36·5 per cent. of the cultivating population. The accompanying tables indicate the progress made by these societies in the Satara district.

Land Mortgage Banks.

Land mortgage banks are specially organised and equipped to perform the essential function of providing long-term credit to the cultivator. The area of operation of such a bank is generally a district or a part thereof not smaller than a taluka. The main purposes for which banks advance loans are debt redemption, adoption of improved methods of cultivation, purchases of land for development and its improvement, installation and purchase of costly agricultural plant and machinery. Loans of not less than Rs. 400 and not more than Rs 1,500 are given to an individual for a definite object, subject in every case to the sanction of the State Co-operative Bank. Loans are granted against the security of landed property. The land offered in mortgage by the applicant should be of his absolute ownership, free from prior encumbrances and not subject to any restrictions and alienations. Loans are given upto 50 per cent. of the value of immovable property mortgaged to the bank. The period of repayment of loan varies from five years to twenty years.

The Satara District Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., Karad, is the only land mortgage bank which is at present catering to the long-term requirements of the whole district. The bank operates both in Satara and Sangli districts. The table No. 4 indicates the operations of this bank for the years 1945-46 to 1955-56

During 1958-59, total loans to the extent of Rs. 6,72,150 were disbursed to 362 applicants for the following purpose :—

		Rs.
(1)	Redemption of old debts	2,45,000
(2)	Purchase of lands . ..	37,000
(3)	Purchase of machinery	1,05,800
(4)	Improvement of land	65,700
(5)	Construction and repairs of wells ..	2,19,950
	Total .	6,73,450

TABLE No. 4.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF LAND MORTGAGE BANK

Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to		Loans made at the end of the year by			Paid-up Share Capital.	Loans from	
			Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks and Societies.		Individuals.	Banks and Societies.
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1945-46	1	2,024	28,750	...	3,36,780	....	5,916	40,645	...	3,13,513
1946-47	1	2,021	28,500	....	3,33,502	....	7,169	41,015	....	3,10,436
1947-48	1	2,073	22,700	....	3,27,952	....	8,162	41,285	....	3,00,708
1950-51	2	2,950	2,21,070	....	6,88,435	22,396	....	58,321	1,01,338	....
1951-52	2	1,253	2,19,320	....	8,90,756	28,495	....	68,095	....	....
1952-53	2	3,593	1,68,685	...	9,65,950	37,999	....	74,725	....	....
1953-54	2	3,961	1,77,536	....	10,74,202	42,233	....	83,065	....	....
1954-55	2	4,728	3,08,200	....	13,21,062	55,746	....	1,00,285	1,836	12,853
1955-56	2	5,304	2,84,950	....	15,13,793	64,707	....	1,12,605	25,109	6,703

Note.—The data for the years 1948-49 and 1949-50 was not available.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Co-operative Movement.
Non-Agricultural Credit Societies.

This group of societies forms an important part of the co-operative movement and is almost equal in magnitude and importance to the group of Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies. It consists of urban banks, salary earners' societies and factory workers' societies.

The area of operation of a society of this type is usually restricted to a town or a part of a town or even a factory or a department. Membership is open to all persons, residing within the area of operation and the liability of members is limited. No person, however, can become a member of more than one society, without the sanction of the Registrar or Assistant Registrar. Capital is raised by issue of shares, accepting deposits on current, savings and fixed accounts and borrowing from the Central Financing Agency. The limit to outside borrowing is restricted to eight times the paid-up share capital plus the accumulated reserves and building fund minus the accumulated losses. The following table will give an idea of the progress made by this class of societies.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Co-operative Movement.

TABLE No. 5.

SATARA DISTRICT – STATISTICS AND WORKING OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES (UNLIMITED).

Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the the year to.		Loans due by			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from.		
			Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1938-39 ..	3	334	7,987	....	31,364	19,343	....	4,853	....	....
1939-40 ..	3	304	10,520	....	33,747	17.567	....	9,911	16,100	....
1940-41 ..	3	307	10,915	....	37,771	14,460	....	10,411	16,100	....
1945-46 ..	3	318	12,949	....	33,349	16,208	....	11,529	3,805	....
1946-47 ..	3	277	12,199	....	34,256	17,659	....	11,561	....	....
1947-48 ..	4	364	13.818	....	36,295	23,020	....	13,640	2	....
1948-49 ..	3	334	15,560	....	34,816	17,648	....	14,784	6,440	....
1950-51 ..	3	349	15,930	....	37,979	10,829	....	14,167	....	....
1951-52 ..	3	362	20,810	....	42,307	20,780	....	17,711	....	....
1952-53 ..	3	368	26,945	....	47,262	16,039	....	20,130	....	....
1953-54 ..	3	382	33,500	....	49,817	18,128	....	22,352	....	....
1954-55 ..	3	343	4,850	....	7,807	3,047	....	23,906	....	....
1955-56 ..	3	355	54,571	....	57,733	16,116	....	15,196	....	....
1956-57 ..	41	14,054	98,81,207		42,71,504	4,75,573	....	19,31,699	27,71,584	....

Note.—The data for the years 1941-42 to 1944-45 and for 1949-50 was not available.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Co-operative Movement.

TABLE No. 6.

SATARA DISTRICT — STATISTICS OF WORKING OF URBAN BANKS.

Year.	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.	Loans made during the year to		Loans due by			Loans and Deposits held at the end of the year from		
			Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Individuals.	Of which overdue.	Banks.	Members.	Non-members.	Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1938-39	7	4,196	10,38,545	....	7,38,521	1,89,152	...	3,02,005	3,52,056	....
1939-40	7	3,750	1,09,770	....	7,29,288	1,26,271	....	2,68,784	2,75,298	....
1940-41	4	1,544	7,13,083	..	4,38,094	1,18,181	....	2,27,866	2,94,093	....
1945-46	8	5,096	40,78,749	80,393	15,43,601	63,901	....	13,26,839	16,09,499	..
1946-47	9	4,525	50,94,593	....	15,71,041	52,175	....	13,04,639	17,68,939	....
1947-48	9	5,756	67,82,826	....	2,30,636	1,05,403	....	13,22,293	17,16,405	....
1948-49	5	4,400	66,23,669	....	21,55,911	96,069	....	11,04,959	17,07,876	....
1950-51	5	4,700	57,26,442	....	22,75,253	1,93,590	....	9,27,262	20,96,705	....
1951-52	4	3,529	47,23,203	....	17,85,610	2,37,922	....	8,63,083	19,57,765	....
1952-53	4	3,614	60,73,034	....	18,88,842	2,36,460	....	9,60,600	20,06,739	....
1953-54	5	4,965	64,22,267	....	23,04,604	2,59,779	....	11,08,092	20,08,083	....
1954-55	5	4,381	64,84,433	....	23,59,380	2,96,322	....	13,93,862	22,45,133	....
1955-56	76	5,539	93,75,996	...	27,76,292	3,76,000	....	14,89,532	24,91,611	....
1956-57	4	3,085	74,69,033	....	25,21,111	3,66,479	....	14,73,563	26,28,372	....

Note.—The data for the years 1941-42 to 1944-45 and for 1949-50 was not available.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Central Financing Agencies.

There are at present two central financing agencies operating in Satara district. The first is the Satara District Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Satara, registered in 1951. It has got seven branches in the district. The bank operates for the whole district except for the Phaltan taluka. The other bank is Shri Laxmi Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Phaltan. Its area of operation is restricted only to Phaltan taluka. The following table gives the operations of these two banks in the district.

TABLE No. 7.

STATISTICS AND WORKING OF THE CENTRAL FINANCING AGENCIES.
DISTRICT SATARA.

Year.	Number of Members.		Loans advanced during the year.		Loans due by—			Loans and Deposits held at the close of the year from—		
	Individuals.	Societies.	Individuals.	Societies.	Individuals.	Banks and Societies.	Of which overdue.	Individuals and other sources.	Central provincial and other banks.	Primary Societies.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1950-51 ..	3,736	351	7,84,545	26,76,047	6,88,447	11,09,755	2,40,434	15,04,323	....	4,26,065
1951-52 ..	2,340	415	2,80,441	25,22,642	6,33,683	11,53,464	2,41,475	16,94,462	....	4,90,884
1952-53 ...	2,646	447	6,08,963	28,95,068	7,15,931	11,98,521	6,08,711	17,64,308	....	4,81,787
1953-54 ..	3,198	525	12,83,555	39,48,435	10,14,602	24,07,598	4,89,654	30,39,302	....	9,43,111
1954-55 ..	4,748	588	10,18,785	29,46,512	8,56,467	20,82,927	6,20,747	37,67,501	....	13,13,964
1955-56 ..	6,524	622	38,04,985	44,61,117	14,75,999	31,94,460	3,36,818	43,70,645	....	17,77,106
1956-57 ..	8,277	634	28,82,224	44,66,072	15,38,451	32,13,116	11,10,152	49,40,390	....	14,36,071

CHAPTER 6. — Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Co-operative Movement.

A perusal of the above figures shows that the membership of the banks has registered a steady growth in respect of individuals and societies. The paid-up share capital and reserve fund also show considerable rise over previous years. During recent years the Central Financing Agencies have been in a position to make profits. The Agencies, however, are unable to cope up with private and government agencies in tapping deposits from the people under the second Five-Year Plan. The agencies have been entrusted with the responsibility of meeting the growing needs of agriculturists in respect of finance, but it is not found to be an easy task by them.

Miscellaneous Societies.

The following types of societies have been grouped under this category :—

(1) Better Living Societies.

(2) Education Societies.

(3) Transport Societies.

(4) Other Societies.

Better Living Societies.

The main object of these societies is to promote healthy atmosphere by encouraging sanitary habits among the members, to raise their cultural level, to promote peace by settlement of mutual disputes and to inculcate in them saving habits. The ultimate goal of these societies is to improve the financial position of their members and raise their standard of living. At present there are two societies of this type in the district with 89 members and working capital of Rs. 630. As these societies are not getting better response and co-operation from their members they have become almost stagnant.

Education Societies.

There are at present two education societies in the district—one in the Koregaon Division and the other in the Satara Division. Like all charitable institutions these societies are run not on share capital but on the subscriptions paid by their members. In the absence of share capital the societies are unable to get financial accommodation from the Central Financing Agencies. The societies at present have a membership of 47, Rs. 6,539 as reserve and other funds and Rs. 6,593 as working capital. Like the above type of societies these societies have become almost stagnant (exactly for the same reasons).

Transport Societies.

There is only one society of this type in the district with a membership of 24. Its purpose is to facilitate better transport in the district. The paid-up share capital of the society is Rs. 600; while the working capital is Rs. 892.

Co-operative Activities for Welfare of Backward Classes.

In addition to the Housing Societies there are a number of credit societies operating to attain the welfare of Backward classes.

Pilot Paddy Scheme.

Government sanctioned the Pilot Paddy Scheme for intensive cultivation in paddy area in this district at an estimated cost of Rs. 58,620 for executing the scheme. Accordingly the scheme was taken up for implementation in April 1958. The area selected for the

Paddy Scheme consists of seven talukas covering 473 villages as shown below :—

Serial No.	Name of Taluka.	No. of Villages.
1	Patan	178
2	Javli	127
3	Wai	46
4	Satara	56
5	Mahabaleshwar	52
6	Khandala	6
7	Karad	8
	Total ..	473

The special features of the scheme are as follows :—

(1) Financial help to the paddy growers and to the societies, (2) Supply of fertilisers to paddy growers, (3) Technical help regarding Japanese method of paddy cultivation, etc.

The finance required for paddy cultivation is being provided to cultivators entirely through co-operative societies functioning in the village under the Paddy Scheme. The societies are financed by the Central Financing Agency of the District *viz.*, the District Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Satara. With a view to inducing the Co-operative Central Bank to grant crop finance to paddy growers. Government has given a guarantee upto 50 per cent. of losses in individual cases and upto 50 per cent. of the total outstandings of the Co-operative Central Bank for the loans granted under the scheme. The normal scale of crop finance is Rs. 73 per acre. This is given both in cash as well as in kind.

Members who have been granted loans under the scheme are expected to transfer to the societies for sale at least 10 Bengali Maunds per acre, at the existing rate, towards the repayment of loans along with the interest chargeable at the rate of 7·50 per cent. The procedure can only be adopted if waterproof and rat-proof godowns are constructed by the Central Societies. The societies at Patan and Bahule have constructed such godowns.

The following table indicates the financial operations of the societies made under the scheme during the year 1958-59.

TABLE No. 8.

Name of the Taluka.	Loans Disbursed. In Kind.	Loans Disbursed. In Cash.	Total.	Loans recovered upto 1958-59.	Percentage.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Patan ..	61,251	26,972	88,223	85,332	96·7
Satara ..	14,203	4,751	18,954	18,742	98 8
Javli ..	17,236	4.030	21,266	20,422	96·0
Wai ..	18,923	6,206	25,129	24,181	96·2
Mahabaleshwar.	13,533	3,046	15,581	16,456	99·2

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Joint Stock Banks.

Till the beginning of the present century there was not a single banking organisation in the Satara district. The first bank to be established at Satara was the Satara Swadeshi Commercial Bank, Ltd. It was established on the 20th August, 1907. Since that date there was a gradual development of banking organisations in the district. At present (i.e., by the end of 1958) there are fourteen joint-stock banks in this district. Out of them eight are the branch-offices of the banks which have got their registered offices outside the district. The names of all the banks in the district, their location and the years of their establishment are given below :—

Name of the Bank.	Location.	Year of Establishment.
The State Bank of India ..	.. Satara	.. 1956
The State Bank of India ..	.. Phaltan	..
The State Bank of India ..	.. Karad	..
The United Western Bank of India, Ltd.	.. Satara	.. 1936
The United Western Bank of India, Ltd.	. Lonand	.. 1954
The United Western Bank of India, Ltd.	.. Phaltan	.. 1958
The Bank of Karad .	.. Karad	.. 1946
The Bank of Karad ..	.. Satara	.. 1951
The Phaltan Bank, Ltd. ..	.. Phaltan	.. 1918
The Satara Swadeshi Commercial Bank, Ltd. ..	Satara	.. 1907
The Bank of Aundh, Ltd. ..	.. Aundh	.. 1938
The Bank of Aundh, Ltd. ..	.. Ogalewadi	..
The Sangli Bank, Ltd. ..	.. Karad	..
The New Citizen Bank of India ..	.. Lonand	..

All these banks including the State Bank of India provide the usual banking facilities to the public including the financing of trade and agriculture and storage and movement of agricultural produce. Besides these banks, there are several urban co-operative banks which operate in the district. But the facilities afforded by them are limited. The Satara District Central Co-operative Bank which was established in 1951, confines its activities to the co-operative field.

The main object of many of the joint-stock banks such as the Bank of Aundh or the Bank of Phaltan is to encourage the habit of banking especially in rural area and to cater to the needs of the public through its offices. The branches of the banks, are situated in the rural parts of the district that are financially very poor.

State Bank of India

The State Bank of India was established quite recently in this district. At present it has three branches at the important towns *viz* Satara, Karad and Phaltan. The State Bank undertakes the usual banking business. But as an agent to the Reserve Bank of India it also conducts Government business and affords remittance and exchange facilities to local banks and the public.

Other Banks.

The following tables reveal the financial operations of various joint-stock banks in the Satara district.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Joint Stock Banks.
Other Banks.

TABLE No. 9.

OWNERSHIP OF DEPOSITS FOR THE YEAR 1957.

Deposits of	Rs. 50,000 and above.		Between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000.		Between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.	
	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.
A. Fixed Deposits.								
1. Business	....	....	11	2,06,100	2	17,300	6	11,800
2. Personal	....	....	57	8,71,900	184	10,44,200	522	8,93,901
3. Public Institutions and Trusts ..	1	55,000	1	37,000	1	5,501	2	4,000
4. Others	....	....	4	69,000	1	8,000	8	20,500
Total ..	1	55,000	73	11,84,000	188	10,75,001	538	9,30,201
B. Current Account Deposits.								
1. Manufacturing Concerns ..	2	3,74,000	....	....	1	8,800	14	25,400
2. Trading Concerns	....	....	7	83,900	10	50,700	17	24,800
3. Personal	....	....	6	87,396	9	60,874	105	1,70,207
4. Banking Companies	....	....	8	1,74,300	3	20,300	2	2,700
5. Others	3	1,95,000	11	2,62,428	6	52,600	19	42,365
Total ..	5	5,69,000	32	6,08,024	29	1,93,274	157	2,65,472
C. Savings Account Deposits.								
1. Business	....	....	2	20,313	9	54,700	12	36,200
2. Personal	....	....	18	2,79,474	86	5,88,948	503	7,15,693
3. Banking Companies	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Others	....	....	3	61,700	....	....	42	99,272
Total .	....	....	23	3,61,487	95	6,43,648	557	8,51,165

TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

Deposits of	Rs. 50,000 and above		Between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000.		Between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 10,000.		Between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000.	
	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.
D. Other Deposits.								
1. Manufacturing Concerns ..	..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Trading Concerns	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. Personal	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Banking Companies	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
5. Others	1	3,80,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
Total ..	1	3,80,000	...	...	....	....	....	....
Total Deposits.								
1. Manufacturing Concerns ..	2	3,74,000	...	....	1	8,800	14	25,400
2. Trading Concerns . ..	....	...	7	83,900	10	50 700	17	24,800
3. Personal	....	...	61	12,38,770	279	16,94,022	1,130	17,79,801
4. Banking Companies	....	....	8	1,74,300	3	20,300	2	2,700
5. Business	....	....	13	2,26,413	11	72,000	18	48,000
6. Public Institutions and Trusts ..	1	55,000	1	37,000	1	5,501	2	4,000
7. Others	4	5,75,000	18	3,93,128	7	60,600	69	1,62,137
Total ..	7	10,04,000	128	21,53,511	312	19,11,923	1,252	20,46,838

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Joint Stock Banks.
Other Banks.

TABLE No. 9—*contd.*

Deposits of	Between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000		Rs. 500 and below.		Total.	
	No. of Accounts.	Amount	No. of Accounts.	Amount	No. of Accounts.	Amount.
A. *Fixed Deposits.*						
1. Business	....	....	24	3,500	43	2,38,700
2. Personal	162	1,00,100	198	43,030	1,123	29,53,131
3. Public Institutions and Trusts	1	1,000	2	400	8	1,02,901
4. Others	....	....	38	2,700	51	1,00,200
Total	163	1,01,100	262	49,630	1,225	33,94,932
B. *Current Account Deposits.*						
1. Manufacturing Concerns	2	1,600	10	4,200	29	4,14,000
2. Trading concerns	1	700	128	14,175	35	1,74,275
3. Personal	59	51,706	1,497	79,218	1,676	4,49,401
4. Banking Companies	....	....	....	....	13	1,97,300
5. Others	2	1,500	33	2,469	74	5,56,362
Total	64	55,506	1,668	1,00,062	1,827	17,91,338
C. *Savings Account Deposits.*						
1. Business	54	29,200	549	33,322	626	1,73,735
2. Personal	223	1,84,088	5,068	3,62,350	5,898	21,30,553
3. Banking Companies	...	....	....	....	....	....
4. Others	3	2,511	120	20,481	168	1,83,964
Total	280	2,15,799	5,737	4,16,153	6,692	24,88,252

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Joint Stock Banks.
Other Banks.

TABLE No. 9—*concld.*

Deposits of	Between Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000		Rs. 500 and below.		Total.	
	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.	No. of Accounts.	Amount.
D. Other Deposits.						
1. Manufacturing Concerns	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Trading Concerns	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. Personal	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Banking Companies	....	....	....	....	....	....
5. Others	....	....	....	....	1	3,80,000
Total	....	....	....	....	1	3,80,000
Total Deposits.						
1. Manufacturing Concerns	2	1,600	10	4,200	29	4,14,000
2. Trading Concerns	1	700	128	14,175	163	1,74,275
3. Personal	444	3,35,894	6,763	4,84,598	8,697	55.33,085
4. Banking Companies	....	....	....	....	13	1,97,300
5. Business	54	29,200	573	36,822	669	4,12,435
6. Public Institutions and Trusts	1	1,000	2	400	8	1,02,901
7. Others	5	4,011	191	25,650	294	12,20,526
Total	507	3,72,405	7,667	5,65,845	9,873	80,54,522

TABLE No. 10.

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED BANKS ACCORDING TO PURPOSE.

	Year ended 1955.			Year ended 1957.		
	Number of Accounts.	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances.	Number of Accounts.	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances.
I. Industry	35	11,06,400	34·97	36	13,04,000	36·44
II. Commerce	323	12,21,570	38·61	293	12,22,527	34·16
III. Agriculture	10	19,556	0·61	8	20,298	0·56
IV. Personal and Professional ..	1,262	6,27,144	19·82	1,567	7,73,040	21·60
V. All others	459	1,89,517	5·99	345	2,59,049	7·24
Total ..	2,089	31,64,189		2,749	35,78,914	

CHAPTER 8.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Joint Stock Banks.
Other Banks.

TABLE No. 11.

ANALYSIS OF ADVANCES OF SCHEDULED AND NON-SCHEDULED BANKS ACCORDING TO SECURITY.

	Year ended 1955.			Year ended 1957.		
	Number of Accounts.	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances.	Number of Accounts.	Amount Rs.	Percentage to total advances.
I. Secured Advances—						
(1) Government and Trustee securities ..	13	1,000	0·30	9	5,000	0·14
(2) Shares and debentures of Joint-Stock Companies etc.	32	44,300	1·40	29	64,000	1·79
(3) Gold and Silver Bullion, Gold and Silver ornaments.	1,416	5,06,573	16·00	2,067	7,52,784	21·03
(4) Merchandise :						
(a) Agricultural Commodities ..	27	6,93,999	21·90	63	8,00,794	22·38
(b) Non-agricultural Commodities ..	38	5,95,870	18·80	37	4,54,800	12·70
(5) Real Estate :						
(a) Agricultural Land	14	40,558	1·20	11	27,298	0·76
(b) Other properties	22	2,34,632	7·40	30	2,54,018	7·09
(6) Fixed Deposits	92	1,18,102	3·70	105	1,34,419	3·76
(7) Other secured advances	18	76,338	2·40	22	1,23,552	3·46
Total ..	1,672	23,11,372		2,373	26,16,665	
II. Unsecured Advances	417	8,52,917	26·90	386	9,62,249	26·89
Total of I and II ..	2,089	31,64,289		2,759	35,78,914	

The foregoing tables reveal some of the broad trends in the financial operations of banks in Satara district. Firstly, the banking habits of the people do not appear to be well developed. The total deposits held by these banks stood only at Rs. 80,54,522 by the end of 1957 and they consisted of fixed deposits, current deposits and savings deposits and were held by individuals, banking companies and business concerns. Of these deposits, fixed deposits amounted to Rs. 33,94,932, while only Rs. 3,80,000 were deposited in deposits classified as " Other Deposits ". Amounts involved in Current Deposits and Savings Deposits were Rs. 17,91,338 and Rs. 24,88,252 respectively. Secondly, the manufacturing and trading concerns were the largest single depositors followed closely by the banking companies.

Tables 10 and 11 give us an analysis of the advances made by the scheduled and non-scheduled banks according to purpose and security Table No. 10 shows that by the end of 1958 these banks in all advanced Rs. 31 64,189 against 2,089 accounts. Most of the advances were for commercial and industrial purposes, while comparatively smaller amounts were advanced for personal and professional reasons. Agricultural sector received the smallest assistance from the banks. There are presumably two reasons for this. Firstly, most of the banks are located in the urban areas and are not quite willing to advance loans to people coming from rural areas. Secondly, agencies other than banking such as the co-operative societies and the Government are helping the agriculturists.

The securities against which loans are advanced are given in table No. 11. It shows that out of the total number of accounts, 417 accounts were unsecured. Among the secured advances, large sums were advanced against the securities of gold and silver bullion and gold and silver ornaments. As against this, very small amounts were advanced against the securities of real estate, especially the land. Small amounts were also advanced against Government and Trustee securities. It will be clear from table No. 10 that the total amount advanced by the banks has increased only a little. Industrial units and personal and professional concerns were benefited by this, as they received larger amounts.

The same table reveals further that the number of accounts as well as the sums advanced against them by the end of 1957 have fairly increased over those in 1955. In 1957, considerably larger loans were given against gold and silver bullion or ornaments as securities. On the contrary, the number of accounts and loans advanced against Government and Trustee securities have dropped down. There is also a tendency among the banks to meet the needs of those who cannot provide security or adequate security.

Small Savings.

The Small Savings Movement was started in India in 1945 with the intention of mopping up purchasing power to fight the inflationary forces in post-war years. The Planning Commission later on found it to be an important means whereby it could finance its expenditure

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Small Savings.

on capital schemes included in the Five-Year Plans. The Government of India has been, therefore, trying to intensify Small Savings as a mass movement aimed at cultivating a national habit of thrift.

Following categories of investments have been classified as Small Savings investments :—

(1) Post Office Savings Certificates.

(2) 12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of 12-year and 7-year National Savings Certificates as well as 10-year National Plan Certificates issued before June 1957.

(3) 15-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates issued from 1st June 1957 including past holdings of Treasury Deposit Certificates issued before that date.

(4) 15-Year Annuity Certificates.

(5) Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

Post Office Savings Banks.

The Post Office Savings Banks constitute by far the most important source for the collection of Small Savings especially from people of small means. The agency of post-office savings banks is well suited to the rural areas where there are very little banking facilities. Moreover, as an agency of the Government it enjoys complete confidence of the people. Keeping savings banks accounts constitutes one of the functions of the post-offices and can, therefore, be carried on economically which is not possible in case of other banking institutions.

On 1st September 1958 there were in all 94 Post-office Savings Banks functioning in the Satara district. The following statement shows taluka-wise distribution of Post-office Savings Banks in the Satara district.

Serial No.	Name of Taluka or Peta.	Sub-offices.	Branch Offices.	Total
1	Javli	1	2	3
2	Karad	5	10	15
3	Khandala	3	1	4
4	Khatav	4	10	14
5	Koregaon	4	10	14
6	Mahabaleshwar	2	....	2
7	Man	2	3	5
8	Patan	2	10	12
9	Phaltan	2	....	2
10	Satara	4	7	11
11	Wai	3	9	12
	Total ..	32	62	94

The total number of accounts held at these banks during the three years 1955-56 to 1957-58 are given below :—

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Post Office Savings Banks.
Savings Banks.

TABLE No. 12.

Year.	No. of Account holders at the end of the year.	Bank balance at the end of the financial year	Investment during the year.	Net withdrawals during the year.
1	2	3	4	5
1955-56 ..	24,559	11,04,251	48,72,140	37,67,889
1956-57 ..	27,190	7,75,946	54,45,707	46,69,761
1957-58 ..	26,900	2,39,772	53,96,338	51,50,566

This table shows that since 1955 the total number of accounts with the Post-office Savings Banks has remained steady. The amounts of investment also do not show a substantial rise. It has, therefore, become necessary to increase the number of Post-office Savings Banks especially in the rural parts of the district with a view to encouraging savings in the future.

The Post-office Savings Scheme is one in which even the poorest can participate. A person can open his account with Rs. 2 at any post-office which does savings bank work. An account may be opened by an individual himself or by two persons, jointly, payable to (i) both, or (ii) either. Interest allowed for this deposit on individual and joint account is 2½ per cent. on the sum exceeding this amount. The maximum amount an individual can deposit is Rs. 15,000. The same facilities are accorded to non-profit-making institutions and co-operative societies. The Small Savings Scheme, thus affords the cheapest facility to every citizen to contribute his humble mite to national development.

Office-bearers of medical, educational, religious, charitable, and other non-profit making institutions can open such accounts as well as co-operative societies and local authorities like district local boards, panchayats and municipalities. There are no limits to the amount of investment by such institutions in their accounts with Post Offices. It is desirable in the national interest that all non-profit-making institutions keep their surplus funds in the Post-Office Savings Banks. Commanding Officer of a unit, District Superintendent of Police, Chairman or President of a district board or a municipality may open a single account, called the "*conjoint account*" on behalf of employees under them. In all the cases withdrawals are permissible twice a week.

12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates.

A new series of 12-year National Plan Savings Certificates have been issued by the Government of India with effect from June 1957. The then existing 7-Year and 12-Year National Savings Certificates and 10-Year National Plan Certificates were discontinued.

CHAPTER 8. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE. Small Savings. *12-Year National Plan Savings Certificates.*

These new certificates carry a higher rate of interest yielding on maturity a return of 5·4 per cent. per annum simple interest and 4·25 per cent. per annum compound interest, free of income-tax. They are available at all post-offices conducting savings bank business in denominations of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 500, Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000. Besides this, these new certificates have certain other advantages. They have protection from loss or damage, they are very liquid and they carry a high degree of security.

In Satara district the total amount of investment in the 12-Year National Savings Certificates was Rs. 4,91,920 in 1955-56, while the amount of withdrawals during the same year was Rs. 1,33,510. During the successive years, that is, in 1956-57 and 1957-58 figures of investment were Rs. 5,72,490 and Rs. 1,99,775 while that of withdrawals were Rs. 1,66,790 and Rs. 4,60,625 respectively. Thus, it can be seen that while the amounts of investment have shown a considerable decrease, the amounts of withdrawals have risen quite substantially.

10-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates.

Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates bearing an income-tax free interest at 4 per cent. per annum can be purchased at the offices of the Reserve Bank of India or State Bank or their branches. They are available at all treasuries and sub-treasuries where there are no aforesaid offices of banks.

The Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates are sold in denominations which are multiples of Rs. 50 and investment in the same can be made by cash or cheque. The maximum that can be invested varies according as the investor is an individual or an institution. The interest is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. This type of investment is suitable particularly for those who want to keep their capital intact and earn regular annual interest for normal recurrent expenditure. The certificates have other facilities, too. They are exempt from Income-tax, can be hypothecated and can be encashed before the date of maturity, with due allowance for discount. The total amount invested in these certificates during a period of seven years 1951-1952 to 1957-58 was Rs. 1,70,700·00.

The following table gives year-wise figures of total subscriptions received for 10-Years Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates from 1951 to 1958.

TABLE No. 13.

Period.	10-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates Rs.
1951-52	Nil.
1952-53	20,500·00
1953-54	37,100·00
1954-55	15,400·00
1955-56	48,200·00
1956-57	20,000·00
1957-58	29,500·00

15-Year Annuity Certificates.

This is an ideal scheme for investing accumulated savings in one lump sum which yields a regular monthly income for the investor and his family. This type of investment is very suitable for those who are not in pensionable services and who want to ensure for the future from what they have in hand. The amount invested in these certificates is refunded together with compound interest at approximately 4·25 per cent. per annum by way of monthly payments spread over a period of 15 years. The amount paid to the investor each month is free of income-tax and super-tax.

The 15-Year Annuity Certificates are available at all places where Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates are sold. They were issued from 2nd January 1958 in multiples of Rs. 3,325 up to Rs. 26,600 securing to the holder a substantial monthly payment. The monthly payment can be drawn at any treasury or sub-treasury in India or at any of the Public Debt Offices at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Bangalore. The investor can also keep the certificates with public Debt Office for safe custody and get monthly return over them.

15-Year Annuity Certificates.

Investment in 15-Year Annuity Certificates ensures a steady income every month of a specific amount for a period of 15-years. If the investor passes away during this period, the monthly annuity amount may be paid to his legal heir. In case of joint holders, on the death of one, the monthly payment is made to the survivor. In no case the balance of investment is refunded in a lump sum. Jointly one can invest upto a sum of Rs. 53,200.

The 15-Year Annuity Certificates did not receive much popular support in Satara district. The total investment in these certificates during eight years 1951-1958 was Rs. 10,500 only; Rs. 3,500 in 1954-55 and Rs. 7,000 in 1955-56.

Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

The Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme was started with effect from 2nd January 1959. It gives opportunity to small savers to provide for specific purposes such as marriage, education of children, building a house, etc. The scheme works within the framework of the Post-Office Savings Bank.

There are two types of accounts, *viz.*, 5-Year account and 10-Year account. An account can be opened at any post-office by a single adult or two adults jointly, payable, to both jointly or either of them. Deposits can be made in fixed denominations of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 20, Rs. 50, Rs. 100 or Rs. 200, subject to the limits for individual and joint accounts for each type. Thus, a person may deposit upto Rs. 100 per month in a 10-Year account provided that the total of the deposits made during the entire period of his account or accounts (where he has more than one account) shall not exceed Rs. 12,000, exclusive of amounts withdrawn. A depositor can have more than one account in his or her name or jointly with another. In case of joint account, the limits specified above will be doubled. The depositor may deposit Rs. 200 per month in a 5-Year Deposit account. Withdrawals of sums in multiples of Rs. 10 totalling not more than 50 per cent. of the deposits made into the account are allowed once in the case of a 5-Year account and twice in the case of a 10-Year account, after

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Small Savings.
Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

the account has been in operation at least for one year. The amounts withdrawn, with simple interest thereon at 6 per cent. per annum will be deducted from the amounts payable under the account. The interest on the deposits at maturity works out to about 3·3 per cent. on a 5-Year account and 3·8 per cent. on a 10-Year account. The interest is free of income-tax and super-tax.

In case of regular payments not being made, the date of maturity of the account is extended by the number of months for which defaults have occurred, subject to a maximum of five defaults in a 5-Year account and ten defaults in a 10-Year account. If the period of defaults exceeds this number, the accounts shall be treated as "discontinued" and proportionate amounts will be paid after the expiry of the period for which the accounts stand. During the initial period there does not seem to be any investment made in this new type of scheme. Even considering the resultant investments both in the Post Office Savings Banks and the National Savings Certificates and National Plan Savings Certificates, the investment position comes to Rs. 16 lakhs, Rs. 10 lakhs and Rs. 12 lakhs respectively. This definitely indicates that the investment capacity of the people in this district for the year 1957-58 though slightly above that of the year 1956-57, has fallen much below the one obtaining in the year 1955-56.

Prize Bonds.

They are a new form of Government security introduced from 1st April 1960. They are different from other securities in that interest is not paid on them but is pooled and distributed as prizes drawn by lot every quarter. As this is an entirely new scheme, figures of the amounts of investment in them are not available at present.

Small Savings' Agent.

In order to intensify the small savings campaign into a mass movement the Government has started various schemes which are in operation under executive instructions issued by the Government of Maharashtra and Government of India. The schemes are as follows :—

(1) The General Authorised Agency Scheme open to all citizens including Government servants, co-operative societies, scheduled banks and social welfare institutions.

(2) The Internal Agency Scheme.

(3) The Primary Teacher's Agency Scheme.

(4) The Rural Agency Scheme.

(5) The Extra-Departmental Branch Post-Master Scheme.

Insurance Companies.

In the field of insurance the progress made by this district until recently was rather slow. The insurance business made considerable headway since 1956, when insurance business was nationalised. With nationalisation, the Life Insurance Corporation became the foremost and the largest single agency doing life insurance business in India. The Life Insurance Corporation was established on 1st September 1956. Since this date all-India insurances and provident societies and all foreign insurers ceased to carry on life insurance business in India. The general insurance, however, which includes fire, marine, accident and other insurance business is kept open to private enterprise.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Insurance Companies.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the Life Insurance Corporation the Satara district is placed under the territorial jurisdiction of the Satara Division of the Western Zone. The total number of agents working in the Satara district by the end of 1956, was 464. The number varied between 310 and 325 in 1957, and it was 310 by September 1958.

Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

The problem of rural indebtedness is one of the most important problems with which the agricultural sector of our economy is beset since long. The Indian agriculturist is born in debt and has to live in debt. Owing to his utter poverty and instability of income he is always at the mercy of the village money-lender or sawkar and does little to improve the production of his land for want of economic assistance. It is with a view to help him out of his plight that the system of 'Tagai' was devised even before the British regime. The British administrators adopted the already existing system and passed a number of Tagai Acts between 1871 and 1879. No active assistance, however, was given till the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1881 and the Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884 were passed. The former Act is broadly concerned with long-term loans, while the latter deals with short-term accommodation.

Land Improvement Lands Act of 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation, enclosures, etc. The Collector, Prant Officer and Mamlatdar are authorised to grant loans upto specified limits bearing an interest of 8½ per cent., i.e. 16 pies per rupee per annum. In particular cases, however, the Government may reduce the rate of interest or charge no interest at all. The loan is given when the grantor is satisfied as to the security with a margin of safety. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loans to be advanced.

Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884.

Loans under this Act may be granted to holders of arable lands for purchase of seed, fodder, agricultural stock or implements. They are also granted to hire cattle, to rebuild houses destroyed by calamities, to maintain cultivators while engaged in work on land or to achieve some such purpose. The rate of interest, the type of security and the terms and conditions of the grant of loans are the same as under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

The following tabular statements show the extent of Government assistance under these Acts in the Satara district and bring to our notice the actual needs of the people for Tagai loans.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.
Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884.

TABLE No. 11.

Particulars.	Loans under Land Improvement Act, 1883.			Loans under Agriculturists Loans Act, 1884.			Financial assistance under Grow More Food campaign.					
	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1955-56		1956-57		1957-58	
							Loan.	Subsidy.	Loan.	Subsidy.	Loan.	Subsidy.
1	2			3			4					
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Applications pending at the beginning of the year.	86	69	73	194	150	221	26	.	19	..	69	..
2. Amount involved in (1).	78,650	18,625	69,300	80,690	65,600	92,820	28,050	..	21,700	..	73,400	..
3. No. of applications received during the year.	406	424	294	1,542	1,120	1,770	186	..	166	..	773	..
4. Total amount applied for by these applicants.	2,23,920	2,60,775	2,81,817	4,26,381	3,22,070	4,88,803	1,56,425	..	98,010	..	7,26,840	..
5. Number of applications sanctioned.	216	193	156	924	491	1,098	109	..	45	..	364	..
6. Total amount asked for in 5 above.	72,645	34,275	61,586	2,02,261	96,350	2,25,978	69,810	..	18,000	..	4,35,115	..
7. Total amount actually sanctioned.	54,987	28,646	51,540	1,94,463	86,850	1,87,810	67,279	..	16,210	..	4,24,345	..
8. Total amount actually disbursed during the year.	47,471	28,433	52,340	1,94,463	86,850	1,87,810	55,549	..	17,360	..	2,76,045	..
9. Total loans repaid during the year.	1,76,786	1,22,470	1,14,902	1,35,144	1,49,889	1,42,287	81,454	..	29,011	..	31,581	..
10. Total loans outstanding.	9,37,340	7,04,966	4,78,480	5,93,499	6,63,459	6,97,185	2,33,909	..	2,21,807	..	3,45,116	..

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.
Agriculturists Loans Act of 1884.

TABLE No. 14—*contd.*

Particulars.	Any other loan for project area.			Financial assistance by other Government Departments.					
	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1955-56		1956-57		1957-58	
				Loan.	Subsidy.	Loan.	Subsidy.	Loan.	Subsidy.
1		5				6			
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Applications pending at the beginning of the year.	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Amount involved in (1).	....	....	1,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. No. of applications received during the year.	11	8	51	....	....	....	....	....	....
4. Total amount applied for by these applicants.	11,500	6,000	71,500	....	....	....	....	....	....
5. Number of applications sanctioned.	6	6	39	....	....	....	....	....	....
6. Total amount asked for in 5 above.	10,500	5,000	60,000	....	....	....	....	....	....
7. Total amount actually sanctioned.	8,493	4,350	56,735	....	....	....	....	....	....
8. Total amount actually disbursed during the year.	8,493	4,350	56,735	....	....	....	....	....	....
9. Total loans repaid during the year.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
10. Total loans outstanding.	8,493	12,843	69,578	....	....	....	....	....	....

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

TABLE No. 15.

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned.	Loans under Land Improvement Act, 1883.			Loans under A. L. Act, 1884.		
	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
1		2			3	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. For current farm expenditure—						
(a) Seed	...	....	...	18,125	17,900	25,760
(b) Fodder . ..	....	....	.	700	100	1,400
(c) Manure	..	.. .	....	965	...	1,270
(d) Farm implements	...	...	...	....	.. .	200
2. Purchase of draught animals i. e. bullocks ..	...	.. .	. ..	1,70,273	67,150	1,58,180
3. Well-digging and other irrigation projects ..	....	...	....	....	....	....
4. Land improvement	32,211	10,425	41,563	...	....	....
5. Consumption	....	....	....	....	....	....
6. Other purposes	22,776	18,221	9,977	4,400	1,700	....
Total ..	54,987	28,646	51,540	1,94,463	86,850	1,87,810

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

TABLE No. 15—contd.

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned.	Financial Assistance under Grow More Food Campaign						Any other loan for project area		
	1955-56 Loan.	1955-56 Subsidy.	1956-57 Loan.	1956-57 Subsidy.	1957-58 Loan.	1957-58 Subsidy.	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58
1	4						5		
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. For current farm expenditure—									
(a) Seed	1,335	..	1,485	..	50	.	....	....	....
(b) Fodder	.		...	..	...	..	....	....	....
(c) Manure	....	.	...	..	....	..	....	...	....
(d) Farm implements	...	.	....	.	...	.	....	....	....
2. Purchase of draught animals i. e. bullocks.	..	..	...	..	....	..	....	....	....
3. Well-digging and other irrigation projects.	65,944	.	14,725	.	4,23,780	..	8,493	4,350	56,735
4. Land improvement	....	..	...	..	..	..	....	...	....
5. Consumption	...	..	....	.	...	..	....	....	...
6. Other purchases	....	.	....	.	515	..	....	...	....
Total ..	67,279	..	16,210	.	4,24,345	..	8,493	4,350	56,735

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

TABLE No. 16.

Time lag between date of application and date of sanction.	No. of Applications			Amount applied for			Amount sanctioned		
	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
1		2			3			4	
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Less than 1 month	646	446	993	1,06,205	64,670	3,04,801	99,404	61,996	2,89,086
1 to 2 months	428	192	331	1,68,776	49,200	2,25,628	1,56,447	45,050	2,03,365
2 to 3 months	84	69	197	31,675	25,455	1,41,385	23,500	18,300	1,26,809
3 to 4 months	18	14	58	9,000	4,900	23,865	7,201	3,810	19,450
4 to 5 months	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
5 to 6 months	....	5	....	....	3,850	....	....	2,500	....
6 to 7 months	....	....	15	....	....	15,000	....	....	10,800
7 to 8 months	5	5	....	2,500	2,950	....	2,000	1,800	....
Over 8 months	74	4	20	37,060	2,600	15,100	36,670	2,600	14,020
Not ascertainable	....	....	43	....	....	56,900	....	....	56,900
Total ..	1,255	735	1,657	3,55,216	1,53,625	7,82,679	3,25,222	1,36,056	7,20,430

CHAPTER 8.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

TABLE No. 17.

Time lag between date of sanction and date of disbursement. 1	Number of Applications. 1955-56.	1956-57. 2	1957-58.	Amount sanctioned. 1955-56.	1956-57. 3	1957-58.	Amount disbursed. 1955-56.	1956-57. 4	1957-58.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
On the same day	....	8	18	....	1,550	14,300	....	1,550	14,300
Less than 1 month	1,099	623	1,378	3,04,370	1,15,331	6,39,302	2,85,124	1,16,868	4,91,802
1 to 2 months	100	78	151	14,100	10,900	49,325	14,100	10,900	49,325
2 to 3 months	45	12	71	2,092	2,625	2,543	2,092	2,625	2,543
3 to 4 months	....	9	9	....	3,300	4,500	....	3,300	4,500
4 to 5 months	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
5 to 6 months	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....
6 to 7 months	....	5	...	....	2,350	....	...	2,350	....
7 to 8 months	5	....	....	2,000	....	...	2,000	....	....
Over 8 months	6	....	30	2,660	....	10,460	2,660	....	10,460
Not ascertainable	....	....	....	....	...	....	....	....	....
Total ..	1,255	735	1,657	3,25,222	1,36,056	7,20,430	3,05,976	1,37,593	5,72,930

TABLE No. 18.

Duration of loan	Number of applications.			Amount Rs.		
	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
Less than 3 months	....	....	....	....	....	....
3 to 6 months	...	....	5	....	....	800
6 to 9 months	3	....	....	150	....	....
9 to 12 months	32	27	38	3,769	3,860	3,495
1 to 2 years	359	267	534	29,558	24,375	40,738
2 to 3 years	29	22	106	11,810	7,000	22,000
3 to 4 years	645	315	392	1.84,311	68,878	1,22,506
4 to 5 years	27	33	286	6,555	7,900	93,276
5 years and above	160	71	396	69,823	25,580	2,90,115
Total ..	1,255	735	1,657	3.05,976	1,37,593	5,72.930

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Financial Assistance to Agriculture and Industry.

TABLE No. 19.

Reasons for Rejection.	Number of Applications.			Amount Rs.		
	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.	1955-56.	1956-57.	1957-58.
(1) Lack of security or inadequate security	652	626	889	3,42,254	2,85,560	5,99,174
(2) Purpose of loan not approved	5	13	10	1,125	16,270	7,000
(3) Old dues to Government	165	106	155	1,02,651	46,840	89,277
(4) Miscellaneous	136	111	243	98,245	54,165	88,605
Total	958	856	1,297	5,44,275	4,02,835	7,84,056

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. BANKING AND FINANCE.

From the foregoing tables it is possible to make certain observations as regards the granting of Tagai loans. In the first instance the financial assistance granted under both the Acts seems to be very inadequate.

The accompanying tables reveal the general trends in the Government's scheme of assistance under these Acts. It can be seen from table No. 14 that the number of applications received during recent years under Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 does not show any tendency of substantial increase. To illustrate, the number of applications received in the year 1955-56 was 406. It increased only by 18 during the next year, but dropped again to 297 in 1957-58. On the other hand, the Government attitude is to disburse more and more loans every year, which becomes evident from the loans advanced during the year 1957-58. These circumstances, *viz.* willingness of the Government to grant assistance and unwillingness of the agriculturists to take its advantage can be explained by the inability of the farmer to repay the loan within the stipulated period.

Figures in tables for the years 1955-56, 1956-57 and 1957-58 further reveal that the time-lag between the date of applications of the loans and the date of their sanction was quite short. Nearly sixty per cent. of the applications were sanctioned during a period of less than one month, and the rest were sanctioned within two to three months.

It is also found from the tables that once the loans were sanctioned there was no delay involved in disbursing the due amounts. The maximum period involved in this was only two months, calculated from the date of their sanction.

There were also few cases where applications for loans were turned down for one reason or the other. More than 68 per cent. of these applications were rejected because of the lack of security or adequate security, thirteen per cent. were rejected on account of the old dues that were yet to be paid to the Government and the rest were rejected for miscellaneous reasons, implying thereby the government's disapproval of the purpose for which the loans were asked for.

Crop Finance.

The Government instituted a system of crop or seasonal finance when it was found that the financial assistance rendered by the Government through its various agencies fell short of the credit needs in the rural areas. The system is thus primarily intended to fill in the vacuum in the credit facilities caused mainly by legislation relating to debt relief, money-lending and land tenure passed during the past few years.

The advances made by way of crop or seasonal finance are secured by the crops grown by debtors. These advances are essentially short term in nature. Their main object is to finance agricultural operations required for raising of crops. The interest charged on these advances is quite reasonable.

Crop Finance.

The principal agencies which are recognised for grant of crop or seasonal finance are the following :—

(1) Co-operative Societies,

(2) Tagai Loans (advanced through revenue department),

(3) Grain Depots,

(4) Persons authorised under section 45 of the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act of 1947.

As far as possible it is through the agency of the co-operative societies that the advances of crop finance are made to the persons who are parties to the proceedings or awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act of 1947. It is only in those districts where there is a paucity of co-operative organisations that the system of crop finance is allotted to agencies other than the co-operative societies. In Satara district the bulk of such finance is being provided by co-operative societies and to a lesser extent through revenue department by way of tagai advances and through grain depots. This is quite in tune with the Government policy of making the co-operative societies the main agency for providing crop finance to adjust debtors. This policy has given impetus to the formation of new co-operative societies.

The accompanying statement shows the position as regards crop or seasonal finance made through co-operative societies in the Satara district during the years from 1946 to 1956.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Crop Finance.

TABLE No. 20.

STATEMENT SHOWING ADVANCES OF CROP OR SEASONAL FINANCE THROUGH CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES DURING THE YEARS FROM 1946-47 TO 1955-56.

Year.	Number of applications.	Amount of finance applied for	Amount advanced.	Amount recovered.	Amount out-standing at the end of the year.	Amounts of overdues.		
						Authorised.	Un-authorised.	Amount of Government guarantee.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1946-47	1,463	1,44,511	10,828	756	10,072	10,072	....	....
1947-48	712	90,076	25,649	74,499	....	....	6,921	....
1948-49	4,762	3,62,301	3,60,051	79,790	3,54,525	....	21,353	....
1949-50	2,920	5,35,062	3,52,611	2,13,759	2,59,685	550	52,087	....
1951-52	3,800	12,15,798	4,80,909	3,72,514	6,20,990	18,750	2,75,848	....
1952-53	3,537	10,69,877	4,63,939	3,89,050	6,95,879	39,900	3,37,246	....
1953-54	3,278	9,51,213	4,32,584	3,90,850	7,37,613	8,172	3,30,887	....
1954-55	2,758	7,78,726	2,89,800	3,58,810	6,68,603	1,47,938	2,73,978	....
1955-56	2,888	6,97,757	4,32,829	4,12,752	6,88,860	....	2,19,625	8,627

Crop Finance.

The table shows that not all the applications made for obtaining crop finance were entertained. The reason for rejection of some of them was the default in payment of previous dues or want of adequate security furnished by the people. Few applications were rejected on the ground that the applicants owned no landed property.

It is also seen from the table that since the beginning of the system, i.e., from 1946-47 the demand for crop or seasonal finance loans by the debtors under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act has been on the increase. The Government also responded well by increasing the crop finance almost every year from 1946-47 to 1955-56 except for the year 1953-54, when there was a steep fall in the advances of crop finance. Recoveries, however, were not so satisfactory due to inadequate rains, failure of crops and a fall in agricultural prices. This resulted into the accumulation of large amounts of unauthorised arrears in the district.

As said above except in the year 1948-49, when only Rs. 440 were advanced to the applicants there were no advances made by the Grain Depots and Revenue agencies in the Satara District. The advances were made by the co-operative societies.

The following statement shows the arrangement for provision of crop finance made in the Satara district :—

Statement showing the arrangement for provision of crop or seasonal finance made in the Satara District.

Name of Taluka.	Total No. of Villages.	Number of Villages allotted to the agency of—			Total
		Co-operative Societies.	Revenue	Money-lenders.	
Patan	205	205	..	..	205
Satara	152	123	29	..	152
Javli	198	109	17	..	126
Wai	91	73	18	..	91
Man	73	19	54	..	73
Khatav	90	70	20	..	90
Mahabaleshwar ..	56	26	30	..	56
Karad	116	110	6	..	116
Phaltan	86	80	6	..	86
Koregaon	76	76	..	..	76
Khandala	45	41	4	..	45
Total ..	1,182	932	184	..	1,116

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.
Crop Finance.

With a view to make crop finance available at a cheaper rate of interest through the existing as well as newly organised societies, the societies were advised to admit persons who were parties to any proceedings or awards under the Act coming from their area of operation and also from the neighbouring villages as ordinary members or nominal members and to reduce their lending rate of interest to 6¼ per cent. or 7 13/16 per cent. as the conditions of societies concerned permitted by amending their bye-laws suitably. The Central Financing Agencies agreed to charge a concessional rate of 4½ per cent. to societies in respect of funds provided to finance the agricultural debtors.

All this goes to show that Co-operative Societies played a prominent role in providing crop loans to the agriculturists who are increasingly taking advantage of these facilities.

The Government of India created a Small Scale Industries Section in the Department of Industries with a view to implementing the recommendations and policies of the All India Small Scale Industries Boards constituted by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. On the advice of this Board the Government have accepted the following definition of small scale industry :—

"An industrial unit employing less than fifty persons (where power is used), or less than hundred persons (where power is not used) and having a capital of not more than five lakhs of rupees is to be regarded as a small scale unit."

In order to help such small-scale establishments and cottage industries the Government is granting them financial assistance under the State-aid to Small Scale and Cottage Industries Rule, 1935. The scheme is mainly intended to assist those units which cannot ordinarily get assistance either from the Industrial Finance Corporation or from the Maharashtra State Financial Corporation. Under this scheme loans are given to artisans for the purchase of tools and equipment and also to serve as working capital. The loans are payable in fifty monthly instalments, and bear a 4½ per cent. rate of interest. In the Satara District the amount of loans considered during the period from the 1st January 1958 to the 30th September 1958, was as follows :—

Firstly, a sum of Rs. 35,000 was advanced to M/s. Phadke Industrial Works, Private Ltd., Karad. This loan was to serve a dual purpose. It was to be utilised for the purchase of land and also as working capital. It bore a compound interest of 3 per cent and was to be repaid in ten annual instalments.

Two companies, viz., the Plastic Products of India Ltd., Satara, and the B. R. Shinde and Company of Satara, had appliled for loans of Rs. 75,000 and Rs. 10,000 respectively. But they were rejected. The reasons for the rejection of the first were that their factory was located at a place which made its working uneconomic and also because the

management of the company was not in the hands of a suitably or technically qualified personnel. The second application was rejected because the applicant himself had no experience in the field of industry proposed to be started.

Financial Assistance to Small Scale and Cottage Industries.

The most important aspect of the state's programme for development of industries relates to encouragement to cottage and village industries through provision of training facilities for artisans in the use of improved tools and equipment. More important than this, however, is the financial assistance accorded by the State to these industries. As a result of the sustained efforts of the Government in this direction, there are 68 industrial co-operative societies in the district, and it is proposed to organise 125 industrial co-operative societies of various categories during the period of the Second Plan. These societies are to be given financial assistance by way of investment in their share capital, subsidies towards managerial expenses and loans and subsidies for purchase of equipment, etc. The financial assistance during the period of the Second Plan was estimated to be about Rs. 436 lakhs. In addition, loans amounting to Rs. 680 lakhs were also expected to be granted under the scheme of the State-aid to individual artisans or their co-operatives.

The Department of Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries has certain schemes for granting financial assistance to cottage and village industries in the district. Under these schemes loans and subsidies are granted to individual artisans and their co-operatives. In what follows is a description of the operation of these schemes in the district.

(1) *Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to Educated Unemployed persons and Bona fide Craftsmen for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.*--Financial assistance upto Rs. 3,000 to educated unemployed persons and financial assistance up to Rs. 2,000 to trained as well as to hereditary artisans in the form of loans and subsidies can be granted under this scheme. In the year 1958-59 Rs. 3,787·50 were given as loan to six persons and Rs. 202·50 were given as subsidies to two persons under this scheme in the district. Two *bona fide* craftsmen also received Rs. 1,300 during the same period.

(2) *Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to Backward Class artisans for the purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.*—Here financial assistance is given according to the Rules of the Revenue Department. Preference and concessions in this respect are always given to those who are trained in the Government's peripatetic schools or institutions recognised by Government. During the period from 1st July 1958 to 30th June 1959, loans to the extent of Rs. 8,650 were given to ten persons and subsidies to the extent of Rs. 850 were given to two individuals in the district.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Financial Assistance to Small-Scale and Cottage Industries.

(3) *Scheme for grant of loans and subsidies to Co-operative Societies for purchase of tools and equipment and for working capital.*—Under this scheme co-operative societies, one-third at least of whose members are *bona fide* craftsmen, can be granted financial assistance up to Rs. 5,000. Of this amount 50 per cent. can be in the form of subsidy. To those co-operative societies, the majority of whose members come from backward class, loans are given free of interest. For the remaining societies, however, interest at 4½ per cent. is charged.

In Satara district the outstanding amount with three societies as on 30th June 1958 on account of loan for tools and equipment amounted to Rs. 21,771·40. The outstanding amount Rs. 21,771·40 for working capital in case of 23 societies amounted to Rs. 1,11,435 during the same period. In the same way, the loans repaid by societies on account of loans for purchase of tools and equipment came to Rs. 240·28; while on account of loans for working capital the sum was Rs. 9,059·51.

(4) *Scheme for grant of Haskell or Nutan Ghanis on loan-cum-subsidy basis.*—The scheme is intended to induce *Telis* or oilmen to use improved types of *ghanis* in preference to the old, less productive *ghanis*. The *nutan ghanis* are supplied to *telis* and their co-operative societies on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis and the element of subsidy is not more than ¼ of the total cost or Rs. 75, whichever is less. During the year 1958-59 only one oil society of *telis* received a loan of Rs. 5,245·56 to serve as working capital. Besides the above important scheme there are various other schemes administered by the Department of Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives. Schemes, under which financial assistance is given to forest labourers' co-operative societies and labour contract societies, for example, can be mentioned in this connection. These schemes are sponsored both by the State and by the Central Government. Financial assistance is given for purchase of tools and equipments for share capital, for welfare activities carried on by the societies, for management expenses, etc. During 1958-59, no financial assistance under these schemes have been rendered to any society in this district.

Tanning and Leather Industry Development Scheme.—In this district only three societies received the benefit under the scheme and got Rs. 1,500·00 as loan during the year 1958-59.

Scheme of Khadi and Village Industries Commission.—Under this scheme loans to the extent of Rs. 1,57,713·50 were granted to twelve societies of different types in the year 1958-59.

Financial Assistance to Handloom Industry.

The most important amongst various cottage industries in the district is the handloom industry. There are 23 weavers' co-operative societies in the district. For the development of handloom industry financial assistance in the form of loans is granted for purchase of improved tools and appliances and grants are given for opening of sales depots, plying mobile vans for the sale of handloom cloth,

establishment of dyeing, bleaching, finishing and calendering plants, for setting up model production centre, etc. Under the handloom development schemes financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 53,200 has been granted to the weavers' co-operative societies out of which Rs. 9,882·36 nP. have been received till 1958-59.

Under the Scheme of Central Financing Agency, Government has placed Rs. 1,24,906 with the Satara District Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Satara, for financing the Industrial Co-operatives for working capital. Out of this sum the bank has advanced only Rs. 19,301 to seven societies.

State aid to Fisheries.

Taking into consideration the growing importance of fisheries, in 1945 the Government set up a full-fledged Directorate of Fisheries. The fisheries schemes have a dual importance. Firstly, they serve as supplementary to the programme of Grow More Food and secondly, they help in ameliorating the conditions of the fishing community which is generally very backward.

As the Satara district has no sea-coast, the programme for development of fisheries in the district comprises mainly the development of inland fisheries.

The Department of Fisheries through various schemes grants loans and subsidies under certain terms and conditions to fishermen and their co-operative societies for various purposes such as purchasing of engines, mechanisation of fishing crafts, purchasing or repairing of fishing equipments such as boats, nets, engines, trucks, ice plant, etc. Loan is also granted for working capital.

The principal terms and conditions governing the financial assistance are the following :—

(*i*) Tangible security valued to the extent of 1½ times the loan amount have to be furnished by the loanee. If not, a personal surety solvent to the extent of twice the amount of the loan with a letter of consent from the surety has to be furnished.

(*ii*) The loan exceeding Rs. 1,000, is generally paid in two equal instalments, the first instalment being payable immediately after a mortgage deed is executed and the second instalment after vouchers for the expenditure from the first instalment are produced.

(*iii*) Loan for engine is granted in one instalment.

Fishermen are granted a subsidy on the specific condition that they form a group of five to ten fishermen who should be members of a local fishermen's co-operative society and do fishing collectively. The amount of subsidy in each case is generally 33 to 50 per cent. The repayment of the loan commences three months after the loan is disbursed. The loan is repayable in equal monthly instalments over a period of five years. The loanees are required to furnish

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
BANKING AND FINANCE.

securities, either collateral only, equal to 1½ times the loan amounts, or both personal and collateral securities each equivalent in value to the loan amounts.

Due to an extremely small scope for development of fisheries in this district no financial assistance under any of the above schemes is reported to have been granted either to the individual fishermen or their societies so far.

Private Limited Companies.

Private Limited Companies.—Till the forties, there was not a single Joint Stock Company (limited), run privately in Satara District. The first, and perhaps, the oldest company was the Satara Electric Supply Company, Private Ltd., registered as far back as 1933. At present, there are 26 Private Limited Companies, working in the district. Except two companies which were registered before the outbreak of the Second World War, all the companies were started during and after the War Period, in Karad, Phaltan, Satara and Koregaon. A classification of the existing companies according to the nature of business they transact shows that of the 26 companies, five companies were covered by the manufacturing group, eight by the trading concerns, four by the transport companies, four by the Public Utility concerns and the rest by the miscellaneous group consisting of such companies as the money-lending, investment and insurance companies.

The following table gives in detail the break-up of these companies classified according to the nature of business they transact.

Type.	No. of Companies.
Manufacturing :—	
Textile	1
Chemicals	..
Printing and Publishing	1
Oil Extracting	1
Engineering	2
Trading :—	
General trading	3
Agency business	3
Motion Pictures	1
Cloth Trade	1
Transport :—	
Motor transport	4
Public Utility :—	
Electric Supply	4
Miscellaneous :—	
Money-lending, Investment and Insurance ..	3
Others	2

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

The total paid-up capital of all these companies amounted to Rs. 13,00,510, while their authorised capital was Rs. 41,65,000 by the end of the year 1958. Most of the companies had sold ordinary shares. The total of ordinary shares amounted to Rs. 35,66,000 during the same year. The other types of shares, viz., preference, deferred and undeferred, it seems, had limited demand in the money market.

Public Limited Companies.

Public Limited Companies.—By the end of 1958, there were twelve Public Limited Companies in the Satara district. These companies do not include the joint-stock banks, which are described elsewhere. Likewise they do not include the investment trusts. The Western India Life Insurance Company Ltd., Satara, was the oldest and perhaps the biggest of all Joint-Stock Companies in the district. It was registered in 1913 and is now merged in the Life Insurance Corporation. As regards other Companies, they were registered either prior to or after the Second World War.

A classification of the existing Companies, is given below. The bulk of them fall under the manufacturing group.

Classification of the Public Limited Companies :—

Type.	No. of Companies.
I *Manufacturing*—	
(1) Textiles	2
(2) Pharmaceutical	2
(3) Printing, Publishing, etc.	1
(4) Engineering	1
(5) Others (paper-making, plastics, match, glass-work).	4
II *Public Utility*—	
Electric Supply	1
III *Miscellaneous*—	
Insurance.	1

The paid-up and the authorised capital of these companies amounted to Rs. 38,41,487 and Rs. 1,70,50,000, respectively. The manufacturing concerns had the lion's share of it.

SECTION II—TRADE AND COMMERCE.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade Routes.

DURING THE FIRST HALF OF THE 18TH CENTURY the principal routes of trade were the Poona-Kolhapur-Karnatak road and the Pandharpur road by the Kaledhon pass. The first made road was from Poona to Satara by the Salpa pass, and it was made fit for carts in 1841. In 1848, except along the old Poona road and the Satara-Mahabaleshwar made road, the traffic was carried on by pack bullocks. In 1883,

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, 1885, pages 194-200.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade Routes.

the district had 51 routes. Of these, the principal routes were: Poona-Belgaum, Satara-Lonand-Poona, Satara-Tasgaon, Karad-Tasgaon, Varandha-Dharampuri, Surul-Mahabaleshwar, Satara-Mahabaleshwar Satara-Pandharpur, Malharpeth-Pandharpur, Karad-Kumbharli-Sangli. There was a considerable traffic between Satara and Konkan via Mahabaleshwar. A cart road passed from Karad via the Phonda Ghat to Chiplun. A large amount of traffic was destined to the ports on the Konkan coast, especially to Ratnagiri, Chiplun, Bankot and Mahad. "In 1857, the opening of the Varandha pass put Wai within 60 miles of Mahad by cart road; in 1884, the opening of Kumbharli pass put Karad within sixty miles of Chiplun; and in 1876, the opening of Fitz-Gerald pass, placed Wai and Satara within 50 miles of Mahad.". The following statement shows traffic by these passes between December 1877 and June 1878.†

† As this traffic belongs to Kolhapur, Miraj, Sangli, Phaltan and Pandharpur, as well as to Satara, the statement does not show the district imports and exports but the general usefulness of these passes.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade Routes.

TABLE 21.

SATARA-SAHYADRI PASS TRAFFIC, DECEMBER 1877 TO JUNE 1878.

Pass.	Carts. Loaded. Grain.	Carts. Loaded. Otherwise.	Carts. Empty.	Carts. Total.	Animals. Loaded.	Animals. Unloaded.
Into the Konkan—						
Kumbharli	55,845	15,046	826	71,717	8,108	1,001
Varandha	798	3,525	225	4,549	1,033	1,679
Fitz-Gerald	3,530	1,539	58	5,127	13,844	2,535
Total ..	60,173	20,111	1,109	81,393	22,985	5,215
From the Konkan—						
Kumbharli	....	26,296	28,937	55,233	4,138	5,376
Varandha	1	2,377	1,748	4,124	411	1,614
Fitz-Gerald	....	1,926	2,044	3,970	7,282	5,185
Total ..	1	30,599	32,729	63,327	11,831	12,175

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

The Poona-Belgaum mail road was, however, the chief route of traffic in the district. This road was crossed by almost all the important roads of the district which served as feeders to the mail road.

The Lamans, a wandering tribe and the professional carriers of the district, used to carry pack-bullocks to the coast and to Poona and other centres. They traded in such articles as cotton, molasses, chillies, tobacco, and other articles of export. They used to bring salt, grain, spices and groceries. The Lamans, however, disappeared after the opening of the cart roads to the Konkan by the Kumbharli and the Fitz-Gerald passes.

Present Routes of Trade.—The Poona-Bangalore route of the Southern Railway passes north to south through the heart of this district; and as such this district is connected by railway to Bombay via Poona, and with Miraj, Hubli, Dharwar, Bangalore, etc. The Poona-Bangalore National Highway, which covers about 80 miles and 5 furlongs in this district, is another very important route of trade. In addition, the district is fairly served by five state highways, viz., (1) Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul road, (2) Satara-Pandharpur road (3) Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur-Hyderabad road, (4) Pingali-Mayani-Tasgaon road and (5) Mahad-Lonand-Phaltan-Pandharpur road.

Thus, roads in this district have facilitated trade with Bombay, Poona, Bangalore, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Ratnagiri and Kolaba districts. A detailed description of these routes is given in the chapter on Communications.

Out of the total population of the district, viz., 11,75,309, trade provided employment to 53,646 persons including 10,723 self-supporting individuals.

Employment.

The following table indicates the distribution of these self-supporting persons (1) category-wise and (2) as between rural and urban areas.

TABLE 22.

NUMBER OF SELF-SUPPORTING PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS TRADES IN SATARA DISTRICT (1951).

	Employers		Employees		Independent workers		Total		Total
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	
1. Retail trade otherwise unclassified ..	182	22	464	66	967	585	1,613	673	2,286
2. Retail trade in food-stuffs (including beverages and narcotics).	357	172	411	259	1,888	1,953	2,656	2,384	5,040
3. Retail trade in fuel (including petrol) ..	55	14	98	14	190	50	343	78	421
4. Retail trade in textile and leather goods ..	194	44	173	53	532	310	899	407	1,306
5. Wholesale trade in food-stuffs ..	3	9	3	23	17	112	23	144	167
6. Wholesale trade in commodities other than food-stuffs.	33	26	19	27	157	462	209	515	724
7. Real Estate ..	..	..	1	..	2	..	3	..	3
8. Insurance ..	..	..	37	..	5	3	42	3	45
9. Money lending, Banking and other financial business.	77	5	247	112	215	75	539	192	731
Total ..	901	292	1,453	554	3,973	3,550	6,327	4,396	10,723

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Employment.

The table shows that foodstuffs, among the retail trades, employed the highest number, i.e. 670, whereas 59 and 41 per cent. of the persons engaged in trade were coming from urban and rural areas respectively.

The statement below gives the extent of employment in the various categories of trade and commerce during the census years of 1911, 1921 and 1931.

STATEMENT OF THE EXTENT OF EMPLOYMENT IN TRADE IN SATARA DISTRICT DURING THE CENSUS YEARS OF 1911, 1921 AND 1931.

Serial No.	Categories of Trade.	1911.	1921.	1931.
1	Bank managers, moneylenders etc.	524	360	530
2	Brokerage, commission and exports	47	19	25
3	Trade in textiles	2,048	7	351
4	Trade in skins, leather and furs ..	32	128	73
5	Trade in wood	23	55	55
6	Trade in metals	24	2	44
7	Trade in pottery	....	118	49
8	Trade in chemical products.	56	11	21
9	Hotels, cafes, restaurants ..	1,011	138	310
10	Trade in food-stuffs	7,056	5,504	....
11	Trade in fuel	245	....	47
12	Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters, arts and sciences.	933	1,303	1,203
13	Trade of other sorts	1,414	....	2,423
14	Trade in clothing and toilet articles	....	...	361
15	Trade in furniture	....	....	31
16	Trade in building materials ..	....	....	23
17	Trade in means of transport ..	....	....	121
	Total—Trade ..	13,413	7,645	5,667

The statement is intended to serve as a historical presentation of the pattern and extent of employment in trade and commerce in this district. The table, however, does not give a real picture of the pattern of employment because, (1) the bases of censuses were different for different years; and (2) there was no degree of uniformity in the enumeration of employment in various trades.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade in food-stuffs absorbed the highest number of persons in 1911 and 1921. In 1931 the largest number of persons was engaged in "Trade of other sorts".

In the following paragraphs is described the structure, organisation and volume of trade in this district.

Change in Pattern and Organisation of Trade.

Since the publication of old Satara Gazetteer, the pattern and organisation of regional trade have changed considerably. Joint-stock companies and co-operative organisations have replaced the petty traders of the past. The development in the means of transport and communications and changes in the financial, social and institutional framework have brought about a revolution in the trade routes and volume and composition of trade. Consequently, trade has lost its local character and has become interregional.

The producer today dominates the market and not the middleman. Regulation and control of trade practices by the Government have put trade and commerce on a sound footing by bringing the consumer and producer face to face with each other.

Imports.

The chief articles imported are mostly industrial and consumers goods such as grocery, grains, cloth, building material, medicines, etc. Among grains, rice is imported from Bombay, Mahad, Karwar, Ratnagiri, etc.; tobacco from Sangli and Kolhapur; tea and coffee from Bombay and Poona; cloth from Bombay, Sholapur, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, Madras and Benares; hosiery from Ludhiana; sarees from Bangalore, Coimbtore, Bombay, Benares, Nagpur, Ichalkaranji, Madura, etc.; dhoties from Bombay, Nagpur, Sholapur, etc. Of building materials, timber is imported from Kolhapur, Nasik, Malbar, Karwar, Dandeli; hardwares from Bombay, Calcutta, Bangalore, etc.; cement from Bombay, Porbundar, Okha; medicines and drugs are imported from Bombay, Poona, Calcutta, Ahmadnagar, Panvel, etc.; brassware and copperware from Bombay, Bangalore, Nasik; glassware from Oglewadi, Talegaon; leather goods from Bombay, Kanpur, Lucknow, Kolhapur; cutlery from Bombay, Poona, etc.

Exports.

Following is an account* describing the position of export trade in 1885:—

"The chief exports are molasses, grain, groundnuts, turmeric, chillies, cotton, timber and cloth. Since the opening of bridged and well-made roads, molasses, the chief export of the district, has of late come into increasing demand, and the cultivation of sugar has widely spread. Millet, wheat, chillies, turmeric and tobacco are sent to Bombay by Chiplun, chiefly from Satara, Karad and Walva, by the local and Gujar Vanis who get these articles from the *Kunbi* husbandmen either in payment of debts or on cash payment. Cotton is sent from Walva and Tasgaon in bullock carts to Chiplun by Bhatias and Gujar Vanis who buy unginned cotton from the husbandmen, have it cleared by hand machines, and pack it in bales, each weighing about 250 pounds (10 mds.). As there is less local

* Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. XIX, 1885.

CHAPTER 6

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Exports.

demand owing to the growing import of European and Bombay piecegoods, the growing of cotton has lately fallen off.. .Coarse cloth, cotton sheets or *pasodis*, and blankets are chiefly sent to other districts."

Today (1960), export trade mainly consists of agricultural produce such asgroundnuts, groundnut oil, onions, turmeric, potatoes beans and *gul*.

Groundnut.

Groundnut is one of the most important commercial crops in Satara district. The validity of this claim can be adjudged from the fact that the average annual turnover of groundnut trade is in the vicinity of 1,67,391 Bengali maunds, valued at Rs. 77,15,031 at the prices prevailing in 1958-59. In 1957-58, the turnover of groundnut trade was the largest at Karad, *viz.*, 2,77,266 Bengali maunds valued at about Rs. 41,80,307. The other important centres where it is traded are Koregaon, Satara, Rahimatpur, Malharpeth and Wai, the volume of turnover at Koregaon and Satara being 61,801 and 35,650 Bengali maunds, respectively.

The importance of groundnut as a commercial commodity has been constantly elevated since the beginning of this century, and especially during the past two decades. This is due to intensive cultivation and increase in demand consequent upon the rise of Vanaspati industry. Recently many institutional agencies like agricultural produce market committees, co-operative sale and purchase societies and associations of traders have emerged. A number of oil mills and small oil crushing units have been established, while the old oil *ghanis* are fading away in importance.

At regulated markets, the procedure of sale and purchase of groundnut is according to the regulations laid down in the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939. At places not served by regulated markets, the producers bring their produce to the premises of traders, and sell it if the terms are agreeable to them. Nearly half of the groundnut produce is crushed in the local oil mills and the oil is mainly exported to Bombay, Poona, Mahad and Panvel. Oil cake, which is used as cattle-feed or manure, is sent to Poona, Mahad and Panvel. However, a large quantum of it is consumed locally.

Gul.

Gul forms a considerable volume of exportable surplus in this district. It was so even at the time of publication of the old Satara Gazetteer which listed it to be one of the chief items of exports. The production of *gul* in 1957, amounted to 8,94,684 Bengali maunds valued at about Rs. 134,20,260 at the then prevailing prices. The volume and value of turnover at Karad in 1957-58, was 2,50,824 Bengali maunds and Rs. 37,70,651, respectively. The other markets where *gul* is sold on wholesale basis, are Satara, Koregaon, Phaltan, Wai and Rahimatpur.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Exports.

Trade in *gul* was brought under the purview of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939, and as such the procedure of marketing is governed by it. At the unregulated markets the sellers bring it in bullock carts or trucks to the premises of the purchasers, and sell on outright cash basis. The agriculturists sell their sugarcane to the owners of *gul* factories, where it is crushed. The juice mixed with some chemicals is boiled in very big pans (*Kadhais*) for complete removal of colloidal impurities in the form of heavy scum. The turbid and juice obtained from the crusher has to be freed from suspended colloidal and other undesirable impurities before it is boiled to get a good quality of *gul*. At the striking point the pan is immediately removed from the furnace and is kept a few minutes under constant stirring. The liquid *gul* is then transferred into cooling pits. As the temperature comes down, *gul* begins to crystallise. It is then put into galvanised *gul* moulds (buckets) with perforated bottom.

Gul is mainly exported to Bombay, Poona, Mahad, Chiplun, Ratnagiri, Vijapur and Gujarat region. A large portion of it is carried by railway from Karad, Koregaon, Rahimatpur and Lonand stations. However, resort to the use of motor transport for export purposes is also very common.

With the exception of a few wholesale merchants, most of the trade is in the hands of non-producing ones. The period of brisk business ranges from January to May.

Turmeric.

"Satara is the most important centre of cultivation and claims nearly four-fifths of the whole production of it in Bombay Presidency." *

Turmeric (*halad*) is produced almost all over this district and is a good earner to its producers. The validity of this statement is proved by the fact that in 1958-59, the turnover of its trade was estimated to be about 1,00,785 Bengali maunds valued at 25 lakhs of rupees at the then prevailing prices. The volume of turnover at Karad, Masur and Wai, which are the main centres of this trade, was 55,875; 17,690 and 12,500 Bengali maunds, respectively in 1958-59. The other important centres of wholesale trade of turmeric are Satara, Malharpeth, Umbraj and Kole.

The main destinations of export trade of turmeric are Bombay, Poona, Sangli, Mahad, Chiplun, Rajkot, Ahmedabad and Delhi. It is sent either in the form of pieces or powder in railway wagons or trucks.

Onion.

Onion (*Kanda*) is another important commercial crop in this district. The average annual turnover of its trade is about 3,85,233 Bengali maunds, valued at about Rs. 12,38,333 at the prices prevailing in 1958-59. Lonand is the biggest centre of this trade with an average annual turnover of nearly 1,25,000 bags. The onions from

* Statistical Atlas, Bombay Presidency, 1925.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Exports.

Lonand are famous country-wide for their good taste and durability. The main destinations of their export are Bombay, Chiplun, Mahad, Hubli, Dharwar, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Delhi, Calcutta, Kolhapur, Madras, Lucknow, Allahabad, Ahmedabad, etc. They are also exported to foreign countries like Burma, Ceylon and Africa.

Besides, Lonand, the main centres of wholesale trade in onion are Phaltan, Satara, Karad and Masur. Sale and purchase of onions is regulated by the market committees. They are brought to the market yards by the sellers either in bullock carts or trucks, and are exported to the consumers markets by railway or trucks. Business is brisk between February and May.

Other Exports.

Following is an account of export trade from the old Satara Gazetteer : "millet, wheat, chillies, turmeric and tobacco are sent to Bombay by Chiplun, chiefly from Satara, Karad and Walva, by the local and Gujar Vanis who get these articles from the *Kunbi* husbandmen. Cotton is sent from Walva and Tasgaon in bullock carts to Chiplun by Bhatias and Gujar Vanis who buy unginned cotton from the husbandmen, have it cleared by hand-machines and pack it in bales, each weighing about 250 pounds (10 maunds)—Teak is sent from Jaoli and Patan to Chiplun and other parts by timber-dealers, who buy at departmental sales and sell yearly a certain number of teak trees mostly in Government forests. Coarse cloth, cotton sheets or *pasodis*, and blankets are chiefly sent to other districts".

Considarable changes have taken place since the publication of old Satara Gazetteer (1885), in regard to the composition and destination of export trade, as the following account would reveal.

Among other items. which do not form an inconsiderable portion of the total trade are potatoes, jowar, bajri, wheat, chillies, garlic, coriander, beans, tobacco, safflower, *tur*, *chawali* and tamarind (*chinch*). Koregaon, from where 2 lakh bags are exported is an important market of potatoes. Potatoes produced in Panchgani area are said to have good taste. Jowar and bajri, the main food-crops in the district, deserve a special mention by virtue of their large-scale production. However, due to their non-commercial character a special appraisal of their trade is not given. The destinations of their export are Bombay, Mahad, Chiplun, Ratnagiri and Panvel. Wai is an exporting centre of tamarind. Coriander is sent from Koregaon to Bombay, Belgaum, Hubli, Panvel and Thana on a large scale. Chillies and garlic are traded in large quantities at Karad, Satara, Rahimatpur and Lonand from where they are sent to Bombay. Mahad, Panvel, etc.

A picture of commercial activities in this district cannot be complete without an account of trade in honey which is prevalent at Mahabaleshwar and the areas near about. Before the Bombay Village Industries Board took over this activity, it was entirely in private hands, and the honey producers were unorganised. Its significance lies in the fact that it provides employment and income to

the people who have no other major source of livelihood. The total turnover of honey is about 27,013 lbs., valued at Rs. 36,738. Honey is mainly exported to Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad, etc.

A large quantum of wood fuel and charcoal is exported from the Mahabaleshwar forests to Bombay and Poona. Hand-made things having an aesthetic sense, *viz.*, footwears, made from *sambara's* leather, walking-sticks, engraved woodwork and ayurvedic herbs are exported from Mahabaleshwar.

Wholesale trade.

There had been a steady evolution in the quantum and pattern of wholesale trade since the end of the 19th century. The changes were commensurate with the increase in population and the consequent increase in demand for goods and commodities, respective legislation, transport facilities, supply of capital and marketing intelligence. By the beginning of this century and even later, there did exist a non-monetised sector of the population. Trade and comerce was in the hands of money-lenders.

Till late thirties, grains, groundnuts, turmeric, chillies and timber listed the chief articles of export trade. But volume of their export was small as compared to the present exports. A very small quantum of trade found its way to the Bombay market. Weekly bazars were the main centres of trade. The exporters or the agents of traders in distant outside towns used to buy from the producers who used to bring their goods to the bazar places. The merchants were moving in the villages to collect the goods.

From the late thirties, however the state of trade changed considerably. Larger quantities of goods were sent to Bombay and distant markets consequent upon the availability of railway wagons and automobiles. More banking as well as insurance facilities were made available. When Second World War broke out prices soared up and consequently, the agricultural producers and speculators were highly benefited. There was an all round increase in demand both at home and abroad, and thus the volume of trade increased, while there was a shortage of consumers' goods. This was followed by the rationing of the necessaries of life, which lasted in some form or other up to 1954. In the rationing period, Satara district supplied large quantities of food-grains to the Government. With the bifurcation of the old Satara district into North and South Satara districts in 1948, important markets like Tasgaon and Islampur were alienated to South Satara (i.e., Sangli) and thereby a considerable volume of trade in cotton, tobacco, groundnut and *gul* was transferred to South Satara.

The history of regulation of trade in Satara district began with application in 1944 of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, according to which the Karad Market Committee came into existence.

The following is a description of wholesale trade in its various aspects.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Wholesale Trade.

Satara is fairly rich in the production of agricultural commodities like groundnut, sugarcane, turmeric, onion, jowar, coriander, bajri, etc. Consequently, these commodities form a sizable portion of the wholesale trade in this district. Institutional agencies, agricultural produce market committees being the most important of them handle a large volume of trade, and the entire district except Khatav, Mahabaleshwar talukas and Man peta is served by them.

The important centres of wholesale trade are Satara, Karad, Koregaon. Phaltan, Lonand, Wai, Waduj, Patan, Umbraj, Rahimatpur Wathar, Malharpeth and Masur, where the following commodities are handled :—

Satara : Groundnut, groundnut oil and cake, turmeric, *gul*, jowar, *tur*, grams, onions, medicines and sugar.

Karad : Groundnut, groundnut oil and cake, *gul*, jowar, onions, chillies, powar bajri, garlic.

Koregaon : Groundnut, oil, potato, coriander, grams, *gul*, jowar, *chawali*, betel-leaf.

Phaltan : Onion, *kardai*, bajri, etc.

Lonand : Onion, jowar, bajri, *gul*, *kardai*.

Wai : Turmeric, *gul*, beans and jowar.

Wathar : *Potato*.

The above enumerated centres of wholesale trade are served by regulated markets, there being sub-market-yards at Wai, Waduj, Surul, Umbraj, Masur Malharpeth, Kole, Rahimatpur and Lonand. Under terms of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939, in accordance with which these markets are regulated, the market committee licenses all traders, general commission agents, brokers, weighmen, *hamals*, and recovers licence fees from them. It also lays down regulations relating to their operations. The producers bring their produce to the yard over which cess is collected by the market committee. It is then sold by open auction or open agreement and not by secret signs. Immediately, after the bargain is struck, an agreement is entered into and signed by the seller, buyer and commission agent in the presence of an official of the market committee. Value of the sales is given to the seller immediately after delivery of the goods. Deductions regarding merchandising charges, *viz.*, commission, insurance, brokerage, *hamali*, weighment, etc., are made. The market committee also notifies the prevailing prices of commodities and arbitrates in disputes arising out of quality of commodity and terms of agreement

The following is a description of the extent and pattern of wholesale trade at the most important centres in Satara.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Wholesale Trade.
Karad.

Karad is by far the greatest wholesale trade centre in this district. The following statement indicates turnover of regulated commodities at Karad, in 1958-59.

Commodity.		Volume of turnover. (Bengali maunds)	Value of turnover. Rs.
(1) Groundnut	..	95,515	18,24,117
(2) *Gul*	..	2,49,909	49,85,684
(3) Turmeric	.	55,875	13,18,350
(4) Chillies	..	9,589	7,52,275
(5) Onion	..	15,300	80,325
(6) Jowar	..	2,88,238	41,21,803
(7) Bajri	..	3,275	45,031
(8) Coriander	..	849	29,807

Groundnut, *gul*, jowar and turmeric are the important marketable commodities in this market. Nearly 75 per cent. of the *gul* produced is exported from Karad. The rise and fall of commodity prices depend upon the speculative activities in the Bombay market. There is a good number of oil-crushing mills at Karad and its hinterland. Nearly 50 per cent. of the production of groundnut is crushed here. Consequently there is a large volume of trade in oil and oilcake. Karad is also famous for wholesale trade in jowar, bajri, turmeric and chillies.

Satara.

Satara is known for the wholesale trade in groundnut, turmeric and *gul*. In 1958-59, the volume and value of turnover of groundnut were 35,650 Bengali maunds and Rs. 7,13,000; of turmeric 8,320 maunds and Rs. 1,73,040; and of *gul* 11,512 maunds and Rs. 2,53,264 respectively. There is a merchants' syndicate at Satara dealing in sugar, cocoanuts, etc. Its turnover of sugar between August and March 1960, was of about one lakh of rupees. The merchants import sugar from Kolhapur and Nira. Cocoanuts are brought from Calicut, Mysore and Malbar regions. Satara is mainly an assembling market and is a distributing centre for Satara taluka.

Koregaon.

Koregaon is a distributing centre in respect of groundnut oil and cake, potato, *gul* and coriander. Rice, salt, timber, sugar and cloth are imported from outside and are distributed between Koregaon, Khatav and Man talukas. Rice is brought from Mahad, Panvel, Barshi, Latur and Sholapur; salt is brought from Thana, Bhandup and Panvel; timber is purchased from Dandeli and Hubli. The timber merchants purchase from the forest contractors, and transport it in railway wagons and trucks. It is cut in a saw-mill according to requirements and is exhibited for sale.

Koregaon market is important in respect of wholesale trade in potato and groundnut. Nearly, two lakh bags of potatoes are exported from Koregaon, 80 per cent. of which are destined to Bombay. The seed for potato plantation is brought from Junnar, Khed and Manchar in Poona district. The area comprising Koregaon market produces about 1,50,000 Bengali maunds of groundnut. Groundnut is crushed, and its oil and cake are exported.

CHAPTER 6. Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Wholesale Trade. *Rahimatpur.*

Rahimatpur has a considerable volume of trade in groundnut, turmeric, coriander and *gul*. Its annual turnover is nearly seven lakhs of rupees in respect of groundnut, and one lakh of rupees each in respect of turmeric, coriander and *gul*. There are private godowns which are sometimes let on rent for storing these commodities.

Rahimatpur is a distributing centre of groundnut, groundnut oil, turmeric and coriander and a receiving and distributing centre of *gul*.

Regulated Markets.

History of regulation of markets in Satara district dates from 1944 when the agricultural produce market committee was established at Karad, under authority of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. It was then followed by the regulation of Koregaon market in 1949, Phaltan in 1952 and Satara in 1953. The Agricultural Produce Market Committee, Karad, has sub-market yards at Umbraj, Masur, Malharpeth and Kole; Satara has sub-market yards at Waduth, Wai and Surul; Koregaon Market Committee has sub-market yard at Rahimatpur; and Phaltan Market Committee has one at Lonand. The Agricultural Produce Market Committee of Karad serves Karad and Patan talukas; that of Satara serves Satara, Wai and Javli talukas; that of Koregaon serves Koregaon taluka only; and that of Phaltan serves Phaltan taluka and Khandala peta. The Khatav and Mahabaleshwar talukas and Man peta are not served by any regulated market.

Market Practices.

Under terms of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, the method of sales is regulated in the respective market yards. The price of agricultural produce brought into the market is settled by open auction or by open agreement; and no deductions are made from the agreed price of consignment except for any authorised trade allowance. However, this rule is not scrupulously observed and deviations are often found. Weighment is done usually by weighmen in the market yards in respect of *gul*, groundnut, cereals and pulses. However, the buyers sometimes take an opportunity to circumvent the supervision of the market committee over the weighment and the ultimate settlement of the bargain. Usually the payments are made in cash.

Some of the payments, however, are not made in cash but are adjusted against the accounts of the sellers. The sales proceeds are adjusted against the loans taken by the producer from the merchants. Prior to the establishment of regulated markets, merchants used to make numerous deductions from the sales proceeds on account of a multiplicity of market charges, *viz*., *dharmadaya*, *goshala* and temple charges, *kasar*, etc. By and large, this practice disappeared from the establishment of regulated markets. The recognised market charges cover taxes, toll, cess, commission or brokerage and weighment charges. This has reduced the burden on the agricultural sellers.

A market committee is a corporate body and is responsible for the management and supervision of regulated markets. It is composed

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Regulated Markets.

of members elected from among the constituencies of farmers and traders and government nominated members. Among the nominated members, may be the Marketing Inspector of the district, a taluka Mamlatdar or any citizen bent upon doing social work. However, sometimes it happens that though the representatives of the agriculturists are in majority some of them are influenced and won over by the traders. The Marketing Inspector is sometimes subordinate. Such things and many others adversely affect the cause of the agriculturist and defeat the very purpose of regulation, *viz.*, the adoption of particular methods of sale and the settlement of disputes through market committee.

The following is a description of the operations of the four agricultural produce market committees in this district.

Karad.

The regulated market at Karad was established in 1944.

Under terms of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, the commodities regulated were *gul*, groundnuts, *tur*, *mug*, chillies, onions, jowar, bajri and coriander.

Besides a principal market yard at Karad, there are sub-market yards each one at Umbraj, Masur, Malharpeth and Kole. The market area comprises Karad and Patan talukas. The Karad Market Committee acquired outside the town a site measuring twenty-five acres which would serve as market yard.

The following table gives the statistics of volume of trade handled by the Karad Market Committee in 1957-58 :--

Commodity.		Volume (Bengali maunds)	Value in Rs.
(1) Groundnut	.	277256	41,80,307
(2) *Gul*	.	250824	37,70,651
(3) Turmeric	..	96657	15,80,174
(4) Jowar	.	355406	48,22,542
(5) Bajri		8681	1,15,023
(6) Chillies	.	7011	3,35,476
(7) Onions	..	4690	36,538
(8) Tur	.	255	3,154
(9) Coriander	..	3467	40,326
(10) Mug	..	17	228

The volume of trade handled at Karad market and its sub-market yards in 1958 was as under :--

Groundnut	..	344795	Bengali maunds.
Gul	..	190582	"
Turmeric	..	78807	"
Chillies	..	7182	"

CHAPTER 6.
—
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Regulated Markets.
Satara.

The Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, was made applicable to the Satara market from June 1962 and the market committee was established in 1953. Market Committee consists of representatives of the agriculturists, traders and nominees of the Government and local authorities, and has jurisdiction over Waduth, Wai and Surul sub-market yards. Its jurisdiction extends over Satara, Javli and Wai talukas.

The following regulated commodities are handled at this market: groundnut (shelled and unshelled), coriander, turmeric, gram, *gul*, onions, *tur*, etc. The accompanying tables give, firstly, the volume of business transacted by the Satara Market Committee and, secondly, the volume of exports from Satara market.:—

TABLE No. 23.

VOLUME OF TRADE IN THE VARIOUS COMMODITIES AT THE SATARA MARKET.

Name of the Commodity.	1954-55		1955-56		1956-57		1957-58		1958-59	
	Bengali Maunds	Value (Rs.)	Bengali Maunds	Value (Rs.)	Bengali Maunds	Value (Rs.)	Bengali Maunds	Value (Rs.)	Bengali Maunds	Value (Rs.)
1. Groundnut (unshelled)	66,539	13,30,780	27,499	4,40,954	7,103	79,163	38,919	5,83,785	35,650	71,300
2. Groundnut (shelled)	154	4,312	112	3,136	160	4,480	1,173	32,844	....	....
3. Turmeric ..	4,566	1,18,716	2,756	78,900	3,136	78,400	2,072	24,864	8,320	1,73,040
4. Coriander ..	2,904	63,888	1,924	38,480	2,136	48,312	1,787	21,444	1,121	42,598
5. Gram ..	1,557	18,684	2,204	28,496	694	9,716	1,310	15,720	249	4,489
6. Tur	1,316	15,792	1,305	15,660	436	5,232	102	1,224	....	....
7. Onion ..	32,804	1,64,020	5,258	26,290	9,546	47,730	11,582	57,910	4,206	21,030
8. *Gul*	....	....	5,439	81,585	14,173	1,70,076	29,076	3,48,812	11,512	2,53,264

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Regulated Markets.

VOLUME, VALUE AND DESTINATION OF EXPORTS FROM SATARA MARKET.

Name of the Commodity.	Destination of exports.	Quantity exported.		Value of exports
				Rs.
Gul	Poona, Mahad, Ratnagiri, Bombay	4,605	lumps	42,576
Groundnut	Bombay, Poona	3,200	bags	72,000
Turmeric	Bombay, Poona, Sangli	6,000	"	3,75,000
Coriander	Poona, Madras	1,000	"	33,600
Onion	Chiplun, Mahad, Belgaum	6,225	"	62,250

The Committee collects licence fees from traders, commission agents, weighmen and coolies; and market cess on the sale of the various regulated commodities.

Koregaon.

Under the terms of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act of 1939, Koregaon was declared a regulated market from March 1949. The commodities regulated were groundnut, groundnut kernels, coriander, jowar, bajri, *gul*, *tur*, *mug*, *chawali*, gram and chillies. The principal market yard is at Koregaon, while there is a sub-market yard at Rahimatpur. Koregaon Market Committee which was established in October 1950, has jurisdiction over the whole of Koregaon taluka.

The Koregaon Market Committee provides for the notification of prices prevailing at Sangli, Karad, Satara and encourages the agriculturists to sell their commodities on the market yard in an unadulterated and standardised form. Open auctions are made under supervision of an official of the market committee which prescribes that weighments should be made only by licenced weighmen. It collects licence fees from the 'A' and 'B' class traders, commission agents, weighmen and levies a market cess on the sale of the regulated commodities.

The following table gives the volume of trade in the various regulated commodities in 1957-58 :—

TABLE No. 24.

VOLUME AND VALUE OF THE COMMODITIES HANDLED AT KOREGAON MARKET.

Commodities	Volume (Bengali Maunds)	Value in Rs.
(1) Groundnut shelled	61,091	10,99,638
(2) Groundnut unshelled	710	23,430
(3) *Gul*	22,464	3,59,424
(4) Chillies	1,327	76,966
(5) Bajri	1,062	13,806
(6) Jowar	10,040	1,30,520
(7) Gram	3,410	44,330
(8) Mug	840	11,760
(9) Tur	1,250	17,500
(10) Coriander	11,335	1,58,690
(11) Chawali	2,670	34,710

Regulated Markets.

Phaltan.

The Phaltan market was regulated in 1952, and accordingly *gul*, onions, safflower, jowar, bajri and wheat were regulated. The market area comprised Phaltan taluka and Khandala peta. Phaltan is the principal market yard, while Lonand is a sub-market yard.

The commodities are sold under the system of open auction which is made obligatory. The market committee collects *adat, hamali,* licence fee, market cess and weighment charges according to the bye-laws. Collection of charity, *sut*, etc., is prohibited.

The following table gives the volume and value of the arrivals of regulated commodities in the Phaltan market in 1957-58 :—

TABLE No. 25.

VOLUME AND VALUE OF THE COMMODITIES HANDLED AT PHALTAN MARKET.

Commodities	Volume (Bengali Maunds)	Value in in Rs.
(1) *Gul*	45,353	6,99,212
(2) Safflower	16,240	2,63,603
(3) Onion	1,57,500	4,55,712
(4) Jowar	68,914	9,02,251
(5) Bajri	24,237	3,54,281
(6) Wheat	10,125	2,37,320

Co-operative Marketing

The history of co-operative marketing in true sense of the term, began with the inauguration of the Karad Sahakari Kharedi Vikri Society Limited in 1937 and since then many co-operative marketing institutions were established. However, the principle of co-operation did not prevail much in the field of marketing. Co-operative institutions in this district function mainly at places served by regulated markets. At Karad, there are two co-operative sale and purchase societies and one multipurpose society. There is a multipurpose society at Koregaon, and a taluka co-operative purchase and sale society at Phaltan At Satara, the Satara and Javli taluka co-operative purchase and sale society and the Bahirdeo-Karanje multipurpose society function as commission agents in the market yard

The following statement shows the business of these societies in 1957-58.

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Co-operative Marketing.

TABLE No. 26.

ARRIVALS AND VOLUME OF TRADE TRANSACTED BY CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING SOCIETIES AT KARAD, SATARA, PHALTAN AND KOREGAON IN 1957-58.

Commodity.	Karad.		Satara.		Phaltan.		Koregaon.	
	Total arrival on the yard.	Volume traded.	Total arrival on the yard.	Volume traded.	Total arrival on the yard.	Volume traded.	Total arrival on the yard.	Volume traded.
Groundnut	2,77,256	27,357	38,919	18,607	....	....	61,091	1,857
Gul	3,33,435	83,982	29,076	1,490	29,570	561	....	....
Turmeric	38,879	13,394	1,3518	27	....	....	....	....
Coriander	....	....	1,787	316	....	....	11,333	130
Jowar	....	....	....	....	38,717	2,717	....	....
Bajri	....	....	....	....	15,340	60	1,062	5
Wheat	....	....	....	....	6,240	37	....	....
Tur	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,250	9
Gram	....	.	....	....		.	3,410	58
Chawali	....	....	....	....	....	....	2,670	28

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Market places.

The district and taluka headquarters and such other towns and villages, where periodical bazars are held, constitute the market places which rank next to wholesale trade centres. They are gradually losing their former importance, firstly, because of the developed means of transport which enable the distant producers to bring their stock to the markets, secondly because of increase in the number of retail shops and lastly because of the importance attached to centres of wholesale trade.

Following is the talukawise list of places, where periodical bazars are held :—

Taluka or Peta.	Places where periodical bazars are held.
Javli	.. Kasbe, Bamnoli, Kudal, Humgaon, Anewadi, Kelghar, Medha.
Karad	.. Charegaon, Supne, Kole, Nandgaon Ond, Kale, Karad, Mhasoli, Kolewadi, Masur, Pal, Tambe, Shenoli, Vadagaon, Haveli, Umbraj, Yelgaon, Belvade Bk., Undale, Perle, Shirgaon.
Khandala	.. Khandala, Lonand, Shirval.
Khatav	.. Aundh, Budh, Chitali, Diskal, Katar Khatav, Khatav, Mayani, Mhasurne, Pusegaon, Rajapur, Trimali, Kaledhon, Vaduj, Pusesawali.
Koregaon	.. Koregaon, Rahimatpur, Satara Road, Bhadale, Deur, Kinhi, Kiroli, Kumathe, Pimpode Bk., Targaon, Wagholi, Wathar.
Mahabaleshwar	.. Mahabaleshwar Panchagani.
Man	.. Mhaswad, Dahiwadi, Gondavale Bk., Kukudwad, Mahimangad, Malavadi, Mardi, Palashi, Shingnapur, Varkute, Vavarhire.
Patan	.. Chaphal, Dhamani, Dhebewadi, Helwak, Kumbhargaon, Marul, Morgiri, Patan, Tarale.
Phaltan	.. Phaltan, Adarki Bk, Barad, Bibi, Giravi, Gokhali, Nimblak.
Satara	.. Satara, Satara suburban, Angapur Tarf Vandan, Atit, Kanher, Limb, Nagthane, Parli, Tasgaon, Waduth.
Wai	.. Wai, Pachwad, Surul, Bhuinj.

Fairs.

Fairs which are still held on festive occasions give ample opportunities to petty traders to display their goods and carry on brisk sales. They are usually attended by the village populace.

CHAPTER 6. — Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Fairs.

The commodities handled at the fairs are cloth, ready-made clothes, utensils (of copper, brass, aluminium, stainless steel and bronze), sweetmeats, fruits, stationery, cutlery, crockery, toys, perfumery, toilets, watches, furniture, hardware, agricultural implements, ropes, cattle, etc. All the transactions take place on cash basis.

The approximate average value of the total turnover at important fairs in this district, is given below :—

Place of the fair.	*Value of turnover (In rupees.)*
Phaltan	8,000
Javli	2,000
Rahimatpur	1,500
Morni	5,500
Yeoti	2,000
Pal	5,000
Karad	10,000
Masur	4,500
Bhilar	2,500
Vaduj	2,000
Mayani	5,000
Aundh .. .	1,500
Khandala	2,200
Lonand	10,000
Malavadi . ..	2,000
Mhaswad	2,000
Total ..	65,700

The following is the list of places where fairs are held.—

Name of Taluka.	*Places where fairs are held.*
Javli ..	Morni, Parvat, Kasbe Tambi, Anewadi, Medha.
Karad ..	Savade, Yevati, Mhasoli, Tulsan, Sajur, Tambave, Shenoli, Gondi, Khubi. Kival, Chikhali, Masur, Karve, Pal, Kole, Rethare Bk., Vasantgad, Karad. Sadashivgad, Govare, Vadgaon, Haveli, Kolevadi, Talbid, Belvade, Tasvade, Atke, Koduli, Yelgaon, Yenape, Bhurbhushi, Ghogaon, Ond, Nandgaon, Vahagaon, Khodashi, Vanavasmachi, Ghonashi, Salshirambe, Jinti, Kavathe, Talgaon, Kharade, Vadoli, Bhikevar, Tembhu, Sayapur, Kese, Shirvade, Parale, Shirgaon.

CHAPTER 6. — Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Fairs.

Khandala	..	Ahire, Morve, Mhavashi, Harali, Andosi, Pipre Bk., Wagoshi, Asawali, Kanheri, Zagalwadi, Bhadavade, Bawade, Bhade, Khandala, Ajnuj, Pargaon, Koparde, Nimbodi, Padli, Lonand, Padegaon, Rui, Shirwal, Sangavi, Vadgaon, Naigaon, Kesurdi, Wathar Bk., Wing, Karnavadi, Bhalghar, Mirje.
Khatav	.	Kaledhon, Chitali, Kuroli, Vaduj, Vikhale, Vadgaon, Don, Bhosare, Pusesavli, Nimsod, Mayani, Khatgun, Mol, Daruj, Darjai. Dharpudi, Wakeshwar, Sundarpur, Kokarale, Ambheri, Jamb Pimpari, Aundh, Dahnodi, Pusegaon, Mhasurne, Chorade, Shenvadi, Khatav.
Koregaon	.	Kinhi, Fandulwadi, Rahimatpur.
Mahabaleshwar	..	Parsond, Old Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, Rajapuri, Taighat, Dhandeghar, Bhose, Bhilar.
Patan	..	Chapher, Chaphal, Urul, Yerad, Patan, Mhavashi, Taliye, Maneri, Ganjali, Zakade, Nav Chopadi, Belwade Kh., Tripudi, Ambrule, Addeo, Bondri, Pimpaloshi, Tolewadi, Dhoroshi, Ghot, Bambavade, Marlashi, Jalu, Kalgaon, Morgiri, Kokisare, Panchgani, Dhurade, Kusrund, Ralude, Ambrule, Marali, Sonawale, Maldan, Khale, Kusavade, Kumbharagaon, Ambeghar, Nisare, Jinti, Nathoshi, Mahind, Bucholi, Salane, Sanboor, Nigode, Karale, Adul, Nade, Udhavane.
Phaltan	..	Javli, Phaltan.
Satara	..	Nagthane, Borgaon, Sajjangad.
Wai	.	Chandavadi, Mandhardeo.
Man	..	Malavadi, Divad, Narwane, Palashi, Shingnapur, Dangari, Mhaswad.

Retail Trade.

Retail shops are the intermediaries between the wholesalers and consumers. Their stock-in-trade generally consists of grains, spices, chillies, salt, groundnut oil, coconut oil, sugar, *gul*, tea, coffee, soap, *agarbatti*, paper, slate, tooth powder, erasmic goods, petty medicines like aspro, anacin, purgolax, castor oil, paludrine, sulphadizine, etc., which they procure from wholesalers partly on cash and partly on credit basis. The retailers, especially the grocers, offer credit facili-

CHAPTER 6. — Banking, Trade and Commerce. TRADE AND COMMERCE. Retail Trade.

to their customers in turn. Satara, Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani and Karad municipalities have enforced the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act of 1948, which makes registration of all the shops and establishments compulsory. Karad, however, is the chief centre of retail trade.

Karad.

There are 723 retail shops employing the largest number of persons in the category in the district, *viz.*, 1,685. Of these the grocery and cloth and hosiery groups constitute the biggest number, and are dispersed in all the seven peths, *viz.*, Somwar, Mangalwar, Budhwar, Guruwar, Shukrawar, Shaniwar and Raviwar.

Satara.

There are 770 retail shops in Satara, the biggest number in the district. Retail shops provide employment to 1,347 persons in this town and are concentrated in Wards No. 3 and 5 of the town.

Of these, the grocery shops and cloth and hosiery shops number 185 and 79, respectively.

Mahabaleshwar.

There are 160 retail shops, dispersed in three wards. They provide employment to 397 persons in Mahabaleshwar. Of these the grocery shops constitute an important group numbering 25 with leather goods and footwear shops following a close second numbering 16.

Trade is very brisk during the "season" but dull during winter and monsoon, when the tourist traffic declines.

Panchgani.

There are 68 retail shops employing 144 persons. They are mostly concentrated in wards number three and four of this town. Of these the grocery shops constitute the prominent group of 16. Sweetmeat and cloth and hosiery shops follow a close second and number 11 and 7, respectively.

Trade is brisk during the "season" as in Mahabaleshwar.

Description of Retail Shops.

Description of retail shops dealing in the various commodity groups is given below :—

Grocery.

Grocery shops deal in cereals, pulses, *gul*, sugar, oil, ghee, spices, condiments, tea, coffee and provide for maximum employment in the whole group of retail establishments. Most of the traders conduct business on a small scale though the stock in trade varies between Rs. 500 and Rs 40,000. The local wholesale dealer supplies all their requirements and only occasionally they resort to Bombay, Poona, Sangli, Sholapur markets for purchases. Generally, they buy on credit. Business is dull during rainy season and brisk during October and March.

Cloth and Hosiery.

The cloth and hosiery group of shops which ranks next, sells all varieties of textiles buying their requirements either from the local agents of the textile mills or from business centres like Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Belgaum, etc. The value of the total turnover of an individual seller varies from Rs. 300 to Rs. 60,000. Business is brisk during spring and festive occasions and dull in rainy season.

The quality of cloth sold except during marriage and festive seasons is medium and coarse. Woollen goods are in demand only in winter.

Retail Trade.

Stationery and Cutlery.

These shops are located mostly in towns and cities having a substantial school-going number and deal in fountain pens, pencils, paper, toilet articles, socks, handkerchiefs, leather and plastic belts, toys, umbrellas, etc. The stock-in-trade is purchased directly from Bombay, Poona, Kolhapur, Dharwar, on cash basis. The value of the average turnover of individual retailer varies between Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 12,000.

Leather goods and Footwear.

Boots, sandles, chappals, suitcases, leatherstraps and raw material of shoe-making, etc., leather, nails, thread, etc., are sold in these shops. The purchases are directly made from factories at Kanpur, Lucknow. Calcutta, Bombay and Madras or from local artisans. The business of waterproof footwear is comparatively brisk on the eve of rainy season while quality leather goods are demanded in larger quantities in winter.

Metal Utensils.

These shops deal in utensils made of brass, copper, aluminium, bronze, stainless steel, German-silver, etc., which are purchased from Bombay, Poona and Madura. Aluminium utensils are generally purchased by the poor. Business is brisk in the post-harvest period (i.e., between October and April), and dull during rainy season.

Medicines.

Almost every town has a medical shop which dispenses and sells medicines of both the indigenous and foreign variety. Its stock-in-trade comprises homeopathic and allopathic drugs and medicines, injection tubes, surgical apparatuses, Ayurvedic medicines and condensed vitamins which are purchased from wholesalers or from the producing units directly or through their local agents. Restrictions on imports of foreign drugs have created a large market for Indian products.

Trade in Municipal Towns.

The exhaustive and accurate statistics of the volume and value of imports and exports in respect of all the municipal towns are not available. The octroi collections of the municipalities, however, give a rough idea of the imports. Octroi is collected only on imports and not on exports. Hence, the statistics are available mainly in the case of imports. In some cases only the figures of quantity are available while in others those of value are available. As the figures are calculated from the octroi returns of the municipalities, no statistical accuracy is claimed for the same.

The following statement shows the volume and value of imports and exports in 1957-58 in respect of important municipalities in the district.

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
TRADE AND COMMERCE.
Trade in Municipal Towns.

TABLE No. 27.

STATEMENTS SHOWING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS. (1957-58).

(Quantity in Bengali Maunds except when otherwise stated and value in Rs).

Commodity Group.		Wai.		Phaltan.		Karad.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cereals and Pulses	Imports	1,54,723	....	1,940	....	5,68,512	....
	Exports	3,869	....	....	....	....	....
Sugar	Imports	....	6,79,924	10,115	....	....	9,64,096
	Exports	....	4,12,546	....	....	....	....
Firewood	Imports	....	....	61,392	....	....	....
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....
Charcoal	Imports	....	....	9,786	....	....	....
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....
Petrol	Imports	....	....	70,700	....	....	9,74,656*
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....
Cement	Imports	....	33,246	6,954	....	....	1,41,696
	Exports	....	9,045	....	....	....	....
Building materials	Imports	....	2,87,677	1,032	....	2,08,352	5,20,578
	Exports	....	71,919	....	....	....	....
Cattle goods	Imports	....	....	1,067	....	....	....
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....
Tea	Imports	....	2,06,555	874	....	....	4,34,624
	Exports	....	68,008	....	....	....	....
Tobacco	Imports	....	2,89,164	....	52,911	7,248	4,26,144
	Exports	....	1,15,918	....	....	....	....
Piecegoods	Imports	....	7,88,911	238	....	....	69,34,976
	Exports	....	3,47,344	....	....	....	4,80,000
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	Imports	....	5,26,932	2310	....	....	8,95,104
	Exports	....	77,988	....	....	....	54,400
Kerosene	Imports	....	....	15,315	....	....	....
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	....
Miscellaneous	Imports	....	....	170	....	92,876	5,49,824
	Exports	....	....	....	....	....	13,184

* Includes Kerosene and Diesel.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Trade in Municipal Towns.

TABLE No. 27—*contd.*

STATEMENTS SHOWING IMPORTS AND EXPORTS BASED ON OCTROI RETURNS. (1957-58).

(Quantity in Bengali Maunds except when otherwise stated and value in Rs.)

Commodity Group.		Panchgani.		Mahabaleshwar.		Satara Suburban.		Satara Town.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cereals and Pulses	Imports ..	32,216	6,66,480	1,603	....	2,500	....	....	....
	Exports ..	286	6,580	....	....	....	....	....	....
Sugar	Imports ..	3,480	1,39,286	4,041	....	....	8,300	....	9,85,664
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,00,000
Firewood	Imports ..	16,403	24,563	16,080	....	5,668	....	2,48,000	....
	Exports ..	....	....	9,346	....	....	....	....	....
Charcoal	Imports ..	4,826	21,718	6,832	....	604	....	....	81,664
	Exports ..	....	....	5,009	....	....	....	....	....
Petrol	Imports ..	18,000*	53,665	25,000*	....	2,30,400	....	1,26,706*	....
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Cement	Imports ..	4,508	18,917	....	20,000	....	23,000	....	81,856
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6,400
Building materials	Imports ..	....	36,042	....	1,25,465	....	3,200	....	....
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Cattle goods	Imports ..	10,118	....	14,752+	....	1,951+	....	....	10,800
	Exports ..	....	....	11,200	....	....	....	....	....
Tea	Imports ..	125	30,000	....	17,299	....	4,700	....	6,18,768
	Exports ..	3	640	....	3,589	....	....	....	4,800
Tobacco	Imports ..	363	43,650	....	69,152	....	7,900	....	2,13,312
	Exports ..	....	....	....	6,400	....	....	....	2,560
Piecegoods	Imports ..	....	....	....	1,84,840	....	....	....	4,22,656
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	32,000
Brass, Copper, Iron, etc.	Imports ..	....	6,418	....	86,400	....	48,400	....	....
	Exports ..	....	....	....	12,800	....	....	....	....
Kerosene	Imports ..	40,956*	49,617	14,070*	....	96,000*	....	....	‡
	Exports ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Miscellaneous	Imports ..	....	27,150	....	1,82,448	....	2,07,240	....	18,82,560
	Exports ..	....	257	....	44,773	....	....	....	18,776

* Figures in Gallons. + Figures in Numbers. ‡ Included in Petrol.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Village Shop-Keepers.

Village shopkeepers constitute an integral part of the rural society, providing the village populace with their day-to-day requirements.

With the decline in the importance of periodical bazars, there has been an increase in the variety and volume of commodities handled by the village shopkeeper. His stock-in-trade generally consists of grains, groceries, salt, sugar, tea, *gul*, oils, spices, cocoanuts, soap, tobacco, betel-nut, chillies and other miscellaneous articles. Sale of cloth, foreign and indigenous medicines and drugs by a few large shopkeepers is also not unusual.

All articles are purchased by them from wholesale dealers in the neighbouring towns mostly on credit. Their transactions with the village customers are partly on cash and partly on credit basis. Sometimes they act as money lenders to farmers.

Hawkers.

Hawkers are to the towns what pedlars are to the villages. In the municipal towns in the district there are about 75 hawkers, distributed as under — Karad 35, Mahabaleshwar 20, Panchgani 2, Wai 5, Phaltan 5 etc. Of these Karad, Mahabaleshwar and Panchgani municipalities have framed special laws for them under which they are required to pay licence fees.

The hawkers carry goods on their person or in hand-carts or burrows. The goods include, milk, vegetables, fresh fruits, sprouted grains, cocoanuts, betel-leaves, pickles, fish, bread, groundnuts, sweets, dry fruits, cloth, hosiery, ice-cream, tea, peppermints, sugarcane juice, utensils, earthen-ware, toys, stationery, cutlery, crockery, grocery, oil, *agarbattis*, *bidis*, and other miscellaneous articles.

The hawkers purchase their stock-in-trade from wholesale or retail dealers in towns partly on credit but mostly on cash basis. In most cases they receive cash payment from their customers for the goods sold, but in some cases they are often paid in kind.

Shops Registered under Sales Tax Act.

The following statement (compiled from the quarterly returns under the Bombay Sales Tax Act of 1946), gives the number and volume of business transacted by the big shopkeepers as on 31st March, 1957, in rural areas of the district.

CHAPTER 8.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Shops Registered Under Sales Tax Act.

TABLE No. 28.

NUMBER OF REGISTERED DEALERS AND THEIR TOTAL TURNOVER FOR THE DISTRICT AS ON MARCH 31, 1957 (EXCLUDING THE SATARA, WAI, PANCHGANI, MAHABALESHWAR, KARAD, PHALTAN, MHASWAD, AND KOREGAON TOWNS).

(Figures of rupees in thousands.)

Taluka or Peta.	Foodstuffs.		Clothing and other consumer goods.		Building materials.		Transport vehicles and goods.		Total.	
	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.	No.	Rs.
Satara	10	1,155	3	200	..	..	..	..	13	1,355
Phaltan	29	8,389	12	1,632	4	334	..	..	45	10,355
Khandala	7	1,494	2	256	1	8	..	..	10	1,758
Javli	4	272	2	53	..	..	..	..	6	325
Karad	32	11,669	2	169	..	..	1	126	35	11,964
Patan	10	1,917	3	145	..	..	..	..	13	2,062
Khatav	11	1,175	14	530	..	..	..	..	25	1,705
Man	6	229	2	27	..	..	..	..	8	256
Wai	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Koregaon	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	109	26,300	40	3,012	5	342	1	126	155	29,780

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Shops Registered Under Sales Tax Act.

The statement does not include the shops whose turnover does not reach the minimum prescribed for registration under the Sales Tax Act (i.e., Rs. 10,000 in the case of importers and manufacturers and Rs. 30,000 in the case of other dealers), such as shops dealing in machinery and capital goods, fuel and power, industrial commodities and miscellaneous goods.

The number of registered dealers in the rural areas of the district was 155 as on 31st March 1957. Of these, 109 were dealers in foodstuffs with a total turnover of Rs. 2,63,00,000; 40 in clothing and other consumer goods with a total turnover of Rs. 30,12,000; 5 in building materials with a turnover of Rs. 3,42,000; and only one in transport vehicles and goods with a turnover of Rs. 1,26,000.

Dealers in towns registered under Sales Tax Act:—The following statement (compiled from the quarterly returns under the Bombay Sales Tax Act of 1946), shows the number and gross turnover of the registered dealers as on 31st March 1957, for the Satara, Wai, Panchgani, Mahableshwar, Karad, Phaltan, Mhaswad and Koregaon towns. Such dealers whose turnover does not reach the minimum prescribed for registration under the Act (i.e., Rs. 10,000 in the case of importers and manufacturers and Rs. 30,000 in the case of others) are excluded.

TABLE No. 29.

NUMBER OF REGISTERED DEALERS AND THEIR TOTAL TURNOVER FOR SATARA, WAI, PANCHGANI, MAHABALESHWAR, KARAD, PHALTAN, MHASWAD AND KOREGAON TOWNS IN SATARA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1957.

(Figures of Rupees in thousands).

Town.	Food-Stuffs and Hotels.		Clothing Materials.		Building Materials.		Transport and Vehicle Goods.	
	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*
Satara	60	22,648	71	14,348	11	1,262	....	....
Wai	28	3,337	15	1,436	....	....	....	....
Panchgani	11	1,844	3	71	....	....	....	....
Mahabaleshwar	27	680	2	67	....	....	....	....
Karad	93	21,652	78	14,978	2	1,950	5	4,926
Phaltan	61	25,024	20	1,783	...	....	1	549
Mhaswad	4	404	5	28	....	....	....	....
Koregaon	40	78,094	25	17,674	2	56	1	500
Total ..	324	1,53,683	219	50,385	15	3,268	7	5,975

* Gross turnover.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Shops Registered Under Sales Tax Act.

TABLE No. 30.

NUMBER OF REGISTERED DEALERS AND THEIR TOTAL TURNOVER FOR SATARA, WAI, PANCHGANI, MAHABALESHWAR, KARAD, PHALTAN, MHASWAD AND KOREGAON TOWNS IN SATARA DISTRICT AS ON 31ST MARCH 1957.

(Figures of Rupees in thousands).

Town	Machinery and Capital Goods.		Fuel and Power.		Industrial Commodities.		Miscellaneous.		Total.	
	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*	No.	G.T.O.*
Satara ..	....	....	....	....	8	1,947	11	420	161	40,625
Wai ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	43	4,773
Panchgani ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	..	14	1,915
Mahabaleshwar	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	29	747
Karad ..	1	9	....	....	8	2,642	15	1,009	202	47,166
Phaltan ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	27	83	27.363
Mhaswad ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9	432
Koregaon ..	3	10,086	....	....	3	86	4	739	78	1,07,235
Total ..	4	10,095	....	....	19	4,675	31	2 195	619	2 30,276

* Gross turnover.

The following table gives the townwise distribution of registered dealers and their gross turnover as on 31st March, 1957 :—

Serial Number.	Town	Number of dealers.	Gross Turnover in Rupees.
(1)	Karad	202	4,71,66,000
(2)	Satara	161	4,06,25,000
(3)	Phaltan	83	2,73,83,000
(4)	Koregaon	78	10 72,35,000
(5)	Wai	43	47,73,000
(6)	Mahabaleshwar	29	7,47,000
(7)	Panchgani	14	19,15,000
(8)	Mhaswad	9	4,32,000
	Total	619	23,02,76,000

Pedlars.

Following is a description of pedlars from the old Satara Gazetteer which states that "below the village shopkeepers are the pedlars and hawkers who are generally *Marwari* and local *Vanis*, *Telis*, *Kasars*, and *Shimpis*. These men travel from village to village during the six or eight months of the fair season". In 1959, there were nearly 600 pedlars in this district with a majority of them in Karad and Wai talukas. They carry a variety of articles which include groceries, fruits, ice-candies, vegetables, spices, ready-made clothes, *sarees*, *khans*, tea, bread, biscuits, sweetmeats etc., either on their person or on bicycles. Moving from village to village, they sell their goods on cash basis or against agricultural produce to their customers to whom they are intimately known. They usually purchase their stock-in-trade from the merchants at all the market places

Associations of Traders.

With the advancement of trade and commerce in the district, it was felt necessary to have organised associations to deal with the various problems faced by the trading community. These associations primarily aim at solving problems of the traders *vis-a-vis* the governing authorities, making available to individual traders various facilities and promoting security and stability to their trade.

The associations of traders in this district, however never developed beyond limited dimensions. The field and range of their activities was always limited to a small area. The following are the names of such associations. (1) The Kirana and Bhusar Merchants' Association, Karad, (2) The Cloth Merchants' Association, Karad, (3) The Saraf Association, Karad, (4) Kirana and Bhusar Merchants' Association, Lonand, (5) Traders' Association, Koregaon.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

The Kirana and Bhusar Merchants' Association, Karad, is a registered association and was established in 1958. The Cloth Merchants' Association was established in 1956 but was not registered till 1961. The Saraf Association, Karad, is the oldest one in this district. It was established in 1935 and registered in 1952 under the Trade Unions Act. The remaining two associations are not registered, and they function only as advisory bodies giving guidance and promoting a sense of security and stability among the traders of the respective trades.

Controls and Fair Price Shops.

The history of controls and rationing dates back to 1942. Consequent upon the general shortage of consumers' goods caused by World War II, the Government of India adopted a policy of rationing, and as such rice, wheat, jowar, bajri, sugar, kerosene, cloth, etc. were distributed through ration shops. Trade in these commodities in the open market and their movement were controlled and prohibited. The "compulsory levy system" was adopted, and accordingly certain quotas of grains were levied on the farmers. Rigidity continued to prevail in this respect till the first step towards decontrol was taken in 1948. The reasons generally advocated for the continuation of controls were that (i) rationing helps to maintain prices at a level which is fair both to the producer and consumer; (ii) it reduces hoarding by the middleman, and (iii) it reduces the hardships of the poor and allows for a balance of foodgrain supplies in the deficit areas.

The situation in regard to supplies of consumer goods improved to some extent after 1950. This prompted the Government to relax the extent of controls since 1950 which finally resulted in the complete decontrol in 1954. On account of the worsening food situation since 1956, limited controls in the shape of creating food zones, sale through fair price shops and restrictions on the movement of foodstuffs have been revived in this State.

Fair Price Shops.

The State Government introduced this scheme to distribute foodgrains at reasonable prices and to put a halt to the rising prices which imposed a heavy burden on the lower and middle classes. There were 273 fair price shops in September, 1960 in Satara district. Of them 45 are owned by village panchayats, 62 by co-operative societies and 176 by private shopkeepers. The quantity and value of foodgrains supplied to the fair price shops during 1959-60 was as under:—

Commodity.	Amount. (B. Mds.)	Value realised at ex-godown rate. Rs.
Wheat	98,420	14,36,938
Rice	57,408	10,38,384

This value at ex-godown rate is recovered from the fair price shopkeeper who is allowed to gain profit at 40 nP. per B. Md.

Rice is distributed at the monthly rate of three seers for an adult, and one and a half seer for a child. Wheat and sugar are made available in ample quantity. The customers are, however, required to maintain a card.

Co-operative societies and village panchayats are given preference over private shopkeepers for opening shops. Government regulations require the fair price shopkeeper to maintain (i) a stock register, (ii) a visit book, (iii) a complaint book, and (iv) daily sale registers. He is also required to execute an agreement and to deposit with the Government a sum of Rs. 150. The issue of cash memo in respect of each sale is made compulsory. The fair price shops are supervised by the District Supply Inspectors.

Weights and Measures.

The weights and measures in this country differ from place to place and also sometimes for each commodity at the same place. In order to put an end to the confusion resulting from such a state of affairs and to adopt some uniform system, the Parliament enacted the Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956. This Act laid down the basic units under the Metric System, which derives its name from the primary unit of measurement—the metre. The prototype of the metre is maintained at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sevres, France. The decimal system is applied to the units of weights and measures to indicate multiples.

In pursuance of the Standards of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, enacted by the Government of India, the then Government of Bombay enacted the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, for the enforcement of standard units based on the Metric System in the State. Adoption of this System began in 1958 and is scheduled to be completed by the end of 1966.

In Satara district, the provisions of the Enforcement Act relating to weights were applied from 1958 to the Karad market area, regulated under the Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1939. The system has also been extended to Satara City municipal area.

The following are the conversion tables concerning weights, measures, area and volume :—

1 Grain = 0·64799 grams = 64·799 mgs.

1 Tola = 180 grains = 11·6638 grams.

1 Val = 4·1 grains = 0·2916 grams = 291·6 milligrams.

1 Ounce = 2·43056 tolas = 28·3495 grams.

1 Pound (lb.) = 0·4535924 kilograms = 453·592 grams.

1 Seer = 0·93310 kilograms = 933·10 grams = 80 tolas.

1 Ton = 1·01605 Metric Tons.

1 Md. = 0·0367347 Tons = 0·0373242 Metric Tons.

1 Inch = 0·0254 metres = 2·54 centimetres.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Weights and Measures.

1 Foot = 12 inches = 0·3048 metres = 30·48 centimetres.

1 Yard = 36 inches = 0·9144 metres = 91·44 centimetres.

1 Furlong = 660 ft. = 220 yards = 201·168 metres.

1 Chain = 20·1168 metres.

1 Sq. Inch = 0·00064516 Sq. metres.

1 Sq. Foot = 144 Sq. inches = 0·092903 Sq. metres.

1 Sq. Yard = 9 Sq. feet = 0·83613 Sq. metres.

1 Sq. Mile = 640 acres = 258·999 hectacres.

1 Cubic inch = 16·3871 cubic centimetres.

1 Fluid Ounce = 28·4132 cubic centimetres.

1 Gill = 142·066 cubic centimetres.

1 Gallon = 277·420 cubic inches = 4·54596 litres.

1 Litre = 1000·028 cubic centimetres.

Except in the market areas of Karad and the Municipal area of Satara city, the old units of Weights and Measures are still prevailing. Some of the units, *viz*., *nilave*, *kolave*, *chipate*, *mapate*, *sher*, *adisari*, and *payali* have been prevalent for long. In course of time their unit values did change, though their unit names have remained the same.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

Roads in Old Times.

CHAPTER 7 COMMUNICATIONS

IN[1] THE FIRST HALF OF THE 18TH CENTURY, there were two principal routes above the Sahyadris. First, the Poona-Kolhapur and Karnatak route ran by the little Bor pass in Poona, the Salpa pass at the north-east of Koregaon, the Nhavi pass south-east of Koregaon and then by the line of the present Satara-Tasgaon road. The other main line was the one east to Pandharpur by the Kaledhon pass.

In 1826[2] ten routes of traffic ran through the Satara district. Of these ten routes, two ran north and south from Poona to Belgaum, two to north-east from Satara to Sirur in Poona and Ahmadnagar, two to east from Satara to Sholapur, two to south-west from Karad, one to Rajapur and the other to Malvan in Ratnagiri, and two ran west to Dapoli in Ratnagiri. Of the two routes which ran south from Poona to Belgaum through Satara, one route about 241 miles long, went by the Bor pass through Koregaon, and the other route, about 213 miles long, crossed the Nira near Shirwal at 30 miles south of Poona and 34 miles north of Satara, and passed by the Khambatki pass through Satara, Karad and Islampur. Of the two routes which ran north-east from Satara, one covered a length of 87 miles to Sirur, and the other ran 120 miles to Ahmadnagar. For 34 miles from Satara to Shirwal both these routes followed the Poona-Belgaum route by the Khambatki pass. Of the two routes which ran east from Satara to Sholapur by Pandharpur, one route, about 131 miles long, went to Triputi, Vishapur and Pingli, the other route about 148 miles long, passed by Rahimatpur, Pusesavali, Mayani and Kaledhon pass. Of the two routes which ran south-west from Karad, one route, about 117 miles long, passed by the Anaskura pass to Rajapur, and the other route, about 119 miles long, passed by Kolhapur and the Phonda pass to Malvan.

[1] Compiled from the account of roads in the Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency, Vol XIX, 1885, pages 194 to 200.

[2] Clunes' Itinerary, 31-37, 44-46, 64-68.

CHAPTER 7.
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Communications.
INTRODUCTION.
Roads in Old Times.

The first made road was from Poona to Satara by the Salpa pass. In 1841 the whole of this road was made fit for carts. In 1848, except along the Old Poona and Satara-Mahabaleshwar made roads, the traffic went by pack bullocks. The Poona-Belgaum and the Satara-Kolhapur roads were both passable to carts.

By 1885 Satara was well provided with roads. In 1883 the district had 51 routes of roads running over a stretch of 956 miles. Of these. 206 miles were metalled and 166 miles were *murumed* (i.e. laid with crumbly trap). Of these, seven routes running over 372 miles were maintained out of provincial revenues, and were under the charge of the Public Works Department. The remaining 44 routes running over 583 miles were maintained from local funds. Of the 44 routes maintained from local funds, three were first class routes running over 89 miles, 13 were second class routes running over 204 miles and 28 were third class routes of 290 miles length.

The state of transport and communications by the end of the last century was far better in Satara district* than in most of the other districts in the Bombay Presidency. Of the fifty-one routes thirteen *viz.*, the Poona-Belgaum, Satara-Lonand-Poona, Satara-Tasgaon and Karad-Tasgaon roads which ran North and South, and the Varandha-Dharampuri. Surul-Mahabaleshwar, Wai-Adarki, Satara-Mahabaleshwar, Satara-Pandharpur, Malharpeth-Pandharpur, Karad-Nagaji, Karad-Kumbharli and Peth-Sangli roads, which ran east and west, were important. The Poona-Belgaum road was the chief line of traffic and was metalled and bridged throughout. The Satara-Lonand road was *murumed* and was bridged throughout except on the Vasna river. This road was shaded by magnificent avenues of tamarind and fig trees. The Satara-Tasgaon second class road was not bridged throughout; at Dhamner in Koregaon the Krishna was crossed by a ferry in the rains. The Karad-Tasgaon road was *murumed*.

Besides the chief roads, there were many bullock-cart tracks and passes.

Since the Road Development Programme of 1946 sponsored by the State Government, there has been considerable progress as regards road development in this district. The highways were improved upon and many a bridge was constructed. By March 1958, the total mileage of major roads was 1,282, of which 723 miles were metalled and 559 un-metalled@. The centres of commerce and trade, *viz.*, Karad, Satara, Koregaon, Lonand, Wai, Phaltan are all served by highways. This district enjoys the advantage of being connected by various routes to Ratnagiri, Kolaba, Thana, Poona, Bombay, Sangli and Sholapur districts. The Poona-Bangalore highway links this district to Belgaum, Hubli and Bangalore.

* Satara district was then comprised of the present Satara district and some talukas of Sangli.

@ Handbook of Basic Statistics, Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
INTRODUCTION.
Roads in Old Times.

The Poona-Bangalore railway line passes north to south through the centre of the district and traverses the Phaltan, Koregaon and Karad talukas. Its total length in this district is about 74 miles@@.

The rivers in this district are not navigable and as such, water transport is not of any material significance. This district is not served by any aerodrome. In the paragraphs which follow is given a detailed picture of various modes of transport and communications in this district.

Roads are classified, according to their importance, into five categories, viz., (i) National Highways, (ii) State Highways, (iii) Major District Roads, (iv) Other District Roads and (v) Village Roads.

As facility of transport is one of the determinants of the degree of economic progress of a region, the degree of road development assumes a special importance. The following statement indicates mileage of the various categories of roads in Satara district.

Serial No.	Categories of Roads.	Mileage.
	Major Roads	
1.	National Highways	80·63
2.	State Highways	212·55
3.	Major District Roads	546·08
	Total ..	839·20
	Minor Roads	
4.	Other District Roads	522·25
5.	Village Roads	615·35
	Total ..	1,137 60
	Grand Total ..	1,976·86

ROADS.
National Highway.
Poona-Bangalore Road.

This National Highway starts at Poona and enters Satara district on its northern border at mile 29/3, a distance of 5 furlongs from Sarole. In its stretch it runs through the Khandala, Wai, Medha, Satara and Karad talukas. The total length of this highway in this district is 80·63 miles and is under control of the Buildings and Communications Department. In its course between mile No. 41/4 and 44/2 it traverses the Khambatki Ghat. The entire length of this road in Satara district is black-topped. After its stretch from North to South, it leaves Satara in mile No. 110 and enters Sangli district to proceed further to Kolhapur, Belgaum and Bangalore.

@@ Handbook of Basic Statistics, Bureau of Economics and Statistics, Maharashtra State.

CHAPTER 7. — Communications. ROADS. National Highway. *Poona-Bangalore Road.*

It touches the following places at the mile numbers indicated against them :—

Place.			Mile No.	
(1) Sarole	..	..	30	
(2) Shirwal	..	..	32	
(3) Khandala	..	..	42	I.B.*
(4) Vele	..	..	45	
(5) Surul	..	..	48	
(6) Kavatha	..	..	50	
(7) Bhuinj	..	..	54	
(8) Pachwad	..	..	57	
(9) Udtara	..	..	58	I.B.
(10) Anewadi	..	..	60	
(11) Varya	..	..	65	
(12) Satara	..	..	69	I.B.; and T.B.[1]
(13) Shendra	..	..	74	
(14) Borgaon	..	..	78	
(15) Atit	..	..	82	I.B.
(16) Kashil	..	..	85	
(17) Umbraj	..	..	91	I.B.
(18) Karad	..	..	102	I.B.
(19) Wathar	..	..	108	

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
1. Shirwal	Mahad-Shirwal-Lonand-Pandharpur.	S. H. [a]
2. Khandala . ..	Lonand-Khandala ..	M. D. R.[2]
3. Vele .. .	Vele-Pimpida ..	M. D. R.
4. Surul	Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul.	S. H.
5. Joshi-Vihir ..	Wai-Wathar ..	M. D. R.
6. Bhuinj	Bhuinj-Vaduth-Mahuli ..	O. D. R.[3]
7. Pachwad	Pachwad-Medha .	M. D. R.
8. Satara	(1) Satara-Pandharpur ..	S. H.
	(2) Satara-Mahabaleshwar	M. D. R.
	(3) Satara-Vaduth-Satara Railway Station.	M. D. R
	(4) Satara-Shendra ..	M. D. R.
	(5) Satara-Rahimatpur-Tasgaon.	M. D R.

* I.B.—Inspection Bungalow.
[1] T.B.—Travellers Bungalow.
[a] S.H. State Highway.
[2] M D.R. -Major District Road.
[3] O.D.R.- Other District Road.

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
9. Nagthane ..	.. Patan--Tarale—Nagthane ..	M. D. R.
10. Khodad ..	.. Saspad—Venegaon—Targaon	O. D. R.
11. Umbraj ..	.. (1) Umbraj—Tarale ..	
	(2) Umbraj—Mayani ..	M. D. R.
12. Karad ..	.. (1) Guhagar — Chiplun — Karad--Bijapur.	S. H.
	(2) Karad--Tasgaon ..	M. D. R.
	(3) Karad — Kolewadi — Gudhe—Dhebewadi.	M. D. R.
	(4) Karad—Yelgaon—Yenpe —Khind—Mohare.	M. D. R.
	(5) Karad — Pusesavali — Shingnapur—Natepute.	M. D. R.
	(6) Karad--Shenoli Railway Station.	O. D. R.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.
National Highway.
Poona-Bangalore Road.

This road crosses the following rivers over bridges at the mile numbers indicated :

River.	Mile No.
Nira	29/5
Krishna	54/4
Venna	65/6
Urmodi	78/8
Tarali	90/4
Uttar Mand	91/4
Koyna	101/2
Mand	108/3

This highway has a black-topped surface and is motorable throughout the year.

State Highways.
Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul Road.

The Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul State Highway emanates from the Poona-Bangalore Road (National Highway) at mile No. 48 near Surul and runs in the western direction a distance of 37 miles upto Ambinali Ghat on the western boundary of Satara to enter the Kolaba district. It passes through the Pasarni and Ambinali Ghats which fall between mile numbers 8/4 to 14 and 28 to 37 respectively, and traverses the Wai, Mahabaleshwar and Jaoli talukas. The surface of this highway is asphalted upto mile 27/4, and water bound macadam beyond that

It touches the following places :—

	Mile No.
Wai	6 I.B.
Panchgani	16 I.B.
Mahabaleshwar	26 I.B.
Ambinali	37 T.B.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.
State Highways
Poladpur-Mahabaleshwar-Surul Road.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of Junction.	Name of Road.	Class of Road.
Wai	(1) Wai—Pachwad ..	M. D. R.
	(2) Wai—Dahiwadi ..	O. D. R.
Panchgani	Kudal—Panchgani ..	O. D. R.
Mahabaleshwar	Satara—Mahabaleshwar ..	M. D. R.

The highway crosses the Krishna river over a bridge at Wai and is motorable throughout the year.

Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur Road.

This state highway starts from Guhagar in Ratnagiri district and enters Satara on its western border at mile 46/6 on Ghatmatha near Bapoli. It runs a distance of 47 miles and 2 furlongs in the east with a bulge towards south, and leaves this district at mile 94 near Surali to enter Sangli district. During its course, it crosses the Patan and Karad talukas and the Kumbarli Ghat (from mile 46/6 to 48/6). This road joins the Poona–Bangalore National Highway in its mile No. 85/1, and runs a distance of 5 furlongs alongwith it and again takes off from it in mile 85/6. The surface of this road from mile 46/6 to 85/1 is asphalted and that from mile 85/6 to 89/6 is concrete. The section between miles 89/6 and 94 has a water bound macadam surface.

It touches the following places :—

			Mile No.
1.	Helwak	.. .. ..	52 I.B.
2.	Patan	.. .. ..	66 I.B.
3.	Malharpeth	.. .. ..	72 I.B.
4.	Karad	.. .. ..	87 I.B.
5.	Ogalewadi	.. .. ..	90

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
Malharpeth	Malharpeth — Umbraj—Pandharpur.	M. D. R.
Karad	(1) Poona—Bangalore ..	N. H.
	(2) Karad—Tasgaon ..	M. D. R.
	(3) Karad—Kolewadi—Gudhe — Dhebewadi.	,,
	(4) Karad — Masur — Targaon—Rahimatpur — Koregaon—Lonand.	,,
	(5) Karad — Yelgaon — Yenpe—Khind—Mohare.	,,
	(6) Karad — Pusesavali —Shingnapur—Natepute.	,,
	(7) Karad — Dushere—Shenoli Railway Station.	O. D. R.

This road crosses the following rivers over bridges.

(1) Koyna	..	..	In mile 52
(2) Kera	..	..	" " 65/1
(3) Krishna	..	..	" " 87

It is motorable throughout the year except minor interruptions over the submersible bridge across the Krishna at Karad.

Mahad—Pandharpur Road.

This state highway starts from Mahad in Kolaba district and enters Satara at mile No. 48/5 near Shirwal. From Shirwal the general direction of this road is from west to east. After traversing a distance of about 49 miles and 4 furlongs it enters Sholapur district at mile 98/1 near Dharampuri village, Dharampuri being in Sholapur district.

In its stretch it touches the following important places :—

				Mile No.	
Shirwal	..	..	..	48/5	
Lonand	..	..	..	66	I.B.
Taradgaon	..	..	..	70	
Phaltan	..	..	..	83	I.B.

This highway crosses the Poona—Bangalore road at mile 48/5 near Shirwal, and the old Poona—Satara road at Lonand.

Though this road is classified as a state highway, actually its condition at present does not conform to the stipulations laid down for a state highway. Section of this road from Shirwal to Lonand has a water bound macadam surface. There are a number of natural crossings and Irish bridges (i.e. dips with paving). Under the Vir Dam Project the section between mile 50/1 to 54/3 is being diverted to a higher level to avoid its submergence below Vir reservoir. The diversion road is almost complete but remains to be opened for traffic. The section from Lonand upto border of the district is asphalted. The entire length of this highway in Satara is motorable throughout the year except some interruptions during heavy rains. There is neither any bridge on this road, nor any important river crosses it. The average width of this highway including side shoulders is 24 feet.

Satara—Pandharpur Road.

This state highway takes off from the Poona-Bangalore road at mile 69/3 at Satara. It runs a distance of 61 miles and 3 furlongs in the eastern direction until it enters the Sholapur district at mile 61/3. It traverses the Satara, Koregaon, Khatav and Man talukas.

This road is in charge of the Buildings and Communications Department. Of the total length of 61 miles and 3 furlongs length of 59 miles and 3 furlongs (*viz.* between 1 and 11 and 12 to 61/3) has a water bound macadam surface and only 2 miles length is black-topped.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.
State Highways
Satara—Pandharpur Road.

It touches the following places at miles indicated against them.

		Mile No.
Mahuli	.. .. ..	4
Koregaon	.. .. ..	11 I.B.
Pusegaon	.. .. ..	22
Pingli	.. .. ..	35
Gondawala	.. .. ..	40 I.B.
Mhaswad	.. .. ..	54 I.B.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it,

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
1. Koregaon ..	Karad — Masur —Koregaon—Lonand.	M. D. R.
2. Pusegaon ..	(1) Aundh—Phaltan ..	O. D. R.
	(2) Pusegaon—Vaduj—Kaledhon	M. D. R.
3. Pingli .. .	(1) Karad — Pusesavali—Vaduj—Dahiwadi—Shingnapur.	„
	(2) Pingli—Mayani—Tasgaon ..	S. H.
4. Mhaswad ..	(1) Mhaswad—Shingnapur ..	M. D. R.
	(2) Mhaswad - Shenewadi ..	O. D. R.

The road crosses the following rivers and nallas and there are bridges over all of them :—

		Mile No.
(1) Krishna	.. .. ..	3
(2) Vasna	.. .. ..	9/7
(3) Koregaon nalla	.. ..	11
(4) Lodhawada nalla	.. ..	45
(5) Man	.. .. ..	52
(6) Karanj nalla	.. .. ..	52

This highway is motorable throughout the year.

Tasgaon-Pingli-Mayani Road

This state highway starts from Tasgaon in Sangli and enters Satara district at mile 29 near Mayani on the southern border. It runs a distance of 17 miles and 4 furlongs from south to north to join the Satara-Pandharpur State Highway in its mile 46/4 near Pingli.

It touches Katar Khatav village at mile 39 where it meets Pusegaon-Vaduj-Katar Khatav road. This road does not cross any major river.

The entire length of this highway in Satara has water bound macadam surface and is motorable throughout the year.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications
ROADS.
Major District Roads.
Satara-Vaduth-Satara Rly. Station Road.

This road emanates from mile 69/3 of the Poona-Bangalore National Highway at Satara and runs to the north-east a distance of about 10 miles. It connects Satara town with Satara railway station, and traverses the Satara and Koregaon talukas. The entire length of this road is black-topped and is in charge of the Buildings and Communications Department.

It touches the following places :—

	Mile No.
Wadhe	3
Arale	5
Vaduth	7

It does not cross any important road, but crosses the following rivers at the miles indicated against them, and there are bridges over all of them :—

	Mile No.
Venna	3
Krishna	6
Vasna	10

It is motorable throughout the year.

Wai-Wathar Road.

This road starts from Wai and terminates at Wathar. It runs a distance of 20 miles in the east and traverses the Wai and Koregaon talukas.

It touches Ozarde, Shirgaon and Pimpoda.

The Poona-Bangalore road crosses it in its mile No. 8 near Joshi Vihir and the Pimpoda-Sonka road takes off from it at Pimpoda.

It does not cross any big river. The surface of this road is water bound macadam and is motorable throughout the year.

Satara-Mahabaleshwar Road. (Via Kelghar Ghat).

This road starts from Satara at mile No. 67/4 of Poona-Bangalore road and runs in the north-west direction. It traverses the Satara, Jaoli and Mahabaleshwar talukas, and terminates at Mahabaleshwar hill station at its mile No. 32/7. The road is classified as a Major District Road in the revised Road Planning of Satara district. This is the shortest route to Mahabaleshwar hill station and as such, is most convenient to the travellers coming from Bangalore side and the Deccan.

The road touches the following important villages on its way :—

(1) Kanher . . .	Mile No. 7.
(2) Ankla	Mile No. 8.
(3) Medha	Mile No. 15.
(4) Ambheghar	Mile No. 20.
(5) Kelghar	Mile No. 21.

It crosses the river Venna at Kanher in mile No. 7/2 where there is a bridge and also at mile No. 19/7 near Ambheghar, where there is no bridge.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.
ROADS.
Major District Roads.
Satara-Mahabaleshwar Road. (Via Kelghar Ghat).

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by this road :—

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
Medha ..	.. Medha-Pachwad	.. M. D. R.
Kelghar ..	.. Kelghar-Kedambe	.. V. R.

The surface of the road is water bound macadam and is motorable for eight months only. The work of improving it is in progress and it is expected to be motorable throughout the year in near future.

Malharpeth-Pandharpur Road.

This road emanates from the Guhagar-Chiplun-Karad-Jath-Bijapur State Highway at Malharpeth at mile No. 72. It runs a distance of 10 miles in the north-east upto Umbraj and 53 miles in the east upto Varkute on the eastern boundary of the district to enter the Sholapur district. It covers a distance of 63 miles in Satara district and traverses the Patan, Karad, Khatav and Man talukas. Surface of the entire length of the road falling in this district is water bound macadam.

It touches the following places in its stretch :—

	Mile No.
Charegaon ..	.. 6
Umbraj ..	.. 9
Masur ..	.. 13
Mhasurne ..	.. 32
Mayani ..	.. 41
Varkute ..	.. 62

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it :—

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
Charegaon ..	.. Charegaon-Padloshi	.. O. D. R.
Umbraj ..	.. Poona-Bangalore	.. N. H.
Masur ..	.. Karad-Masur-Rahimatpur	.. M. D. R.

This road crosses the Krishna river near Umbraj. There is no bridge over the road. It is not motorable throughout the year.

Karad-Masur-Targaon-Koregaon-Lonand Road.

This road starts from Karad on the Poona-Bangalore road at mile No. 100/8, and a little away from the confluence of the Krishna and the Koyna. Its length of 1 mile and 7 furlongs from the starting point is common with the Karad-Bijapur road and has a cement concrete surface. Total length of this road is 42 miles and 5 furlongs. In its stretch from south to north it traverses the Karad, Koregaon and Phaltan talukas and touches the following important trade centres and railway stations :—

Masur	..	in mile	9
Targaon	..	in mile	15
Rahimatpur	..	in mile	23
Koregaon	..	in mile	31
Padali	..	in mile	37
Deur	..	in mile	42/5

It either touches or crosses the following roads :—

Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
Rahimatpur ..	.. Satara-Tasgaon ..	.. M. D. R.
Koregaon ..	.. Satara-Pandharpur	.. S. H.
Deur ..	.. Old Poona-Satara ..	. M. D. R.

The surface of this road except its section between Rahimatpur and Koregaon is unmetalled. It is a fair weather road and traffic over it is obstructed in the rainy season.

Satara-Rahimatpur-Tasgaon Road

The road starts from Satara on the Poona-Bangalore road at mile No. 70/2 and runs a distance of about 6 furlongs in common with the latter. In its stretch in the south-east direction it traverses the Satara, Koregaon and Khatav talukas and enters Sangli district to terminate at Tasgaon. Total length ot the road in Satara district is 29 miles and 2 furlongs. It crosses the Krishna in mile No. 12 near Dhamuer where there is a seasonal ferry service. A submersible bridge was proposed there.

The following villages are situated by the road :—

Chinchner	..	in mile	8/1
Dhamner	..	in mile	12/1
Rahimatpur	..	in mile	14/5
Pusesavali	..	in mile	27/7

It crosses the Karad-Masur-Targaon-Koregaon-Lonand road in mile 15, the Nandoshi-Gopuj road in mile 22/6 and the Karad-Pusesavali-Natepute road in mile 27/7.

CHAPTER 7. — Communications. ROADS. Major District Roads.

The surface of the road is metalled. After completion of the proposed bridge at Dhamner it will be motorable throughout the year.

Karad-Pusesavali-Nateputc Road.

Starting from Karad the road runs towards the east and forms part of the Karad-Bijapur State Highway for nearly 3 miles. Thereafter it takes off towards the north-east upto Shingnapur on the border of the district to enter Sholapur district where it terminates at Natepute. It passes through the Karad, Khatav and Man talukas over a distance of about 52 miles. It crosses the Nandani river at mile 17, the Yerla at mile 28 near Vaduj, the Man at mile 39 near Dahiwadi and a perennial *nalla* at mile 47 near Vavarhire. These rivers and streams cannot be crossed due to rising flood waters during the monsoon.

It touches the following places :-

Kurla	..	in mile	9
Pusesavali	..	in mile	15
Vaduj	..	in mile	28
Pingli Bk	..	in mile	35
Dahiwadi	..	in mile	39
Vavarhire	..	in mile	47
Shingnapur	..	in mile	52

The following roads are crossed by it :—

	Place of Junction.	Name of the Road.	Class of Road.
1.	Mile No. 8	.. Malharpeth-Pandharpur	.. M. D. R.
2.	Pusesavali	.. Satara-Tasgaon ..	.. M. D. R.
3.	Mile No. 23	.. Nandoshi-Gopuj ..	.. M. D. R.
4.	Mile No. 35	.. Satara-Pandharpur	.. S. H.

Karad-Yelgaon-Yenpe-Mohore Road.

The section of this road between Karad Bijapur road and Pusesavali is not motorable, while the rest is motorable throughout the year and has a metalled surface.

This road emanates from mile No. 105/3 of the Poona-Bangalore road, i.e. about 3 miles south of Karad. It runs towards the south-west covering a distance of 15 miles and 2 furlongs right upto the border of this district to enter Sangli district. It traverses only the Karad taluka.

The entire surface of the road is unmetalled. After execution of the proposed improvements, it is expected to be motorable throughout the year.

Karad–Kolewadi–Dhebewadi Road.

This road starts from Karad on the Poona–Bangalore road at mile No. 102/5 and runs towards the west. The total length of the road is 16 miles and it traverses the Karad and Patan talukas.

It touches the following places :–

Kolewadi	..	in mile	8/6
Kusur	..	in mile	9/2
Gudhe	..	in mile	16
Dhebewadi	..	in mile	15/5

The surface of this road is metalled and it is an all weather road.

Dahiwadi–Mograle–Phaltan Road.

Starting from Dahiwadi this road traverses in common with the Karad–Pusesavali–Natepute road for about two miles. It then takes a turn towards the north and runs through Man and Phaltan talukas upto Phaltan town. The total length of this road is 23 miles and 3 furlongs.

The following villages are situated by the side of this road :–

Vadgaon	..	in mile	4
Pangari	..	in mile	6
Mograle	..	in mile	12/3
Bhadali	..	in mile	18

The section of 12 miles and 3 furlongs i.e. between Dahiwadi and Mograle has a metalled surface, while the rest of the road is unmetalled. The section of the road falling in the Mograle Ghat is motorable only during the fair season.

Pusegaon–Vaduj–Kaledhon Road

This road starts from Pusegaon on the Satara–Pandharpur State Highway at mile No. 22, and goes towards the south-east up to Kaledhon where it terminates. The total length of the road is 30 miles. It crosses the Karad–Pusesavali–Shingnapur road in mile 12 near Vaduj and the Tasgaon–Pingli State Highway in mile 17/2 near Katar Khatav.

The surface of the road between Pusegaon and Katar Khatav is metalled and motorable throughout the year. However, beyond Katar Khatav it is unmetalled and motorable only in fair weather.

Patan–Tarale–Nagthane Road.

This road starts from Patan situated on the Guhagar–Chiplun–Karad–Bijapur State Highway at mile No. 65 and runs in the northern direction upto Nagthane. The total length of this road, including its section in the ghats, is about 24 miles. It touches Vajroshi, Tarale, Nune and Saspade on its way. It traverses the Patan and Satara talukas.

This road crosses the Tarali river near Tarale village where a ferry service is provided in the rainy season. It passes through hilly tracks and is not motorable throughout the year.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.
ROADS.
Major District Roads.
Phaltan–Sangavi–Baramati–Diksal Road.

This road starts from Phaltan and runs up to Sangavi where it enters Poona district at mile No. 6/2. In its south to north stretch in this district it runs a distance of 6 miles and 2 furlongs.

There is no important village or town on this road. There are minor cross drainages across this road while there is a big bridge over the Nira river, near Sangavi. This is a R.C.C. deck slab submersible bridge which was completed in 1956.

This road is being upgraded to the standard of a Major District Road. It is motorable throughout the year.

Old Poona–Satara Road.

This road starts from Satara, and runs in the northern direction to enter Poona district near Nira river at mile No. 33/4. Total length of this road in this district is 33 miles and 4 furlongs.

In its stretch it touches Vaduth, Shivthar, Pimpode, Deur, Lonand and Padegaon. It is crossed by the Mahad–Pandharpur road at Lonand in its mile No. 28/4, and also by the Poona–Bangalore railway line near Padegaon railway station. There is a major bridge on this road across the Nira river, the bridge being under the jurisdiction of the Poona Division.

The Satara Lonand section is of water bound macadam surface and is motorable except during heavy monsoons. The section between Lonand and the Nira is asphalted and motorable during all seasons without any interruption.

Other District Roads.

The 'Other District Roads' are of the same category as Major District Roads, except that they are subject to more frequent interruptions of traffic during the rains. They are usually unmetalled and have *murum* surface.

The following statement gives the details regarding the Other District Roads in Satara district :—

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.
Other District Roads.

TABLE NO. 1.

OTHER DISTRICT ROADS MAINTAINED BY DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD.

Taluka.	Name of the Road.	Starting Point.	Ending Point.	Total Length.	Metalled Length.	Unmetalled Length.	Major road which it approaches or crosses.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	
Satara ..	1. Satara-Tasgaon (Section I)	Satara ..	....	11·00	10·68	0·32	Poona-Bangalore.
	2. Bhuinj-Shivthar (Section II)	Bhuinj ..	Shivthar ..	6·75	..	6·75	Old Poona-Satara.
Jaoli ..	3. Medha-Pachwad ..	Medha ..	Pachwad ..	11·28	3·28	8·00	Satara-Mahabaleshwar and Poona-Bangalore.
	4. Kudal-Panchgani ..	Kudal ..	Panchgani ..	11·54	4·00	7·54	Surul-Mahabaleshwar and Medha-Pachwad.
	5. Anewadi-Saigaon-Morkhind	Anewadi ..	Morkhind	8·25	8·25	..	....
	6. Medha-Valvan ..	Medha ..	Valvan .	22·66	..	22·66	Satara-Mahabaleshwar.
	7. Wadha-Pratapgad ..	Wadha ..	Pratapgad ..	3·00	..	3·00	Mahad-Mahabaleshwar.
Koregaon..	8 Satara-Tasgaon (Section II)	Satara ..	....	10·25	10·25	..	Koregaon-Rahimatpur.
	9. Koregaon-Rahimatpur ..	Koregaon ..	Rahimatpur	8·18	8·18	..	Satara-Pandharpur and Satara-Tasgaon.
	10. Koregaon-Deur ..	Koregaon ..	Deur ..	10·50	..	10·50	Old Poona-Satara.
	11. Rahimatpur-Targaon ..	Rahimatpur	Targaon ..	7·00	7·00	..	Satara-Tasgaon.
	12. Vaduj-Ambheri-Rahimatpur.	Vaduj ..	Rahimatpur	5·75	..	5·75	Satara-Tasgaon.
	13. Pimpode-Solshi ..	Pimpode ..	Solshi ..	7·00	..	7·00	Wai-Wathar.
	14. Koregaon-Bhadale .	Koregaon ..	Bhadale ..	11·50	..	11·50	Satara-Pandharpur.

CHAPTER 7.
Communications.
ROADS.
Other District Roads.

TABLE No. I—*contd.*

Taluka.		Name of the Road.	Starting Point.	Ending Point.	Total Length.	Metalled Length.	Unmetalled Length.	Major road which it approaches or crosses.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Karad ..	15.	Umbraj-Indoli-Pal-Tarale	Umbraj ..	Tarale .	9·58	..	9·58	Poona-Bangalore.
	16.	Karad-Yelgaon ..	Karad .	Yelgaon ..	15·25	1·00	14·25	Poona-Bangalore.
	17.	Karad-Masur-Kiwal ..	Karad ..	Kiwal ..	10·96	1·12	9·84	Karad-Bijapur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	18.	Vang Valley Road (Sec. I)	....	...	10·00	10·00	..	Poona-Bangalore.
	19.	Shamgaon-Ogalewadi ..	Shamgaon ..	Ogalewadi ..	6·50	..	6·50	Karad-Bijapur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	20.	Masur-Targaon ..	Masur ..	Targaon ..	6·00	..	6·00	Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	21.	Ond-Yeoti ..	Ond ..	Yeoti ..	7·25	..	7·25	Karad-Yelgaon.
	22.	Shenoli-Rethare ..	Shenoli ..	Rethare ..	4·35	..	4·35	Karad-Tasgaon.
	23.	Surli-Kamathi ..	Surli ..	Kamathi .	2·00	..	2·00	Karad-Bijapur.
	24.	Shere Approach Road ..	....	....	2·00	..	2·00	Karad-Bijapur.
Patan ..	25.	Vang-Valley Road (Section II)	....	....	14·00	5·75	8·25	Karad-Bijapur.
	26.	Umbraj-Indoli-Pal-Tarale (Section II.)	Umbraj ..	Tarale ..	6·37	..	6·37	Karad-Bijapur.
	27.	Nade-Marali ..	Nade ..	Marali ..	3·25	..	3·25	Guhagar-Karad.
	28.	Charegaon-Padloshi ..	Charegaon ..	Padloshi ..	9·00	..	9·00	Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	29.	Gudhe-Kalgaon ..	Gudhe ..	Kalgaon ..	6·25	..	6·25	
	30.	Dhebewadi-Kanchan-Jinti	Dhebewadi	Jinti ..	6·37	..	6·37	
	31.	Manewadi-Yeoti ..	Manewadi ..	Yeoti ..	6·00	..	6·00	
	32.	Patan-Mandure ..	Patan ..	Mandure ..	9·25	..	9·25	Guhagar-Karad.
	33.	Garawade-Morgiri ..	Garawade ..	Morgiri ..	16·00	..	16·00	
	34.	Urul-Majgaon ..	Urul .	Majgaon ..	3·00	..	3·00	Malharpeth-Pandharpur.

CHAPTER 7.
Communications.
ROADS.
Other District Roads.

Khatav ..	35.	Tasgaon-Pingli (Section III)	. .	Pingli .	17·50	17·50	.	Satara-Pandharpur.
	36.	Satara-Tasgaon (Section III)	Satara ..	...	8·00	8·00	..	Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	37.	Vaduj-Katar Khatav ..	Vaduj ..	Katar Khatav	5·20	5·20	..	Pusesavali-Shingnapur and Tasgaon-Pingli
	38.	Vaduj-Pusegaon ..	Vaduj ..	Pusegaon ..	12·00	12·00	..	Satara-Pandharpur and Pusesavali-Shingnapur.
	39.	Pusesavali-Shingnapur ..	Pusesavali ..	Shingnapur..	18·00	18·00	..	Satara-Tasgaon.
	40.	Ner-Budh-Rajapur ..	Ner .	Rajapur ..	6·00	3·15	2·85	Satara-Pandharpur.
	41.	Aundh-Gopuj ..	Aundh ..	Gopuj ..	2·55	2·55	..	Pusesavali-Shingnapur.
	42.	Pusesavali-Shamgaon ..	Pusesavali ..	Shamgaon ..	4·25	1·56	2·69	Satara-Tasgaon.
	43.	Vita-Pusesavali (Section II).	....	Pusesavali ..	5·62	..	5·62	Pusesavali-Shingnapur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	44.	Vaduj-Ambheri-Rahimatpur.	Vaduj ..	Rahimatpur	12·25	..	12·25	Pusesavali-Shingnapur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	45.	Vaduj-Mhasurne ..	Vaduj ..	Mhasurne ..	11·50	..	11·50	Pusesavali-Shingnapur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	46.	Vardhangad-Mol ..	Vardhangad	Mol ..	10·00	..	10·00	Satara-Pandharpur.
	47.	Nidhal-Malwadi (Section I)	Nidhal .	Malwadi ..	2·50	..	2·50	Satara-Pandharpur.
	48.	Khatgun-Jakhangaon ..	Khatgun .	Jakhangaon	2·25	..	2·25	Vaduj-Pusegaon.
	49.	Pusesavali-Shingnapur (Section II).	Pusesavali ..	Shingnapur..	19·00	19·00	..	Satara-Pandharpur.
	50.	Dahiwadi-Gondavle ..	Dahiwadi ..	Gondavle ..	3·50	..	3·50	Satara-Pandharpur.
	51.	Mhaswad-Shingnapur	Mhaswad ..	Shingnapur..	13·00	..	13·00	Satara-Pandharpur .
	52.	Kothala Pass Road ..	....	....	3·25	3·25	..	Pusesavali-Shingnapur.
	53.	Mhaswad-Shenawadi ..	Mhaswad ..	Shenawadi .	8·62	5·75	2·87	Satara-Pandharpur and Malharpeth-Pandharpur.
	54.	Dahiwadi-Mordi ..	Dahiwadi ..	Mordi ..	11·00	..	11·00	Pusesavali-Shingnapur.
	55.	Nidhal-Malwadi (Section II)	Nidhal ..	Malwadi ..	2·50		2·50	Dahiwadi-Malwadi.

TABLE No. I—*contd.*

Taluka.	Name of the Road.	Starting Point.	Ending Point.	Total Length.	Metalled Length.	Unmetalled Length.	Major road which approaches or crosses.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Phaltan ..	56. Phaltan-Mograle ..	Phaltan ..	Mograle ..	11·00	..	11·00	Phaltan-Shingnapur and Mahad-Pandharpur.
	57. Kambaleshwar-Phaltan ..	Kambaleshwar	Phaltan ..	4·00	4·00	..	....
	58 Asu-Gokhali ..	Asu ..	Gokhali ..	2·25	..	2·25	...
	59. Factory Approach Road ..	....	....	3·50	3·50	..	Mahad-Pandharpur.
	60. Pimpalwadi-Hol ..	Pimpalwadi	Hol ..	2·50	..	2·50	....
	61. Hol-Jinti ..	Hol ..	Jinti ..	2·50	..	2·50	....
	62. Factory-Muramaodi ..	....	....	5·00	..	5·00	....
	63. Murum-Sakharwadi ..	Murum ..	Sakharwadi	4·50	..	4·50	....
	64. Vidani-Sangay ..	Vidani ..	Sangav ..	4·50	..	4·50	Mahad-Pandharpur.
	65. Jinti-Factory .	Jinti ..	....	3·50	..	3·50	....
	66. Wai-Pachwad ..	Wai ..	Pachwad ..	6·75	6·75	..	Poona-Bangalore and Surul-Mahabaleshwar.
	67. Khandala-Lonand ..	Khandala ..	Lonand ..	13·00	13·00	..	Poona-Bangalore and Old Poona-Satara.
	68. Bhuinj Shivthar (Section I).	Bhuinj ..	Shivthar ..	4·75	..	4·75	Poona-Bangalore and Old Poona-Satara.
	69. Khandala-Kanheri Loham	Khandala ..	Loham ..	8·50	..	8·50	Poona-Bangalore and Old Poona-Satara.
	70. Wai-Jor ..	Wai ..	Jor ..	18·00	..	18·00	Surul-Mahabaleshwar.
	71. Wai-Jambhali ..	Wai ..	Jambhali ..	16·00	..	16·00	Surul-Mahabaleshwar.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.

Road Development in Five Year Plans.

Under the road development programme the following road works were completed in this district during 1947-56 :—

Name of the Road.		Nature of the Work
(1) Mahad-Pandharpur road	..	Asphalting from mile 66/7 to 83/1.
(2) Old Poona-Satara road	..	Repairing.
(3) Phaltan-Sangavi road	..	Improvement.
(4) Phaltan-Shingnapur road	..	....
(5) Phaltan-Satara road	..	Construction of the road from Phaltan to Adarki and joining to old Poona-Satara road.
(6) Phaltan-Asu road	..	Improvement.
(7) Phaltan-Aundh road	..	Improvement.

During the Second Five-Year Plan the following roads were undertaken :—

Serial No.	Name of the Work.	Length M.	F.
1	Poona-Bangalore road :—		
	(i) Diversion at mile No. 80, and diversion out-side the Satara town near mile 69.		
	(ii) Black topping of length between 30 and 110 miles.	80	..
	(iii) Widening of length between 30 and 48 miles.	18	..
2	Surul-Mahabaleshwar-Poladpur road : Widening and providing foot-paths from mile 25/2 to 26/4	1	2
3	Construction of Dahiwadi-Phaltan road. ..	12	2
4	Construction on Phaltan-Aundh road (section—Phaltan-Mol).	10	..
5	Widening portion of the road in Kelghar Ghat on Satara-Mahabaleshwar road.	5	..
6	Construction of Mol to Pusegaon section of Aundh-Phaltan road.	12	2
7	Construction of Pusegaon to Aundh section of Aundh-Phaltan road.	11	5
8	Construction of portion of the road in Panchgani hills on Kudal-Panchgani road.	6	5

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

ROADS.

Road Development in Five-Year Plans.

Serial No.	Name of the Work.	Length M.	F.
9	Construction of Malwadi to Budh road. ..	10	2
10	Satara-Valvan road: (section Satara to Kas).	13	..
11	Construction of Phaltan-Asu road. ..	16	2
12	Widening of canal service road: (section Borgaon-Mahalung-Akluj).	4	7
13	Dahiwadi-Malwadi-Budh road: (sections I and II).	7	6
	Total ..	209	1

Bridges and Causeways.

Work on the following bridges and causeways was also undertaken :—

(1) Improvements to the bridge at Karad on Koyna river.

(2) Construction of a bridge across Vasna river at Pimpode on old Poona-Satara road.

(3) Construction of a submersible causeway at the proposed diversion at mile No. 12/4 of Mahad-Pandharpur road.

(4) Submersible bridge on Sangavi road.

(5) High level causeway across Urmodi river near Sangaon.

(6) Major bridge at Koregaon on Satara-Pandharpur road.

(7) Six major bridges on Phaltan-Aundh road.

Statistics of Municipal Roads.

Municipal roads are maintained by the municipal authorities. There are very few cement concrete or asphalted roads. Town planning did not receive sufficient attention in this district. The table below gives the road mileage in the municipal towns of Satara district.

STATISTICS OF MUNICIPAL ROADS.

Name of the Municipality		Metalled length M.	F.	Unmetalled length M.	F.	Total M.	F.
1.	Satara City ..	16	0	12	2	28	2
2.	Wai ..	5	0	8	3	13	3
3.	Karad ..	2	2	12	4	14	6
4.	Mahabaleshwar ..	42	5	37	2	79	7
5.	Rahimatpur ..	1	0	7	5	8	5
6.	Satara (Suburban).	2	0	1	0	3	0
7.	Panchgani ..	8	0	2	4	10	4
8.	Mhaswad ..	38	0	....		38	0
9.	Phaltan ..	....		.4	1	4	1
	Total ..	114	7	85	5	200	4

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
ROADS.
Statistics of Municipal Roads.

Vehicles in Municipal Towns.

Vehicles in municipal towns are divided into four categories according to the motive power used for their locomotion, *viz.* motors, cycles, tongas, and ox-drawn carts. A list of vehicles in the various towns is given below :—

Name of the Municipal Town.	Number of Motors.	Cycles.	Tongas.	Ox-drawn Carts.
1. Satara City ..	36	N. A.	31	N. A.
2. Wai	20	521	8	118
3. Karad	32	1,122	55	207
4. Phaltan	84	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
5. Satara (Sub) ..	24	N. A.	6	2
6. Panchgani ..	18	N. A.	N. A.	5
7. Mhaswad ..	9	N. A.	N. A.	225

BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS.

At the time of publication of the Old Gazetteer of Satara district, there were sixteen main and important bridges, of which seven were on the Poona-Belgaum road, across the Nira, Krishna, Yenna, Urmodi, Tarali, Koyna and Varna rivers. At a distance of thirty miles from Poona near Shirwal, the Nira was crossed on the Poona-Belgaum road by an iron lattice girder bridge resting on masonry piers. Another equally important bridge on the same road across the Krishna was at Bhuinj. Most of the bridges existing then were of masonry. With the passage of time they became undependable, while some of them broke down. Subsequently, they were either repaired or new bridges were constructed in their place. A number of new bridges were constructed under the Post-War Road Development Programme and the two Five-Year Plans. The following table gives the present position of the major bridges in this district in-charge of the Buildings and Communications Department.

CHAPTER 7.
Communications.
BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS.

TABLE No. 2.

MAJOR BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS IN CHARGE OF THE BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT.

Name of the Road and River.	Mile No.	Name of the nearest Village or Town.	Average height.	Length.	Breadth.	Cost of construction.	Year of construction.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Poona—Bangalore Road. Nira River	29-5	Sarola	15′	480′	20′-3″	N. A.	N. A.
2. Poona—Bangalore Road. Krishna River	54-7	Bhuinj	17′	270′	20′-0″	N. A.	N. A.
3. Poona—Bangalore Road. Venna River	65-6	Varya	17′	240′	20′-0″	N. A.	N. A.
5. Poona—Bangalore Road. Urmodi River	78-8	Borgaon	7′	266′	21′-0″	N. A.	N. A.
6. Poona—Bangalore Road. Tarali River	90-4	Umbraj	46′	204′	20′-0″	N. A.	N. A.
6. Poona—Bangalore Road. Uttar Mand River	91-4	Umbraj	16′	178′	20′-0″	N. A.	N. A.
7. Poona—Bangalore Road. Koyna River	101-2	Karad	N. A.	969′	22′-0″	N. A.	1859
8. Poona—Bangalore Road. South Mand River	108-3	Wathar	26′	171′	19′	N. A.	1859
9. Poona—Bangalore Road. Nalla	108-7	Wathar	12′	106′	20′-0″	N. A.	1859
10. Guhagar—Chiplun—Karad—Jath—Bijapur Road. Krishna River	86-5	Karad	40′	902′	23′-0″	4,17,305	1940

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS.

11. Satara—Pandharpur Road. Krishna River	..	..	..	2-8	Mahuli	..	N. A.	323′	29′-0″	4,75,000	1915
12. Satara—Pandharpur Road. Vasna River	..	..	..	9-8	Koregaon	..	N. A.	167′	19′-6″	N. A.	N. A.
13. Satara—Pandharpur Road. Koregaon Nalla	..	..	..	11-2	Koregaon	..	15′	186′	22′-0″	1,08,125	1955-56
14. Satara—Pandharpur Road. Man River	..	..	..	53-1	Mhaswad	..	29′	588′	22′-0″	5,99,903	1953
15. Satara—Padali Road. Venna River	..	..	..	2-3	Khed	..	20′	150′	27′-6″	N. A.	1845
16. Satara—Padali Road. Krishna River	..	..	..	5-6	Vaduth	..	15′	195′	27′-0″	N. A.	1945
17. Satara—Padali Road. Vasna River	..	..	..	9-5	Padali	..	16′	114′	20′-0″	N. A.	N. A.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS.

The following is the statement of minor bridges or causeways in charge of the District Local Board, Satara.

TABLE No. 3.

CAUSEWAYS IN CHARGE OF THE DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD, SATARA.

Serial No.	Name of the Road.	River or Nalla.	Mile No.	Structural Details.
1	Satara—Tasgaon	Nalla	24/6	Khandki masonry; two openings of 7′-10″ size. Its total length is 77′.
2	Satara—Tasgaon	Goregaon Nalla	29/4	Masonry; two openings of 7′-10″ × 3′-3″ size. Its total length is 203′ and has a R. C. C. slab and cement concrete wearing.
3	Vita—Pusesavali	Nandani River	18/7	Khandki masonry; two openings of 6′ × 3′ size. Its total length is 150′.
4	Pusesavali—Shingnapur	Pusesavali Nalla	0/5	Khandki masonry; two openings of 4′-6″ × 2′-9″ size. Its total length is 150′ and has a R. C. C. slab.
5	Pusesavali—Shingnapur	Nandani River	2/1	Masonry; two openings of 2′ × 2′ size. Its total length is 164′
6	Pusesavali—Shingnapur	Nalla	17/1	The causeway has a cement concrete wearing and its total length is 111′.
7	Pusesavali—Shingnapur	Nalla	17/4	Stone masonry; pipe openings, having cement concrete wearing; its total length is 108′.
8	Vaduj—Katar Khatav	Nalla	0/5	Masonry; three openings of 3′ × 2′, and the length being 185′.
9	Vaduj—Katar Khatav	Nalla	2/2	Its length is 120′ and has four openings of 8′ × 4′ size.
10	Vaduj—Katar Khatav	Nalla	4/1	Its length is 167′ and has four openings.
11	Vaduj—Ambheri	Nalla	3/7	Khandki masonry; two openings of 2′ × 2′ size. Its length is 77′.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
BRIDGES AND CAUSEWAYS.

12	Vaduj—Pusegaon	Nalla	1/8	Khandki masonry ; two openings of 3′ × 2′ size, the total length being 133′.
13	Vaduj—Pusegaon	Karanje Nalla	3/2	Khandki masonry ; having 15 openings. The length of this causeway is 250′.
14	Vaduj—Pusegaon	Nalla	8/3	Khandki masonry ; one opening of 2½′ × 3′ ; the total length is 98′.
15	Vaduj—Pusegaon	Nalla	10/1	Khandki masonry ; one opening of 3′ × 3 1½′ ; the total length is 105′
16	Vaduj—Pusegaon	Nalla	11/3	Khandki masonry. The length of this causeway is 80′.
17	Dahiwadi—Gondavle	Nalla	2/6	Khandki masonry. It has one opening of 2½′ × 3½′ size.
18	Dahiwadi—Gondavle	Nalla	3/3	Khandki masonry ; four openings of 24′ × 18′ size. The length of this causeway is 106′ and has a cement concrete wearing.
19	Pusesavali—Shingnapur	Nalla	20/2	Stone masonry.
20	Welang—Chandwadi	Welang River	0/4	Khandki masonry ; five openings of 7′ × 8′ size. It has R. C. C. slab.
21	Karad—Dhebewadi Road (Section I)	Nalla	3/7	Masonry structure ; it has three Hume Pipe openings of 24″ diameter.
22	Karad—Dhebewadi Road (Section I)	Nalla	5/5	This causeway has two Hume Pipe openings of 24″ diameter and has a masonry structure.
23	Karad—Masur—Kiwal	Nalla	5/8	This causeway has two Hume Pipe openings of 24″ and has a masonry structure.
24	Karad—Masur—Kiwal	Nalla	7/2	This causeway has two openings of 24″ diameter and has a masonry structure.

CHAPTER 7.

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Communications.

FERRIES.

Unlike the districts on the west coast, ferries in Satara district are not an important means of communication. The Krishna and the Koyna are big rivers, and ferries are required to ply on them. Of the twelve major ferries which ply during the rainy season, that is from the middle of June to the end of November, five are across the Krishna at Nimb-Gove, Dhamner, Nandgaon, Nandashi and Atake; six are across the Koyna at Bamnoli, Chafer, Mandrul, Yarvale, Yerad and Sangvad; and one is across a big nalla near Chorde. The ferry near Mandrul is available throughout the year while the others are seasonal. The District Local Board collects a cess from the owners of ferries.

The ferries are either iron pontoons or wooden boats They are generally thirty-four feet long, fourteen feet broad and three and a half feet deep. They are usually manned by six boatmen and carry per trip forty to fifty passengers.

RAILWAYS.

History.

Railway construction was undertaken in this district in 1884 by the Southern Maratha Railway Company. By the beginning of 1887 this company had completed the proposed system of railway in this district. In 1907 it was amalgamated with the Madras Railway Company to form the M. & S. M. Railway Company. In pursuance of the policy of State Management of Indian Railways decided by the Government of India, the entire system of railways worked by the M. & S. M. Railway Company was taken over by the Government of India in 1944. As a result of the regrouping of the Indian Railways in 1952, it has been grouped under the Southern Railways. The whole length of the railway is meter-guage line in Satara district.

Poona—Bangalore Railway Route.

The railway route starts from Poona, crosses the boundary of Poona district over the Nira, and enters Satara district at about mile No. 48. Throughout its length of 74 miles in this district, it passes through the central part of the district and traverses Phaltan, Khandala, Koregaon, and Karad talukas. There are fourteen stations on this line, *viz*., Lonand, Salpa, Adarki, Wathar, Palshi, Satara Road, Koregaon, Rahimatpur, Targaon, Masur, Shirvade, Karad, Shenoli and Bhavaninagar. At Salpa the railway line runs through the Salpa tunnel which is about 500 feet long. Due to the hilly terrain, the line has a ruling gradient at 1 in 100 and has sharp curves due to difficult geographical conditions. At Palshi the line enters the rich and fertile valley of the Krishna, and continues to run close to the Krishna, being nowhere more than four miles from it.

The old Gazetteer of Satara district states "to avoid the heavy outlay which would have been incurred by running the line along the western or right side of the Krishna, which would have necessitated the bridging of the Krishna and almost all its chief tributaries the Kudali, Vena, Urmodi, Tarli, and Koyna, the Satara section will run along the eastern or left side of the Krishna, and the district headquarter station of Satara and the large town of Karad will consequently lie at some distance from the line."*

*Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency Vol. XIX, 1885, Page 207.

CHAPTER 7.

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Communications.
RAILWAYS.
Poona-Bangalore Railway Route.

Lonand, Koregaon, Rahimatpur and Karad are the commercially important stations on this line. The Satara Road station is about 10 miles from the town. There is a factory of Messrs. Cooper Engineering Works Ltd., which manufactures oil engines and agricultural implements. Wathar serves the tourist traffic to Mahabaleshwar which is about 40 miles from this station. There are upper class waiting rooms and facilities like vegetarian and non-vegetarian refreshment rooms. Karad station is about three miles from the town. Most of the traffic to the Koyna Hydro-electric Project is carried through Karad railway station.

PUBLIC TRANSPORTS.
State Transport.

As a part of its policy of maximum social advantage, the State Government decided to nationalise motor transport industry in 1947, and set up a statutory public corporation called the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation for owning and operating the nationalised road transport in the State.

A short historical resume of the inception of the Corporation and its operations is given below. After World War I road transport regained its lost importance, and automobiles came in the picture. With the end of World War II road transport underwent progressive changes, and there emerged a network of motor transport. New roads were built, and old ones were repaired. With this progress in motor transport, there emerged a multiplicity of motor owners, and there was an uneconomic competition. Profit maximisation being the chief motive of private ownership many undesirable features crept in motor transport, e.g., duplication of services, lack of amenities for passengers, overcrowding, disregard of rules for safety of passengers and speed limits. Examples of injury to life and limbs were numerous. The relations of employees and employers were uncordial.

In order to set this state of affairs right the Government decided to nationalise road transport industry in 1947, and the services were operated under authority of the Road Transport Corporation Act of 1948.

For administrative convenience of operating the services, the entire State is divided into viable units called Divisions. State Transport operations in Satara district are covered in the Poona, Kolhapur and Sholapur Divisions. The nationalisation of services in Poona Division was started in June 1948, and that in Kolhapur Division in August 1949.

Statistics of Routes.

The table below indicates the various routes in operation, route mileage, frequency of 'Up' and 'Down' trips and the average number of passengers travelled per route :—

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
PUBLIC TRANSPORTS.
State Transport.
Statistics of Routes.

TABLE No. 4.

STATE TRANSPORT ROUTES IN SATARA DISTRSCT AS IN MAY 1958.

Serial No.	Name of the Route.	Route Mileage	Average number of daily trips operated in May 1958. Up.	Down.	Average Number of persons travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Aundh-Vaduj	10·3	1	1	30
2	Dahiwadi-Mayani	23·7	1	1	72
3	Helwak-Poona	123·6	1	1	108
4	Karad-Chiplun	59·0	1	1	98
5	Karad-Dhebewadi	17.2	7	7	36
6	Karad-Helwak Dam ..	37·1	3	3	76
7	Karad-Helwak Dam (via Colony)	38·7	1	1	70
8	Karad-Islampur	19·2	8	8	60
9	Karad-Kalgaon (Gudhe) ..	22·0	2	2	42
10	Karad-Kale	7 1	2	2	10
11	Karad-Kolewadi	10·4	2	2	12
12	Karad-Karad Rly. Station ..	4·2	14	14	58
13	Karad-Kolhapur	49·5	4	4	10
14	Karad-Malharpeth	13·2	2	2	28
15	Karad-Mayani	44·7	2	2	59
16	Karad-Masur	8·0	1	1	13
17	Karad-Ogalewadi ..	5 0	2	2	4
18	Karad-Palas	28·5	1	1	41
19	Karad Pandharpur	99·4	1	1	200
20	Karad-Patan	21·0	5	5	34
21	Karad-Rahimatpur ..	30·1	1	1	45
22	Karad-Sanbur .. .	21·0	2	2	49
23	Karad-Satara . ..	32·6	8	8	69
24	Karad-Shenoli	13·4	1	1	20
25	Karad-Umbraj	10·5	1	1	15
26	Karad-Vaduj . ..	39·4	1	1	76
27	Karad-Vita	26·7	9	9	46
28	Koregaon-Atapadi	74·5	1	1	151
29	Koregaon-Aundh	20·0	1	1	66
30	Koregaon-Budh	16·0	3	3	61
31	Koregaon-Dahiwadi ..	28·0	1	1	74
32	Koregaon-Dahiwadi (via Vaduj)	33·7	2	2	66
33	Koregaon-Dighanchi ..	65·7	1	1	120
34	Koregaon-Kaledhon ..	45·7	2	2	101
35	Koregaon-Khatav	15·1	1	1	39
36	Koregaon-Mayani	38·2	1	1	84
37	Koregaon-Nimsad	40·5	1	1	107
38	Koregaon-Rahimatpur Rly. Station	11·1	1	1	70
39	Koregaon-Satara ..	11·3	9	9	52
40	Koynanagar-Chiplun ..	27·0	1	1	47
41	Lonand-Bhor	27 4	5	5	77
42	Mahabaleshwar-Poona .	75·2	3	3	108
43	Mahabaleshwar-Pratapgad ..	10·0	4	4	23

TABLE No. 4—*contd.*

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
PUBLIC TRANSPORTS.
State Transport.
Statistics of Routes.

Serial No.	Name of the Route.	Route Mileage.	Average number of daily trips operated in May 1958 Up.	Down.	Average Number of persons travelled per day per trip.
1	2	3	4	5	6
44	*Mahabaleshwar-Panchgani ..	12·0	1	1	26
45	*Mahabaleshwar-Arthur Seet ..	8·0	5	6	29
46	*Bus Stand-Holiday Camp ..	1·0	1	1	4
47	*Holiday Camp-Lake ..	3·0	7	7	31
48	*Bus Stand-Lake ..	2·0	1	1	33
49	Panchgani-Poona	63·6	2	2	107
50	Phaltan-Bhor . ..	46·2	1	1	107
51	Rahimatpur-Aundh . ..	13·0	2	2	71
52	Satara-Mhaswad	61·1	3	3	132
53	Satara-Mahabaleshwar (via Wai)	40·0	1	1	92
54	Satara-Mahabaleshwar (via Kelghar).	32·6	2	2	83
55	Satara-Poona Rly. Station ..	69·6	2	2	60
56	Satara-Shivajinagar ..	71·2	1	1	55
57	Satara-Kolhapur ..	82·4	1	1	120
58	Satara-Sangli	78·0	2	2	128
59	Satara-Baramati	60·6	1	1	120
60	Satara-Parali	8·3	4	4	41
61	Satara-Dhamner	12·0	3	3	48
62	Satara-Medha	14·2	4	4	44
63	Satara-Humgaon	20·4	2	2	70
64	Satara-Kelghar	20·5	1	1	78
65	Satara-Limb	8·7	1	1	48
66	Satara-Koynanagar ..	54·0	1	1	77
67	Satara-Satara Road ..	10·2	12	12	42
68	Satara-Shitwal ..	37·0	1	1	61
69	Satara-Surul	20·7	1	1	62
70	Satara-Tarale . ..	23·5	1	1	55
71	Satara-Ratnagiri	135·6	1	1	87
72	Satara-Islampur	52·1	1	1	74
73	Wai-Bhor . ..	33·1	1	1	71
74	Wai-Mahad	57·0	2	2	108
75	Wai-Satara	21·1	4	4	67
76	Wai-Satara (via Joshi Vihir) ..	24·1	1	1	73
77	Wai-Mahabaleshwar.. ..	20·0	1	1	55
78	Wai-Welang	7·7	2	2	39
79	Wai-Wathar	19·5	5	5	71
80	Wai-Poona Railway Station ..	55·6	3	3	75
81	Karad-Yelgaon	17·0	3	3	40
82	Koyna-Nauja	6·0	2	2	10
83	Patan-Umbraj	16·6	2	2	29
84	Tarale-Umbraj	12·4	3	3	28
85	Karad-Sangli . ..	60·5	2	2	97

*These routes are operated at the Mahabaleshwar Hill Station.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.
PUBLIC TRANSPORTS.
State Transport.
Depots and Garages.

The State Transport maintains depots and garages to which are attached workshops for the proper maintenance of vehicles, oiling, greasing, cleaning, servicing, etc. The light and heavy repairs of buses and trucks are carried out at the Divisional Workshops at Poona and Kolhapur. Further, after the operation of every 12,000 miles vehicles are sent to the Divisional Workshop for their inspection. In addition there are workshops at all the depots, *viz.*, Satara, Koregaon, Wai, Mahabaleshwar and Karad. The following statement indicates the number of vehicles attached, persons employed and premises of the various depots as upto January 1959.

Depot or Sub-Depot.	Number of vehicles attached.	Number of persons employed.	Nature of premises.
Satara	28	144	Permanent.
Koregaon	15	75	Do.
Wai	13	65	Do.
Mahabaleshwar	6	24	Do.
Karad	31	153	Do.

Amenities.

The State Transport Corporation maintains bus stations at Satara, Mahabaleshwar and Karad. There are bus stands at Koregaon and Wai in Poona Division, and at Karad, Koynanagar, Mayani, Patan and Umbraj in Kolhapur Division. Waiting rooms are provided for at Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, Satara, Wai, Karad, Mayani and Umbraj. The State Transport authorities have built sheds for the travelling public at Aundh, Khatav, Mhaswad and Pusegaon in Poona Division.

The bus stands at Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Satara, Wai, Karad, Mayani and Umbraj are served with refreshment rooms; while drinking water arrangements are made available at Satara, Karad and Umbraj. There are fruit stalls at Satara and Karad, and book stalls at Satara, Koregaon and Karad. The bus stands at Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Satara, Wai, Karad and Umbraj are provided with lavatories and urinals. There are reservation offices at Satara, Wai and Karad. First-aid equipment is provided at all the depots.

Special arrangements are made on special occasions like fairs, *melas* etc., and extra buses are run. In the summer extra buses are run to and fro Mahabaleshwar hill station.

Fares.

The schedule of fares charged by the State Transport is based on the stage system, 20 *naye paise* being the fare for a stage of 4 miles, and 10 *naye paise* for a sub-stage of two miles in the case of villages closely situated. The schedule of fares is uniform throughout the State and is not related to its earnings in any particular division.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
PUBLIC TRANSPORTS.
State Transport.
Labour Welfare.

The State Transport Corporation provides housing accommodation to the staff. Sports are encouraged and funds are sanctioned every year, out of which sports material is supplied to all units of the division, tournaments are arranged, and prizes are distributed to the winners. The employees participate in the zonal and inter-zonal sports.

A dispensary is maintained at the headquarters of the division to provide medical aid to the workers and their families.

A quarterly bulletin in Marathi is published, and the issues are given to the employees free of charge. At the divisional office in Poona a library is provided, while there are reading rooms furnished with newspapers and magazines at each depot. Retiring rooms are provided at Mahabaleshwar, Koregaon and Satara. Banking facilities with the State Transport Co-operative Bank Ltd., are made available. In addition to this the State Transport Kamgar Co-operative Society is established at Karad.

A State Transport Workers' Union with a membership of about 50 per cent. of the staff is affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress. This Union is recognised by the State Transport Corporation, and its representatives have an access to the head of the division for seeking redress to their grievances.

BULLOCK CARTS.

Bullock cart is the most important vehicle prevalent in the rural and urban areas of this district from the most ancient times. This is very convenient to the farmers to carry their goods and implements. Most of the farmers own a pair of bullocks and a cart. A statement showing the number of bullock carts in the rural as well as urban areas of all the talukas in Satara district according to the livestock census of 1956 is given below :—

Serial No.	Taluka.	Number of bullock carts in		Total
		Rural area	Urban area	
1	Phaltan ..	3,424	304	3,728
2	Man ..	2.465	207	2,672
3	Mahabaleshwar ..	52	8	60
4	Karad ..	5,192	669	5,861
5	Khandala ..	1,754	..	1,754
6	Khatav ..	4,034	243	4,277
7	Satara ..	516	62	578
8	Jaoli ..	1,186	..	1,186
9	Koregaon ..	3,374	451	3,825
10	Wai ..	2,261	157	2,418
11	Patan ..	3,184	..	3,184
	Total ..	27,442	2,101	29,543

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.
TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

Mahabaleshwar, 'queen of the western ghats', is by far the most pleasant health resort in this State. The healthy climate, beautiful scenery, delightful walks and picturesque points at Mahabaleshwar attract an exodus of travellers and tourists from the neighbouring regions and especially from Bombay and Poona cities. Mahabaleshwar is 194 miles away from Bombay, and can be reached within ten hours by motor and railway routes.

There is a State Transport bus service from Poona to Mahabaleshwar and another one from Bombay to Mahabaleshwar. In April and May, 'luxury buses' are available for tourists from Bombay and Poona. From Wathar railway station, on the Poona—Bangalore railway line, regular buses ply to Mahabaleshwar. Timings of the buses are arranged so as to be convenient and suitable to the tourists travelling by the railway. At Mahabaleshwar itself there is regular bus service to some of the distant points and places of interest.

As regards residential facilities, there are nearly ten scores of bungalows, private and public, and a number of Indian and Western style hotels. There are three inspection bungalows and a very spacious Holiday Camp at Mahabaleshwar.

Panchgani, 12 miles from Mahabaleshwar, is another favourite health resort and a picturesque and panoramic countryside. There is an inspection bungalow and a number of hotels, restaurants and private bungalows which can be hired in the 'season'.

The Government have established a Tourist Bureau at Mahabaleshwar to provide the tourists information regarding the places of interest, health resorts, roads, accommodation, etc. The Bureau co-ordinates the work of travel agencies, State Transport, hotel owners, house agents and holiday camps by arranging meetings, etc. It maintains tourist registers and helps the local authorities in promoting the comforts and conveniences and minimising the difficulties of the tourists.

The Tourist Bureau compiles, publishes and sells literature about this hill station.

Rest Houses.

For the convenience of government servants on tour, and other travellers there are Inspection Bungalows at Satara, Deur, Wai, Khandala, Pimpoda, Udatara, Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, Medha, Koregaon, Aundh, Gondavle, Mhaswad, Karad, Atit, Umbraj, Malharpeth, Patan and Mayani; Travellers bungalows at Satara and Ambenali; and a District Bungalow at Shirwal. All the bungalows except that at Shirwal, which is under control of the Collector of Satara, are under control of the Executive Engineer of Satara Division.

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.

Persons staying at the following bungalows are required to pay the charges fixed by the controlling authorities: Satara (I.B. and I.B.), Panchgani, Aundh, Karad. Mahabaleshwar (upper and lower), and Ambenali.

Posts and Telegraphs.

The Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department maintains a Postal Division at Satara. Besides the chief receiving and distributing head office at Satara, there are a number of sub-offices, combined offices and branch offices. These are given in the following list.

TABLE NO. 5.

Post Offices in each Taluka in Satara District.

Taluka.	Sub-Office.	Combined post and Telegraph offices.	Branch-Offices.
1	2	3	4
Khandala; ..	(1) Khandala ..	(1) Khandala ..	(1) Ahire. (2) Andori.
	(2) Lonand ..	(2) Lonand ..	(3) Bavda. (4) Kanheri.
	(3) Shirwal ..	(3) Shirwal ..	(5) Khed Bk. (6) Morve. (7) Naigaon. (8) Yelke. (9) Walhar Bk.
Karad; ..	(1) Karad ..	(1) Karad ..	(1) Atke. (2) Belavde Bk.
	(2) Masur ..	(2) Masur ..	(3) Belavde Haveli.
	(4) Ogalewadi ..	(3) Ogalewadi ..	(4) Charegaon. (5) Chore.
	(4) Umbraj ..	(4) Umbraj ..	(6) Helgaon. (7) Indoli. (8) Kale. (9) Kalavde. (10) Kalgaon. (11) Karve. (12) Kasar Shirambe. (13) Kavthe. (Masur). (14) Kival. (15) Kola. (16) Kolewadi. (17) Koparde. Haveli. (18) Mhopre. (19) Ond. (20) Pal. (21) Potale. (22) Retre. (23) Savade.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.
POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Taluka.	Sub-Office.	Combined Post and Telegraph Offices.	Branch Offices.
1	2	3	4
			(24) Shenoli
			(25) Shere
			(26) Shiravde
			(27) Supna
			(28) Talbid
			(29) Tembva
			(30) Tarukh
			(31) Udyamnagar
			(32) Undale
			(33) Vadgaon
			(34) Vagheri
			(35) Wathar
			(36) Ving
			(37) Yelgaon
			(38) Yeravale
			(39) Yevti
Patan ..	(1) Koyna ..	(1) Koyna ..	(1) Adul
			(2) Bahula
	(2) Patan ..	(2) Patan ..	(3) Chaphal
			(4) Dhamani
			(5) Dhebewadi
			(6) Divashi
			(7) Helwak
			(8) Janugadewadi
			(9) Kalgaon (Karad)
			(10) Kumbhargaon
			(11) Kuthare
			(12) Madan
			(13) Malharpeth
			(14) Mandrul Haveli
			(15) Mandrul Kola
			(16) Manewadi
			(17) Marali
			(18) Mhavshi
			(19) Morgiri
			(20) Natoshi
			(21) Marul Haveli
			(22) Navdi
			(23) Saikade
			(24) Sandoor
			(25) Sonavde
			(26) Tarale
			(27) Ural
			(28) Viha
			(29) Yerad
Man ..	(1) Dahiwadi ..	(1) Dahiwadi ..	(1) Bidal
			(2) Gondavle Bk.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Taluka.	Sub-Office.	Combined Post and Telegraph Offices.	Branch Offices.
1	2	3	4
	(2) Mhaswad ..	(2) Mhaswad	(3) Gondavle Kh.
			(4) Kukudwad
			(5) Mahimangad
			(6) Malavdi
			(7) Mardi
			(8) Naravane
			(9) Palshi
			(10) Pulkoti
			(11) Ranand
			(12) Shingnapur
			(13) Varkute Malavdi
			(14) Vavarhire
Khatav ..	(1) Aundh ..	(1) Aundh ..	(1) Ambavde
			(2) Bhosare
	(2) Khatav ..	(2) Khatav	(3) Budh
			(4) Chitali
	(3) Pusesavali ..	(3) Vaduj	(5) Chorade
			(6) Daruj
	(4) Vaduj		(7) Diskal
			(8) Gopuj
			(9) Jakhangaon
			(10) Kaledhon
			(11) Katar Khatav
			(12) Khatgun
			(13) Kuroli
			(14) Lalgun
			(15) Mayani
			(16) Mhasurne
			(17) Nimsod
			(18) Nidhal
			(19) Palasgaon
			(20) Pusegaon
			(21) Kurla
			(22) Rajapur
			(23) Shenavdi
			(24) Vadgaon
			(25) Vardhangad
			(26) Varud
			(27) Visapur
Wai ..	(1) Bhuinj ..	(1) Wai ..	(1) Asgaon
			(2) Bavdhan
	(2) Wai		(3) Bopardi
			(4) Chandak
	(3) Wai City		(5) Chindhwali
			(6) Degaon
			(7) Dhom
			(8) Kavathe Surul

CHAPTER 7.

Communications. Posts and Telegraphs.

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Taluka. 1	Sub-Office. 2	Combined Post and Telegraph Offices. 3	Branch Offices. 4
			(9) Kenjal (10) Kikli (11) Ozarde (12) Pachwad (13) Pasarni (14) Shendurjane (15) Shirgaon (16) Surul (17) Udtara
Phaltan ..	(1) Phaltan .. (2) Sakharwadi ..	(1) Phaltan .. (2) Sakharwadi ..	(1) Adarki Bk. (2) Barad (3) Bibi (4) Dubhewadi (5) Girvi (6) Gokhali (7) Gunavare (8) Hingangaon (9) Hol (10) Jinti (11) Nimbhore (12) Nimblak (13) Pimprad (14) Tambve (Phaltan) (15) Taradgaon (16) Vakhari (17) Wathar (18) Vedni
Jaoli ..	(1) Medha ..	(1) Medha ..	(1) Anewadi (2) Bamnoli Kasabe (3) Bhanang (4) Hatgeghar (5) Humgaon (6) Karandi (7) Kharshi (8) Kudal (9) Saygaon (10) Valuth
Koregaon ..	(1) Koregaon .. (2) Rahimatpur.. (3) Satara Road. (4) Wathar ..	(1) Koregaon .. (2) Rahimatpur (3) Satara Road (4) Wathar	(1) Arvi (2) Bhadale (3) Chimangaon (4) Deur. (5) Dhamner (6) Ekambe (7) Karajkhop (8) Kinhi (9) Kireli

TABLE No. 5—*contd.*

Taluka. 1	Sub-Office. 2	Combined Post and Telegraph Offices. 3	Branch Offices. 4
			(10) Kumthe Koregaon (11) Lhasurne (12) Nagzari (13) Pimpoda Bk. (14) Revdi (15) Rui (16) Sap (17) Shirdhon (18) Sonake (19) Tadavale (20) Targaon (21) Triputi (22) Vagholi (23) Wathar Kiroli
Satara ..	(1) Satara Head Office (2) Satara Camp (3) Malharpeth	(1) Satara Head office .. (2) Satara Camp (3) Malharpeth	(1) Angapur (2) Apshinge (3) Atit (4) Borgaon (5) Borgaon (Satara) (6) Chinchner Vandan (7) Degaon (8) Dhawadshi (9) Jihe (10) Kanher (11) Kodoli (12) Kondve (13) Kshetra Mahuli (14) Kumthe Asangaon (15) Limb (16) Malgaon (17) Targaon (18) Nagthane (19) Nigadi (20) Padali (21) Parali (22) Shendre (23) Waduth (24) Varne (25) Varye (26) Vele (27) Venegaon

CHAPTER 7.
—
Communications.
POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS

The above list shows that this district is well served by postal facilities. On an average almost every village having a population above 2,000 is provided with a branch post office.

Telegraph Offices

Besides the Satara Head Office there are telegraph facilities at Satara Camp, Malharpeth, Wai, Phaltan, Sakharwadi, Dahiwadi, Mhaswad, Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani, Koregaon, Rahimatpur, Satara Road, Wathar, Aundh, Khatav, Vaduj, Khandala, Lonand, Shirwal, Karad, Masur, Ogalewadi, Umbraj, Medha, Koyna and Patan.

Telephones

The following is the historical account of the development and working of the telephone system in Satara district. There was an auto-exchange at Satara up to 1st November 1953. It was then changed to central battery non-multiple type, and in January 1959 it had a capacity to handle 120 lines and 94 connections. In 1949 the Karad exchange was a non-multiple type with a capacity to handle 50 lines, which was changed to a 100 line Board in 1954. It was then changed to central battery non-multiple type with a capacity to handle 200 lines and 125 connections. A Trunk Public Call Office was opened at Phaltan in July 1955 and it was closed in 1957. A local Public Call Office and an Exchange were opened at Phaltan in September 1957, capacity of the Exchange being 25 lines then. This capacity was expanded to 50 with 40 connections from July 1958.

The following table shows the position of the telephone system in Satara District as in January 1959 :—

Serial No.	Name of Exchange	Type	Capacity	Working connections	Extensions	Internal connections
1	Satara .	C.B.N.M.	120	94	25	5
2	Karad ..	C.B.N.M.	200	125	14	..
3	Phaltan ..	SAX	50	30	3	6

There are Public Call Offices at Koregaon, Wai, Umbraj, Masur, and Panchgani, and Local Public Call Offices at Satara city post office, Satara H.O., Karad and Phaltan.

There is a trunk alignment carrying seven main trunks and another carrying one main trunk. There is also an alignment carrying railway controls.

Communications.
POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS
Community Radio sets

Under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme of the Government, radio sets are installed by the Directorate of Publicity which also provided for the maintenance and repairs of the sets. A community radio set can be installed in a grampanchayat or municipality by contributing a sum of Rs. 175 for a dry battery set and Rs. 150 for an electric set. The party concerned is also required to pay Rs. 60 for maintenance and servicing of the set, which is inclusive of expenditure over battery set and licence fee. But in the case of electric sets the charges for electricity are to be borne by the party concerned.

The radio set remains a property of the Government, and it is meant exclusively to be used for tuning the programmes for villagers relayed from the All-India Radio.

The following list gives taluka-wise distribution of community radio sets in Satara district as on 1st October, 1959 :—

TABLE NO. 6.

Serial No.	Taluka	Number of radio sets
1	Jaoli	15
2	Karad	15
3	Khandala . ..	5
4	Khatav	9
5	Koregaon	13
6	Man	18
7	Patan	6
8	Phaltan	1
9	Satara	9
10	Wai	1
	Total ..	92

CHAPTER 8—MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THIS CHAPTER ARE DESCRIBED A FEW MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS which neither come under the purview of the Factories Act nor are they subject to the jurisdiction of the Shops and Establishments Act. These occupations are typically urban in characteristics. The census reports enumerate them under various classes such as Industry, Trade, etc. The attached table broadly gives the numerical growth of these occupations during the last seventy years or so during which time a considerable development has taken place in their structure, composition and character. A few have disappeared altogether and quite a number has inflated their ranks. Not only the number of these occupations has gone up but the employment in them has also increased. As a matter of fact the pattern of growth in respect of these occupations shows the even tenor of the changing habits of those who constitute the urbanite groups of the population. To make it more specific with the break-up of the joint family system and changes in the food habits of the people the number of hotels and similar establishments has increased. The change in the wear apparel has resulted in an increase in establishments dealing in ready-made clothes. The availability and ushering in of the new modes of conveyances such as cycles, motors etc. have been responsible to the coming up of shops of cycle repairers, petty mechanics, etc. Naturally we find an exhaustive and ever increasing number of occupations such as hotel and restaurant—keeping, leather-working, cycle repairing, fruit and vegetable selling, milk and sweetmeat selling, flower selling, flour milling, hair-cutting, gold and silver smithy, painting, tailoring, tinsmithy, domestic service, laundering, etc An attempt has been made in this chapter to give a broad account of certain selected occupations such as those of goldsmiths, tailors, flour mills etc. Such an account helps to get a clear picture of the economic set-up, particularly in the urban area.

A Sample Survey of the following selected occupations was conducted in Satara, Karad and Phaltan with a view to present a broad picture of the economic conditions prevailing in these occupations. About five to ten per cent. of the total establishments were selected for the survey. Samples were taken from different localities

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.
INTRODUCTION.

and were representative of different sizes and types. A general questionnaire was framed and answers were collected from each of the selected samples. The occupations selected were :—

(1) Aerated water manufacturing, (2) Bakeries, (3) Keeping of Boarding and Lodging Houses, (4) Cap making, (5) Running Flour mills, (6) Gold-smithy, (7) Hair-cutting, (8) Laundering, (9) Motor-building and repairing, (10) Running or Managing Restaurants and Tea-shops, (11) Tailoring, etc.

Many of these occupations are combinations of trade and industry. They are chiefly to be found in urban areas and are described in regard to the number, employment, earnings, equipment, wages to employees and raw materials used.

The number of occupations in each ward in Phaltan town is not given in the chapter as the same was not available.

The following table gives the number of persons employed in different occupations in the years 1911, 1921, 1931 and 1951. These figures are taken from different Census Reports.

TABLE 1

	1911	1921	1931	1951
Manufacturing of aerated waters ..	7	7	4	36
Rice pounders, huskers and plain grinders . ..	3	75	121	..
Grain parchers	8	28	15	2
Sweetmeat makers	395	332	169	6
Hat and cap makers ..	N.A.	50	N.A.	N.A.
Tailors, dress makers and embroiderers.	1,246	1,211	2,141	1,728
Other industries pertaining to gloves, socks, belts, buttons, umbrellas etc.	40	69	N.A.	N.A.
Washing and cleaning	1,770	2,174	1,566	N.A.
Barbers, hair-dressers	1,808	2,155	1,807	1,285
Furniture industries	39	1	N.A.	11
Workers in precious stones and metals, jewels.	1,509	1,555	1,092	N.A.
Scavengers	145	157	N.A.	N.A.

The figures for the years 1911, 1921 and 1931 pertain to the former Satara District which included Jaoli, Malcolmpeth, Karad, Khanapur Khatav, Koregaon, Man, Patan, Satara, Tasgaon, Wai, Walwa and Shirala talukas. They together with Mahabaleshwar, Phaltan, Jath and Miraj were grouped into two districts, namely, North Satara and South Satara* after 1948.

*These districts are known as Satara and Sangli (resp.) at present

The information which has been collected shows that the occupations which attracted increasingly large number of persons were learned professions like education, law and medicine, administrative services and occupations such as goldsmithy and jewellery, hair-cutting, running restaurants and tea-shops and tailoring. The total number of persons engaged in the district in learned professions and administrative services was about 11,000 and of those engaged in occupations surveyed in the two towns was about 1,350. The total employment in restaurants and tea-shops in the two towns was more than the employment in any other occupations surveyed. Wages paid to employees in different occupations except those in motor-repairing were mostly uniform. Paucity of skilled staff was one of the major difficulties experienced by many of these occupations. Goldsmiths and jewellers employed the largest capital in the occupations surveyed. Lack of capital was another difficulty experienced by them. Occupations like running lodging and boarding houses and flour mills have scope for further development. Over a period of last sixty years the conditions of most of the occupations have improved but their earnings do not seem to have kept pace with the rising cost of living. In most of the occupations there appears to be an influx of skilled workers. In occupations, where execution of intricate processes is involved, the tendency is for the replacement of human labour by machine. This has affected the quality of the work done.

BAKERIES.

There were 21 bakeries in Satara and Karad, twelve of which were located in Satara and nine in Karad. Most of them in Satara were located in Wards No. III, VII and VIII and only three were located in Wards No. V and VI. In Karad, six were located in Shaniwar and Raviwar *peths* and three in Somwar, Guruwar and Shukrawar *peths*. The total employment in these establishments was 52 of whom 28 were paid employees. The total employment in them in Satara was 19, including seven paid employees. Five establishments, two each in Satara and Karad and one in Phaltan, were surveyed

The two establishments in Satara and one in Karad were started before 20 years The two in Phaltan and Karad were started before 7 years. They manufactured breads of different sizes, *nankataies*, biscuits. cakes and butter-breads. The four establishments in Satara and Karad were situated in rented premises and one at Phaltan in owned premises. The rent of the two establishments in Satara was Rs. 6 and Rs. 30 respectively and of the two in Karad Rs. 30 and Rs. 90 per month respectively. In Satara their total expenditure on electricity which was used for lighting was Rs. 21 per month and in Karad Rs. 45 per month. In Phaltan the establishment concerned did not use any electricity. In Satara and Karad they paid Rs. 12 to Rs. 35 per year as Bhath tax.

The equipment of bakeries consisted of an oven, tin trays, small iron sheets, boxes to bake breads, long iron bars, vessels, moulds, cup-boards and baskets for carrying loaves. The establishments in Satara had equipment worth Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,000 and in Karad worth Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 6,000. In Phaltan the surveyed establishment had an equipment worth Rs. 1,000.

CHAPTER 8.

—

Miscellaneous Occupations.

BAKERIES.

The total employment in these establishments was 34, of whom 21 were paid employees. They were paid monthly wages, which varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 per month.

The raw materials required were wheat flour, sugar and hydrogenated oil which were purchased from local markets. The cost of raw materials varied from Rs. 300 to Rs. 600 per month in case of small units and from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 2,500 in case of large units. One establishment in Karad specialised in manufacturing biscuits.

These establishments employed crude methods for baking breads, as a result of which the margin of profit in them was not very high. They had almost a continuous business throughout the year. These bakeries sold their products to the hotels and restaurants on wholesale basis and to the consumers on retail basis.

CYCLE REPAIRING.

Cycle-repairing was one of the most important occupations employing 142 persons including 31 paid employees in Satara and Karad, where there were 79 cycle repairers and dealers. Most of them in Satara were located in Wards No. V, VI, VII and VIII. Only eight were located in Wards No. II and III. In Karad, 36 were located in Shaniwar and Guruwar *peths* and only seven in Mangalwar and Raviwar *peths*. Nine samples were chosen from each of the three towns, Satara, Karad and Phaltan. All these establishments were started after 1949. Their main occupation was to repair and sell bicycles and spare parts and to give bicycles on hire.

The capital investment in them in Satara varied from Rs. 700 to Rs. 3,000, in Karad from Rs. 400 to Rs. 4,000, and in Phaltan from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 8,000. All proprietors raised the initial capital from their own resources. No establishment had any debt at the time of survey.

The total number of bicycles kept for hire in these shops varied from 4 to 50 in Satara 16 to 30 in Karad and 5 to 16 in Phaltan. Besides bicycles, some shops kept spare-parts like tubes, tyres which were brought from Bombay, Delhi, Sangli etc., for sale. They maintained all tools and equipment required for repairing bicycles. The cost of repairing these articles varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 50 per month per shop. They also paid bicycle tax varying from Rs. 6 to Rs. 15 per month for the whole unit to the respective municipalities

Each employee was paid between Rs. 20 and Rs. 45 as wages per month. A mechanic who repaired bicycles was paid Rs. 45 per month and other employees between Rs. 20 and Rs. 35 per month.

Business in all establishments was brisk during the summer and the winter. The net income of these establishments varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 300 per month. Shortage of supply of bicycle tubes and tyres was one of the difficulties experienced by these shops.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

LODGING AND BOARDING HOUSES.

The total number of lodging and boarding houses in the two towns at the time of survey was 38 out of which 25 establishments served boarding facilities and the remaining served both. Fourteen establishments were situated in Satara and 24 in Karad. Of the total number of establishments in Satara, 13 were in Wards No. II, III, and V and one was in Ward No. VIII. In Karad, all of them were located in Guruwar and Shaniwar *peths*. The total employment in these establishments was 172 out of whom 75 were paid employees. The employment in establishments, providing lodging and boarding facilities was more than in those providing boarding facilities. Two establishments from each town were surveyed. All were started after 1945. The proprietors raised initial capital from their own resources.

The equipment consisted of tables, chairs, cupboards, beds and utensils required for cooking and serving meals. Two shops in Satara had equipment worth Rs. 700 and Rs. 7,000 each, two in Karad worth Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000 each and two in Phaltan worth Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 2,000 each. All establishments surveyed were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 125 per month. The boarding and lodging houses usually occupied larger premises for which they paid more rent. Besides rent other charges for the maintenance of the establishment were municipal tax, electricity bill, water tax, wages to the labour, etc. These establishments spent between Rs. 10 and Rs. 20 on all these items except wages to labour.

The boarding and lodging houses supplied tea or coffee twice a day in addition to lunch and dinner. The total expenditure on items of foodgrains and other articles required for cooking varied from Rs. 700 to Rs. 2,000 per month per establishment. The total employment in them was 41, out of whom 31 were paid employees. These employees were paid monthly wages and in addition were served two meals a day. A cook was paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 a manager between Rs. 60 and Rs. 70 and other workers between Rs. 12 and Rs. 25 per month.

The owners of boarding houses earned between Rs. 100 and Rs. 200 per month while those of boarding and lodging earned between Rs. 200 and Rs. 500. These hotel keepers had formed an association of their own, which helped them approach the government for acquiring concessions for furthering their interest in the business it it was found that there has been a considerable rise in the prices of all articles required for the preparation of numerous items, which considerably affected the margin of profits acquired by the hotel keepers.

CAP-MAKING.

Cap-making was a minor occupation in the towns, as could be seen from the total number of establishments which was only eight and employed hardly 20 persons. Only two establishments, one in Satara and the other in Karad, were surveyed. They were started

CHAPTER 8.
—
Miscellaneous Occupations.
CAP-MAKING.

in 1945 and 1949 respectively. The principal occupation in these shops was cap-making, with tailoring as a subsidiary occupation. The proprietors of both establishments raised the initial capital from their own resources.

The capital investment in the two shops surveyed was Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 3,000 respectively. The necessary equipment required for this occupation consisted of a sewing machine, needles and a few pieces of furniture like a cupboard, a table and a chair. The shops possessed equipment worth Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 2,000 respectively. One of them had a sewing machine and the other had two sewing machines. They were situated in owned premises. They used electricity for lighting the premises and consumed electricity worth Rs. 16 per month.

Raw materials such as cotton and woollen cloth, embroidery canvas, card-board and thread were brought from Bombay, Kolhapur, and Sangli. The two establishments consumed articles worth Rs. 150 and Rs. 300 per month respectively. Both shops were managed by the owners with the help of their family members. The margin of profit in one shop was fairly high, while in the other, it was enough to maintain the establishment.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

In 1951 there were 22 professors and lecturers, 136 servants and 3,523 teachers, including 466 women in the educational institutions.

The total number of middle schools and high schools in the district in 1958 was 61, out of which 19 were middle schools. Of the 42 high schools in the district, 19 high schools were located in urban areas. The total strength of staff in middle schools was 55 including 3 women and in high schools 510 including 85 women.

The total number of primary schools in the district in 1958 was 1,124 of which 17 were run by municipal school boards, 154 by local bodies and private agencies, one by Government and 952 by district school board. Fifty-four primary schools were located in the urban area. Of these 17 were run by municipal school boards.

The total employment of teachers in all primary schools was 4,454 including 508 women.

There were seven training colleges for primary teachers, five for men and two for women, Six of these colleges were run by private bodies and one by the Government. The total strength of staff employed in them was 75 including eight women. The primary teachers had their association which was formed in 1950 and had a membership of 1,213 persons in 1958. In Satara there was one secondary teachers' training college.

There was one vocational and technical school imparting both theoretical and practical knowledge on subjects like agriculture, carpentry and smithy, handloom-weaving, and conducting wireman's

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

and electrician's courses. The strength of staff in this school was 25. Persons holding diploma certificates in mechanical and electrical engineering were appointed as instructors.

There were 15 other special schools and nine pre-primary schools, four gymnasiums and two schools for music and dancing. The strength of staff in these schools was 54.

FLOUR MILLS.

There were 57 flour mills in the two towns at the time of survey. Of these 30 were located in Satara and 27 in Karad. The total employment in these establishments was 93, of whom 32 were paid employees. In Satara, almost all establishments were equally distributed in all wards except Wards No. I and II which contained only three. Out of 27 establishments in Karad 20 were located in Somwar, Guruwar and Shaniwar *peths* and the rest in the remaining *peths*. Flour milling was their principal occupation. One of them in Phaltan, besides grinding grains, was also engaged in dehusking rice.

Eight establishments were surveyed in the three towns. Two in Satara and one in Karad worked on electric energy and the remaining five on oil engines. Establishments in Satara were hereditary. Those in Karad were started in 1946 and 1956 and those in Phaltan in 1947 and 1949. Tools and equipment required by them were an oil engine or an electric motor, a pair of grinding stones, leather straps and other tools and appliances. In addition, one establishment in Phaltan had a set of rice hullers. Almost all these establishments used grinding stones brought from Gokak which cost them Rs. 16 to Rs. 18 per pair. The cost of equipment varied from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 3,500. The oil engine or electric motor itself accounted for more than half of the total cost of equipment.

The establishments which worked on oil engines consumed crude oil, mobile oil, and kerosene. The cost of consumption of these articles varied from shop to shop. It was between Rs. 75 to Rs. 150 per month. Two establishments using electricity consumed electricity worth Rs. 100 to Rs. 125 per month. Five establishments, three in Satara and two in Phaltan were situated in rented premises, the rent of which varied from Rs. 6 to Rs. 15 per month. The other two were situated in owned premises.

Most of the mills were one-man establishments. Three establishments from Satara and two from Karad and Phaltan were exclusively managed by owners with the help of their family members. The remaining three employed three employees, who were paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 45 per month.

The income of these establishments varied from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250 per month. They served local customers as well as customers from surrounding villages of the respective towns. Inadequate supply of crude and mobile oil was their main difficulty.

CHAPTER 8.
—
Miscellaneous Occupations.
GOLDSMITHS AND SARAFS.

The total number of establishments falling in this category was about 183 in the towns of Satara and Karad at the time of survey. In Satara, 27 establishments were situated in Ward No. V; 16 and 18 in Words No. III and VI respectively and 15 in Wards No. I, II, IV. Out of 77 establishments in Karad, 67 were situated in Guruwar and Raviwar *peths* and the remaining in Somwar and Shukrawar *peths*. The total employment in these establishments was 301, of whom 34 were paid employees. Most of the shops in Satara were managed by owners with the help of their family members.

Six establishments, two each from the three towns, Satara, Karad and Phaltan were surveyed. Four establishments out of six surveyed were hereditary and the remaining two were started in 1949 and 1952 respectively. Manufacture and sale of gold and silver ornaments was the principal occupation in these shops and money lending was a subsidiary occupation which provided them employment throughout the year. All establishments except one, in Karad raised the initial capital from their own resources. The one in Karad which had borrowed the initial capital was found to be indebted at the time of the survey. The total investment in them varied from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 4,00,000.

Tools and equipment in these shops consisted of anvils, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots, crucibles, moulds, nails, etc., and machines like press, wire and plate machines and a few pieces of furniture like cupboards, desks, etc. The cost of equipment varied from shop to shop. It was between Rs. 600 and Rs. 15,000.

Four establishments in Karad and Phaltan were situated in owned premises and the remaining two from Satara in rented premises. The rent of these two was Rs. 27 and Rs. 30 respectively. Besides rent, these establishments paid water and electricity charges and wages of labour. Their expenditure on all these items except wages varied between Rs. 20 and Rs. 40 per month.

The total employment in these shops was 30, of whom 9 were paid employees. In Karad and Phaltan their wages varied from Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 per month, and in Satara from Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 per month.

The materials required included gold and silver and chemicals for purifying and polishing these metals. The amount spent in purchase of these metals cannot be arrived at, as no relevant information was supplied by the establishments concerned.

The total value of stock of bullion, gold and silver ornaments varied from Rs. 7,000 to Rs. 15,000 in Karad and Phaltan. It was nearly Rs. 5,000 and Rs. 8,000 in respect of the two shops surveyed in Satara. Sometimes they brought ready-made ornaments from Kolhapur and sold them in their shops. All articles were sold directly, in the local market. The business, which was brisk during winter and summer, was profitable to almost all shops.

Orders were received directly from customers. Generally metals like gold and silver were supplied by the customers themselves. The goldsmiths carrying business on small scale could not afford to keep stock of these precious metals.

HAIR-CUTTING SALOONS.

A sample survey was conducted at Satara, Karad and Phaltan. Of the three towns Satara and Karad had 68 and 60 hair-cutting saloons employing 222 persons. The establishments in Satara engaged about 128 persons including 28 paid employees and those in Karad employed 94 including 9 paid employees. The location of these establishments in Satara was as follows: Ward Nos. III, V, VI and IX contained 16, 13, 14 and 11 establishments respectively and the remaining three wards had 14 establishments. In Karad, 23 shops were located in Guruwar *peth*, 22 in Shaniwar, 10 in Raviwar and 5 in Somwar, Mangalwar and Budhwar *peths*.

Nine establishments, three from each town were surveyed. The establishments in Satara were started between 1949 and 1956, those in Karad between 1950 and 1956 and in Phaltan between 1944 and 1954. Hair-cutting was their principal occupation providing them with employment throughout the year. The initial capital required was raised from their own resources by all establishments. The total investment in the units in Satara varied from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,500, in Karad from Rs. 200 to Rs. 1,000 and in Phaltan from Rs. 200 to Rs. 700.

All these establishments were situated in rented premises, the rent of which in Satara varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50, in Karad from Rs. 9 to Rs. 30 and in Phaltan from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40. Besides rent, they paid charges for water and electricity which varied from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 per month. A nominal licence fee of rupee one or rupees two was collected yearly by the municipality from the establishments in Karad.

The equipment consisted of scissors, razors, cropping machines, toilet requisites, dressing tables, mirrors and revolving chairs. Most of these establishments used razors and cropping machines of Indian make. The cost of equipment varied according to the size of the unit in the three towns The biggest shop had equipment worth Rs. 700. The medium shop possessed equipment worth Rs. 200 and a small unit worth Rs. 75.

More than 75 per cent. of the total number of persons engaged in this occupation in the three towns were employers themselves. Many establishments were exclusively managed by the owners with the help of their family members. The total employment in the establishments surveyed was 25 of whom only 6 were paid employees. In Satara and Phaltan, employees were paid fixed wages. In Satara, they were paid between Rs. 70 and Rs. 90 and in Phaltan, between Rs. 25 and Rs. 40 per month. In Karad, they were paid at piece rates i.e., their earnings approximating to half the money accruing to the owners due to the work done by them.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.
LAUNDRIES.

The monthly net income of these shops varied between Rs. 70 and Rs. 300.

Two different types of washermen are found in the district—those having fixed establishments of their own and those having no such establishments. The latter type of washermen who render home service take away clothes from individual customers and deliver them back at their residences. These types of establishments are not governed by the Shops and Establishments Act. The number of such washermen is decreasing as they find the home service system uneconomical and also inconvenient. The account given here relates only to the former type.

At the time of the survey, there were 47 establishments in the two towns, employing 94 persons, of whom only 30 were paid employees. Most of these establishments were managed by the owners with the help of family members. In Satara, all establishments except two were managed by the owners. Out of 28 establishments in Satara, six were located in ward No. III, five each in ward Nos. VII and VIII, four each in ward Nos. IV and VI, and two each in ward Nos. II and V. In Karad, 11 were located in Guruwar *peth* ; four and three in Shaniwar and Raviwar *peths* respectively and one in Mangalwar *peth*. Seven shops were surveyed in the three towns, out of which four were newly started and the remaining three were hereditary. Laundering was the principal occupation in all of them and provided employment throughout the year.

A few pieces of furniture like one or two tables, a cupboard and an iron constituted their equipment. In Satara, two shops had two irons each and one shop had three irons. In Karad, two shops were having four irons and one iron respectively. The cost of equipment was round about Rs. 300. Special machines for dry cleaning were not used in these shops. The initial capital was raised from their own resources. The total investment in one of the biggest shops in Satara was Rs. 2,000. In the other two, it was Rs. 400 and Rs. 700 respectively. In Phaltan and Karad, the investment in the establishments varied from Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,000.

The total employment in all these concerns was 42 out of whom 12 were paid employees. Three shops, one in Karad, the other in Phaltan and the third in Satara were managed by owners without any paid employees. Employees were paid at piece rate. They were paid Rs. 1·50 to Rs. 2 for washing 100 clothes.

Washing soda, soap, bleaching powder, indigo, petrol, tinopal, which were purchased from local market and Bombay, were the materials used in washing. The expenditure on these items varied from Rs. 60 to Rs. 400 per month according to the size of the unit. All these establishments were situated in rented premises. Besides

rent, they paid water charges and other taxes in Satara and Karad. One shop which used electric iron, consumed electricity worth Rs. 50 per month. Others used electricity for lighting the premises.

These establishments worked for 8 to 10 hours a day. Their business was brisk usually during winter and summer. Two establishments, one in Satara and the other in Karad, had specialised in washing silk and woollen garments. The net income of these shops varied from Rs. 90 to Rs. 300 per month. At the three places mentioned above persons belonging to the rich and middle classes were regular customers of these shops. Other persons from lower middle class washed their clothes at home and got them ironed in laundries. The business was profitable particularly for the large establishments.

LAW AND ADMINISTRATION

The number of persons following legal profession is on an increase. In 1951 there were 186 lawyers and 47 clerks of lawyers in the district. In 1958 the number was 229 including 218 pleaders, 9 advocates, and 2 barristers. There was no woman following this profession. The number of lawyers practising at different places in the district was as follows:—Satara 84, Wai 25, Karad 53, Patan 10, Koregaon 22, Vaduj 8, Dahiwadi 12 and Phaltan 15. But unlike the medical profession the income of persons following legal profession is on the decline. The profession has lost its local character and a pleader is required to move about many places in the district where his suits are pending a hearing. This has resulted in many a lawyer seeking a Government job. There were 14 courts of civil judges and judicial magistrates and one District and Sessions Court in the district.

A large number of persons are engaged in several branches of administration which include persons working as police, village watchmen, officers of Government, municipalities and other local bodies, villages officials and servants etc. In 1951, the number of persons engaged in police, services of the State, municipal and other local services was as follows:—

	Males	Females	Total
Police	1,451	25	1,476
Service of Indian and Foreign States ..	2,253	71	2,324
Municipal and other local service ..	622	95	717
Village officials & servants and watchmen ..	1,457	84	1,541

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATER

There were very few establishments manufacturing aerated waters like soda and lemon. They were generally small in size engaging about 2 to 5 persons; a few of the larger establishments, however, were found engaging about 8 to 10 persons. In small shops, it was found

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATER.

that a few members of the family did actually work in the concerns. At the time of the survey, of the total number of 20 establishments, 16 were located in Karad and four in Satara, employing about 44 and four persons respectively. Of these, in Karad 13 were employees, 15 were family members and 16 employers; in Satara all the four establishments were managed by owners themselves. The occupation provided full-time employment throughout the year but business was dull during rainy and winter seasons, when the establishments maintained a skeleton staff. The business was brisk during summer.

The equipment consisted of soda-making machines, gas cylinders, soda bottles, glasses, ice boxes, furniture, etc. The cost of equipment ranged from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 4,000. The machines were mostly purchased from Bombay whereas the other equipment was purchased locally. Most of the establishments were housed in rented buildings. The rent ranged from Rs. 15 to Rs. 50 a month according to the size and location of the building. Besides, the owners paid local taxes such as renewal licence fee, water rates, electricity charges, etc.

There was no clear-cut division of labour as such. Work on machine and that requiring physical strength was mostly done by experienced adults, whereas unskilled work like bringing water, filling water in bottles, cleaning bottles and glasses etc. and serving drinks to customers was done by other adult workers and boys.

Wages were paid in cash, depending upon the skill and efficiency of the workers and upon the business turnover of the establishment concerned. A full-time adult worker was paid between Rs. 30 and Rs. 45 a month. In one of the establishments surveyed at Karad, the worker was provided with meals and the wages paid were Rs. 15 only. The working hours were longer, sometimes extending to 18 hours a day.

The daily turnover ranged from Rs. 10 in slack months to Rs. 50 in busy seasons. One of the establishments surveyed had even a higher turnover amounting to Rs. 75. The production of aerated water bottles ranged from ½ to 3 gross bottle a day including soda, lemon and orange. One of the establishments in Karad produced ice candy sticks in summer.

Lemon, essence, sugar, syrups, fruit juice, colour, ice, gas (in cylinder), milk, etc., formed the material required. Most of the material with the exception of colour, gas, essence etc., bought from Bombay and Poona was all locally purchased. The cost of the material ranged from Rs. 4 to Rs. 30 per day on an average for the whole year. The products were sold to hotels and restaurants more or less on a wholesale basis and to customers visiting the cold-drink shops. Some of the establishments also catered for customers at public places by engaging servants to sell their products.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATER.

The capital invested in these shops varied between Rs. 1,000 for small units to Rs. 4,000 in case of bigger units. In most cases capital was borrowed, the banks acting as the immediate source. The rate of interest varied between six per cent. to nine per cent. The earnings of the establishments showed a wide divergence depending upon the size of the unit. In case of small shops the earnings varied between Rs. 50 and Rs. 90 a month, those of medium size varied between Rs. 80 and Rs. 150 a month and those of large size varied between Rs. 180 and Rs. 300 a month. The earnings included labour charges of family members working in the concerns.

MEDICAL PROFESSION.

There appears to be a considerable increase in the number of persons following the medical profession. In 1951, there were 226 registered medical practitioners, 122 *vaidyas* and *hakims*, 18 midwives, 141 nurses, four vaccinators, 101 compounders, 298 employees in hospitals and health services, six dentists and 18 veterinary surgeons in the district. The earnings in the medical profession indicate a substantial rise. Most of the doctors possessed the latest medical equipment enabling them to perform minor surgical operations. Of recent, there have been more consultants specializing in different branches of anatomy in Satara and Karad. However, the proportion of doctors to the entire population of the district is very low and more so, the proportion of doctors to rural population.

MILK AND MILK PRODUCTS.

The total number of establishments catering milk and milk products in the two towns was 18, out of which seven were in Satara and 11 in Karad. The total employment in them was 35 persons, out of whom 13 were paid employees. Most of the establishments in Satara were situated in Ward Nos. I, II, III and IV and, in Karad, Somwar and Guruwar *peths*. Three establishments, one from Satara and two from Karad, were surveyed. The one in Satara was started in 1950 and two others in Karad in 1952 and 1954, respectively. Dairying was the principal occupation which provided them employment throughout the year. The proprietors raised initial capital from their own resources. The total investment in these shops varied from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 3,000. These establishments had no milch animals of their own but they collected milk from nearby villages through their agents or employees.

Their equipment consisted of cream separator, butter churning machine, hand machine, few utensils for storing milk, and tables, cupboards, etc. Two shops in Karad had equipment worth Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,800 respectively and the one in Satara had equipment worth Rs. 600.

The three establishments were situated in rented premises. The rent was Rs. 25, Rs. 26 and Rs. 40 respectively.

Their total expenditure on items like electricity, water tax, municipal licence fee, etc., was Rs. 30, Rs. 40 and Rs. 46 per month respectively.

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

The total employment in these shops was 11 workers out of whom eight were paid employees who were paid between Rs. 15 and Rs. 40 each per month. These shops collected milk from nearby villages at 50 nP. per seer and sold it at 62 nP. per seer. The other products of milk were butter, ghee and *chakka* which were sent to Poona, Sangli, etc.

MOTOR-BODY BUILDING.

At the time of survey there were 40 establishments, 15 in Satara and 25 in Karad, which were engaged in motor body building. The total employment in them was 82 including 30 paid employees. Almost all the establishments in Satara were situated in Ward No. V and only two in Ward Nos. VII and VIII. In Karad, all were located in Budhwar and Shaniwar *peths*. Seven shops were chosen for the survey. Of these four were started by about 1930 and three after 1952. Motor body building and repairing was their main occupation which provided them employment throughout the year. Six owners raised initial capital from their own resources. The remaining one in Satara had still an outstanding debt of Rs. 5,000. The total investment in each of these shops varied from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 20,000.

The equipment consisted of lathes, battery charging plant, electric drill, welding machine tools, jacks, press screws and testing and measuring instruments. The cost of equipment varied from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 6,000 per shop in the three towns.

All establishments surveyed were situated in rented premises. The rent of each varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 50 per month. They paid Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 per month as electric charges. No municipal tax was paid by any establishment in the three towns.

The materials required for repairing work included spare parts, welding wires, screws, bolts, kerosene oil, lubricating oil and petroleum. Spare parts, screws, bolts and welding wires were brought from Poona, Sangli, etc. Each spent between Rs. 40 and Rs. 80 per month on these items.

As the repairing work demanded skill and experience, mostly mechanics were employed and they were paid good wages. In each establishment, there was one expert mechanic. The other workers worked under his supervision. In four shops the proprietors worked as experts. The total employment in the shops surveyed was 34, out of whom 21 were paid employees, Skilled workers were paid Rs. 5 and unskilled workers rupee one per day.

They repaired motor vehicles and oil engines, when their services were requisitioned by the customers for that purpose. Orders were placed by customers directly with the establishments. Some establishments assembled spare parts of engines. The margin of profit in these shops was just enough to provide for their maintenance.

RELIGION.

Over a period of last 20 years, the worst sufferers are the persons following religion as their profession. Not only there has been a considerable diminution in their number, but their incomes also

have registered a steep fall. The fall in the number is usually ascribed to two reasons. Firstly, as the profession has lost it popularity, there are very few new entrants in it and secondly, the younger generation is more prone to take a job rather than follow in the footsteps of their forefathers. It is only in the rural areas where people are god-fearing that the profession thrives.

RESTAURANTS AND TEA SHOPS.

Restaurant keeping forms one of the most important occupations in the district as it provides employment opportunities to various persons. The total number of restaurants and tea shops in the two towns was 168 (60 in Satara and 108 in Karad). They employed 364 persons out of whom 216 were paid employees.

Most of the establishments in Satara were situated in Ward Nos. III, V, VI, VII and VIII and in Karad in Guruwar, Shukrawar and Raviwar *peths*. In Satara, the total employment in these shops was 238 including 144 paid employees, in Karad it was 126 including 72 paid employees.

Eight establishments, three each in Satara and Karad and two in Phaltan were surveyed. Two establishments in Satara were started in 1950 and 1954, those in Karad by about 1951 and in Phaltan in 1940 and 1954. The principal occupation of these shops was catering tea and snacks, which provided them employment throughout the year. They raised their initial capital from their own resources.

The restaurants had to spend a considerable amount on purchasing equipment which consisted of cooking utensils, vessels, glass-ware, crockery, cupboards, chairs, tables, ice-cream pots, cash boxes etc. Two establishments in Karad and one in Satara had radio sets and electric fans. One in Karad had a telephone. The cost of equipment ranged from Rs. 500 to Rs. 7,000.

All establishments in the sample except one in Satara were situated in rented premises. Rent of each varied from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50 per month. Besides rent, they had to incur expenses on water, electricity, municipal licence fee etc. The total expenditure on all these items per establishment varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 60 per month in the three towns.

The materials required for preparing tea and eatables included sugar, milk, tea, rice, wheat, edible oil, ghee, spices, vegetables, gram flour etc. They were purchased from local market. The amount spent every month on all these items varied between Rs. 300 and Rs. 1,000 per month in the three towns.

The total employment in these shops was 65, out of whom 45 were paid employees. In Karad, these persons were employed on daily wages which varied from 50 nP. to Re. 1·50 per day. In Satara and Phaltan they were employed on monthly wages which varied from

Rs. 15 to Rs. 45. Besides wages, each employee was served with food twice a day. The total hours of work in the establishments were 8 to 9 per day.

RESTAURANTS AND TEA SHOPS.

These establishments sold hot drinks like tea, coffee, cold drinks like soda, lemon etc., and snacks like *bhaji, puri, shev, chivada, papadi, batatawada* and sweets like *ladu, pedha, barfi, gulab jamb* etc. The monthly cash collection of these establishments varied from season to season. In the brisk season, which was usually winter and summer, it amounted to Rs. 120 to Rs. 2,000 per month and in the slack season from Rs. 50 to Rs. 300 per month. These establishments in Karad and Satara had a hotel keepers' association.

SILK MANUFACTURING.

There were three silk mills, two in Karad and one in Satara, employing about 30 persons. Information about two mills in Karad was obtained. One of them was started in 1929 and the other in 1934-35.

The main work done in the establishment was twisting, winding and doubling and reeling artificial silk imported from Italy, Japan, Switzerland and Germany. There were 2,800 spindles in one mill and 1,300 in the other. The total investment in both was Rs. 4 lakhs, out of which about a lakh of rupees were borrowed from the local bank. About 15 workers were employed in one mill. The total employment in the other was not available. Wages paid to each labourer varied between Rs. 20 and Rs. 60 per month.

The products were directly sent to Satara, Poona, Sholapur, Khandesh, Bijapur and Hyderabad. These mills did not get regular quota of artificial silk.

TAILORING.

Tailoring was one of the biggest occupations in the three towns. At the time of survey, there were 237 establishments which employed 405 persons in Satara and Karad. Of the 237 establishments 134 were in Satara and 103 in Karad. In Satara, 57 establishments were located in Ward No. III; 25 in Ward No. V; 16 in Ward No. VIII; 11 in Ward No. VI; eight in Ward No. IV; and seven each in Ward Nos. II and VII. Of the total number of tailoring establishments in Karad, 47 were located in Guruwar *peth*; 23 and 21 in Raviwar and Shaniwar *peths*; 6 in Somwar *peth* and 6 each in Mangalwar and Shukrawar *peths*. The total employment in 134 establishments in Satara was 197 of whom 45 were paid employees and the remaining were owners and their family members. The occupation provided full time employment.

Three shops from each of the three towns viz., Satara, Karad and Phaltan were selected for the sample survey These shops were started between 1937 and 1949. Tailoring was their principal occupation. Almost all establishments had raised the initial capital from their own resources.

Sewing machines, scissors, irons etc. were the main tools and equipment used. Most of these establishments used second-hand machines. The small sized units worked with one machine. The medium sized with two to three machines. The biggest units had 5 to 6 machines each. The cost of machine varied from Rs. 150 to Rs. 400. New sewing machines were usually purchased from local agents of the manufacturing firm and second-hand from local markets In addition, they had a few pieces of furniture like show cases, cupboards, tables, chairs etc. The total value of equipment in each shop varied from Rs. 400 to Rs. 1,500. These shops were situated in rented premises; the rent varied from Rs. 10 to Rs. 35 per month. The smallest unit paid Rs. 10 per month, and the biggest Rs. 35 per month as rent. All the nine units surveyed in the sample used electricity for lighting. Electricity charges varied between Rs. 5 and Rs. 10 per month.

These shops spent Rs. 15 to Rs. 60 per month, on items like thread, buttons and cocoanut oil, which were purchased from local markets. The total number of persons employed in all these shops was 28 out of whom 15 were paid employees. Three shops at Satara, Karad and Phaltan were exclusively managed by the owners with the help of their family members. Employees were paid at piece rate. Almost all shops paid them at a rate of half the amount charged to the customer for the work done. The principle of division of labour was found to be followed in these shops. The work of taking measurements and cutting the cloth accordingly was done generally by the owner himself. Stitching was done by skilled employees and other work like stitching buttons or preparing button holes was done by the members of employers' families or was entrusted to casual unskilled labour.

These shops stitched shirts, trousers, coats, half-pants, pyjamas, and ladies' apparel. Two shops at Satara and the other at Karad specialised in stitching woollen clothes. The net income of these shops varied from Rs. 75 to Rs. 300 per month. Their business was slack in rainy season. Paucity of capital was the main difficulty experienced by them.

CHAPTER 9—ECONOMIC TRENDS.

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

SECTION I — ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.
Introduction.

IN THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS THE ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF THE DISTRICT WERE DISCUSSED IN DETAIL. However in this dynamic world a discussion, however elaborate and detailed it might be, of the economy of the district would be insufficient unless a review is taken of its economic potentialities and possibilities of their exploitation. At the same time it will be interesting to know the result of the active utilisation of the existing resources which is best reflected in the standard of life that the people enjoy. With this in view, in this chapter, are discussed firstly the economic potentials of the district and secondly the broad tendencies in the income and expenditure patterns of the various classes of the people in the community.

The pace and course of economic development of a district are largely conditioned by natural resources and human efforts. Availability of natural resources such as fertile agricultural land, abundant water-supply, rich and dense forests and mineral deposits of high quality are pre-requisites to development. However, external factors like provision of adequate and timely finance, location of factories, development of a well-knit system of transport, expansion of markets, urbanisation and adoption of improved techniques of production have vital bearing on the growth of the economy. This implies optimum use of the factors of production in the most profitable channels so as to ensure remunerative exploitation of the natural resources with which the district might be endowed.

By its very nature, planning has to be national in character. The idea of an independent and a separate plan for a region is inconceivable. District is too small a unit to have a distinct place in a planned development unless it is very specially endowed with natural advantages. A region in the wake of its development is expected to contribute its utmost to the national development. Even then, sound economic planning aims at balancing three aspects; temporal, sectoral and spatial or regional. In a democracy maintenance of regional balance is very important. Planning involves allocation of resources on the basis of typical regional demands and adoption of

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

measures intended to exploit to the maximum the economic potentialities of the district and to confer benefits in the form of better living conditions and increased avenues of employment upon the inhabitants of the area. Hence a district economy assumes peculiar significance in national planning.

The preceding chapters dealt with the progress recorded by various aspects of the economy of the district during the last few decades and their present position. It is intended to take here a bird's eye view of the resources of the district and to visualize how best they could be harnessed so as to meet the gradually increasing regional and national demands upon its economy, in view of the nation's planned development.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the main pursuit of the people in the district. The important food-crops of the district are jowar, bajra, paddy, green gram and wheat. The district also produces on a large scale sugarcane, potatoes, onions and cotton. The First and the Second Five-Year Plans aimed at augmenting the yield of crops by resorting to the use of better seeds, improved methods of cultivation, chemical fertilisers, better manuring, etc. The programme of State aid to agriculture enables the agriculturists to meet their short-term and long-term credit requirements and so has a favourable effect on agricultural produce. The Second Five-Year Plan laid greater emphasis on the spread of agricultural education and facilities for training and demonstration. Seed multiplication scheme was being vigorously implemented and improved seeds were supplied to 41,510 acres till 1957-58. Use of improved seeds is estimated to raise the yield at least by ten per cent.

An area of 3,800 acres was under cotton in 1956-57. Cultivation of cotton is concentrated in Phaltan taluka. An improved variety 170 Co2 is introduced in the district since it fetches better price in the market. The Second Five-Year Plan aimed at bringing 6,700 acres under cultivation of cotton. Farmers are being encouraged to use chemical fertilisers, to adopt latest techniques of production and to use improved implements and machinery so as to bring about an increase in yield. Demonstration centres are set up for this purpose. Chemical fertilisers are distributed among the cultivators through selected agencies such as traders and co-operative societies. Municipalities and village panchayats are encouraged to prepare compost manure on an increasing scale. Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation introduced in 1952-53 is gaining ground and is becoming popular in Jaoli, Patan, Satara and Wai talukas and Mahabaleshwar peta. In 1957-58 an area of 7,295 acres was under the Japanese Method of Paddy Cultivation. The district stands next to Jalgaon in respect of production of groundnut.

The agricultural produce can be augmented through intensive or extensive cultivation. Of the total geographical area of 26,05,600 acres, only 18,800 acres constituted culturable waste. However, it is possible to bring *mal-rans* in Satara, Karad and Phaltan talukas under cultivation and terrace a few acres of land in the west in Patan,

Jaoli and Mahabaleshwar talukas. Terracing is an item of soil conservation which is recently assuming importance especially as a measure of land improvement and soil conservation in areas with heavy rainfall. In other words there is also some scope for extensive cultivation. There is an increasing tendency visible among the farmers to bring larger area under cash crops inasmuch as they fetch higher incomes. Though this is beneficial to the farmers concerned, it results in reduction in area under food-crops. It is in this context that extensive cultivation will counteract the tendency of transfer of lands from food-crops to cash-crops and will help boost the agricultural produce.

Land Reforms.

The development of agriculture calls for a programme of land reforms. Farmers in the district suffer from evils of division and fragmentation of land, though it will have to be admitted that the extent of division and fragmentation of land in Satara district is not so wide and extensive as to cause serious concern. The programme of land reforms aims at prevention of fragmentation and consolidation of holdings so as to ensure the most economic cultivation. The State has adopted suitable legislation to make tillers the owners of the soil and to mitigate the evils of sub-division and fragmentation. It will be pertinent to point out here that programme of land reforms in India would be incomplete unless it goes hand in hand with the scheme of integrated rural credit. In fact, provision of adequate and timely finance to meet the long-term and short-term credit needs of agriculturists, forms the corner-stone of any plan for agrarian development and rural reconstruction. Land reforms and integrated credit scheme combined with the efforts to encourage and foster co-operation among the cultivators would go a long way in developing agriculture in particular and in improving the standard of living of farmers in general.

Live Stock.

The importance of live-stock in the rural economy of the district cannot be over-emphasised. Improvement of live-stock and development of poultry farming are important subsidiary occupations of the farmer which he can ill-afford to neglect. *Khillar* bull, a light draught animal is the pride of the district. There was an area of 63,600 acres of permanent pasture land in the district in 1956-57. These have to be preserved and developed for grazing. Besides, grazing lands situated on the banks of Krishna, Koyna and Vena rivers afford good prospects for the development of live-stock and dairy occupations. Numerous schemes pertaining to improvement of live-stock, development of cattle and upgrading of poultry are already in operation and their benefits would be eventually visible. There is a proposal for setting up a poultry farm in the district. No special efforts have, however, been made to organise dairy industry in the district. In view of diversified encouragement given by the State in the form of manifold schemes referred to above and maintenance and provision of veterinary and animal husbandry facilities, it is expected that the district will achieve considerable progress in the field of live-stock development. It is encouraging to note that rural folk are taking increasing interest in live-stock improvement and are therefore

CHAPTER 9.
—
Economic Trends.
ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.
Industrialisation.

extending their co-operation in the successful execution of the schemes sponsored in the district.

The district with a population of 12 lakhs is definitely having a rural bias as reflected in the number of ruralites, viz. 10,14,970. An improvement in the standard of living of the people through increase in incomes demands that pressure of population on land be reduced and that surplus labour be provided with gainful employment in other suitable avenues. This would mean a proper redistribution of population as between urban and rural areas and an even distribution of labour force between agricultural and non-agricultural occupations. Taking into consideration the p'ace of cash crops in the economy, *viz.*, groundnuts, oilseeds, sugarcane, etc., the prospects for the indigenous development of these industries are definitely on the up-grade. Moreover, electricity generated after the completion of the Koyna project is expected to transform the district industrially. Large industries essentially requiring power will be developed in the region and will be fed on the raw materials imported from other districts e.g. iron and steel, textiles, etc. There are no essential mineral deposits in the district which cou'd afford prospects for setting up of new engineering industries. There is, however, some scope for expansion of processing industries like oil-crushing mills and ginning and pressing factories.

Agriculture provides ample scope for improvement through intensive cultivation. After the completion of Koyna project, irrigation facilities will be stepped up. With the availability of power, water suction pumps will be used for irrigating the fields with well-water. This will result in increasing area irrigated and area cropped twice or more. It may be possible to take even three crops a year in some areas. This, combined with the use of large quantities of green and chemical fertilizers, improved and disease-resistant strains evolved at research stations, insecticides and pesticides, advanced and scientific techniques of cultivation will go a long way in transforming agriculture into a remunerative occupation.

Forests.

Forests in the district constitute a valuable asset. While there is clamouring for afforestation in the district, wanton destruction of forests on a large scale is, strangely enough, taking place in Khandala and Mahabaleshwar mahals. This deprives the region of the rich forest produce and causes reduction in rainfall. This calls for two-fold action. On the one hand, wanton destruction of forests must be stopped, while on the other, afforestation on a large and varied scale must be officially undertaken in newly reclaimed areas unsuitable for cultivation. There is a retanning and finishing centre at Satara established in 1951. It is only of its kind in the State. In view of possible development of live-stock and the availability of necessary raw materials from the forests situated in western part of the district, this industry can be encouraged and developed. Charcoal manufacturing and bee-keeping are two major forest industries which deserve encouragement and assistance. Charcoal manufacturing is carried on by societies which produce about 200 tons of charcoal. They

also undertake collection of *hirda* and *shikekai*. Two units are engaged in bee-keeping at Mahabaleshwar of which one is run by the Government. Annually over 45,000 lbs. of honey belonging to 15 different varieties and valued at Rs. 57,000 or more is marketed at centres like Bombay and Poona. It is possible to encourage and organise these two industries on more sound and profitable lines.

Small-Scale and Cottage Industries.

In the modern era of planning no district economy can afford to remain purely agricultural and must develop an industrial bias. In the absence of possibilities of engineering and other large industries coming up in the district, greater emphasis has to be placed on the development of important small-scale and cottage industries like cotton and wool-weaving, carpentry, black smithy, copper smithy and gold smithy, pottery, rope-making, *gul*-making, etc. The technical school and poly-technique institution set up recently at Satara and Karad respectively will play a significant role in providing necessary technical training to the younger generation and in fostering industrial psychology so essential for industrial development. Development of small-scale industries will provide occupation and a source of earning to the artisans whereas cottage industries will provide subsidiary occupation to farmers and will supplement their incomes. This implies extending technical and financial assistance on a large scale for successful implementation of the scheme.

Markets.

The prospects of agricultural development are very closely associated with those of trade, finance, transport and communications. In order that a farmer should derive maximum rewards for his toils, it is essential that his produce should be marketed to his advantage. This involves, reducing to the minimum the role of village traders and middlemen, provision of ware housing and storage facilities, supplying of adequate credit so as to increase the waiting capacity of the cultivators, all of which will enable the cultivators to sell their produce at a fair price and will put an end to their exploitation. Efforts in this direction are already under way. Regulated markets are established at Karad, Koregaon, Phaltan and Satara and sub-market yards at Kole, Masur, Umbraj, Malharpeth, Rahimatpur, Lonand and Surur. Important commodities such as groundnut, turmeric, *gul*, *tur*, *mug*, chillies, jowar, bajra, onions, gram, coriander, *chavli*, safflower, wheat, beans, *matki*, hulga, seasamum and castor-seed had been regulated by 1956-57 at these markets. Besides, co-operative purchase and sales societies have been functioning at Karad, Koregaon, Phaltan, Wai, Jaoli and Satara talukas. This will put a check on illicit trading and other malpractices, will avert a loss of revenue to local authorities and will ensure regular supply, steady price and proper distribution of available stock.

Transport.

Rapid development in the road transport system is observed in the district. In the matter of development of road transport, this district stands only next to Poona in the whole of the State. As for rail transport, there is a single line metre gauge railway track of the Southern Railway passing through the district. Conversion of this single line track into a double line broad-gauge track would accelerate the movement of passengers and goods and will give an impetus

CHAPTER 9.
—
Economic Trends.
ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.
Finance.

to the development of agriculture and industry through greater monetization of the economy. It will also enable the cultivator to sell his produce in the dearest market. It is also possible to open up branch communications lines emanating from railway stations such as Satara Road or Karad and joining them with important trade centres lying outside the district such as Chiplun or Shirwal. All this would mean substantial expenditure and schemes like the development of railways which require large capital outlay can be implemented only when they form part of a nation-wide plan and adequate provision for the requisite finances is made by the State and Union Governments.

Even to-day the financial agencies as represented by post-offices or joint stock banks have reached only a fraction of the total population with the result that the resources either lie idle or are improperly invested. As a remedial measure, savings drive will have to be undertaken vigorously. Besides, postal savings and banking facilities must be extended so as to encompass even the rural parts in an effort to mop up the greater part of the community's savings and to make them available to the society as a whole for their economic and general well-being. This will help channelise whatever savings could be tapped into most productive investment.

SECTION II — STANDARD OF LIFE.

STANDARD OF LIFE.

ANY ATTEMPT TO STUDY THE STANDARD OF LIFE OF THE PEOPLE of a particular place or region necessitates the consideration of its physical aspects over and above its socio-economic factors.

The population of the district in 1951 was 11,75,309 of which 5,72,697 were males and 6,02,342 females. The occupational distribution of the population was as follows :—

Persons depending on agriculture	9,07,165
Persons depending on production other than agriculture	1,04,422
Persons depending on commerce	42,923
Persons depending on transport	7,277
Persons depending on miscellaneous occupations ..	1,13,522

The following pages give a brief description of the standard of living of the people in both the urban and the rural areas of the district, for which a sample survey on a small scale was conducted in Satara, Karad and Phaltan regions of the districts.

Urban Areas.

The urban families were classified into the following three groups on the basis of their actual income :—

High Income Group	.. with income of Rs. 250 and above per month.
Middle Income Group	.. with income ranging between Rs. 101 and Rs. 249 per month.
Low Income Group	.. with income of Rs. 100 and below per month.

Urban Areas.
High Income Group.

For classifying a family in one of the income-groups, the total family income is related in the following way. The standard size of a family is taken to be four full units. A person below the age of 12 years constitutes half a unit and a person above that age signifies one full unit. If the size of the family to be classified is bigger than the standard one, the total income is adjusted downwards by relating it to a family of a standard size, for example, for a family consisting of 6 units and having a total monthly income of Rs. 120, the computed total income will be $\frac{4 \times 120}{6}$ = Rs. 80

Hence the family will be classified as if the total family income was Rs. 80.

The computed monthly income of this group comes to Rs. 250. The group consists of persons who follow such professions as education, engineering, medicine, law, goldsmithy, lodging and boarding, etc. Included in this group are also Class I and Class II Government Officers. Twenty-five families of this category from Satara, Karad and Phaltan were investigated for the purposes of this survey.

Generally every family possessed nearly 7·43 acres of land worth Rs. 7,130 of which only a small portion was mortgaged to the tune of Rs. 217·39. Most of the families in this group had their own houses and the average value of the house did not exceed Rs. 2,500. Only four families possessed cattle such as cows, buffaloes, etc.

Generally a family had only one earning member who was the head of the household. The percentage of female earners was almost negligible. The total income of a family on an average came to Rs. 376·48 per month, while the expenditure of each family was Rs. 263·78. The surplus was invested in banks, post-office, insurance, etc. The extent of indebtedness in this group was very negligible and of the families investigated only one was found to have incurred debt to the tune of Rs. 1,500.

Commensurate with its higher standard the level of education of this group was quite high, while the percentage of illiteracy was as low as 7·55. Nearly 20·75 per cent. of the population belonging to this category had taken college education, 29·25 per cent. had reached the stage of secondary education and the percentage of people taking primary education came to 42·45. Expenditure on education was found to be Rs. 442·42 per family per year. The size of the family was quite small, each family having on an average 2·91 adults and 1·73 minors or children.

Expenditure.

The average yearly expenditure of a family was Rs. 2,70,926, while its income was Rs. 2,800·50 of which Rs. 971·46 were spent on articles of food. The next important item of expenditure was clothing which accounted for Rs. 107·73 per year. The other important items of expenditure were housing, medicine, fuel and lighting, servants and miscellaneous. Yearly expenditure on them came to Rs. 209·23, Rs. 100·30, Rs. 107·73, Rs. 115·73 and Rs. 442·42 respectively. Expenditure on entertainment was Rs. 33 per year.

CHAPTER 9. — Economic Trends. STANDARD OF LIFE. Urban Areas. *Indebtedness.* Middle Income Group.

The bedding of the family consisted of a few mattresses and *chaddars*, while the household utensils consisted mostly of brass. These families also had some stainless steel vessels and utensils.

As the economic conditions of these families were somewhat satisfactory there was little need for them to borrow for the purposes of their maintenance. Loans were raised mostly for production on agricultural lands as well as for business. Of 28 families investigated from this group about 8 had contracted debts amounting to Rs. 26,850. The amount of loans taken by individual families varied between Rs. 250 and Rs. 5,000. In most of the cases the source of loan was banks and co-operative societies while their duration was one year and the rate of interest varied between 7 per cent. and 9 per cent.

The families with an average income of between Rs. 100 and Rs. 249 per month belong to this group. The family budgets of forty-eight families from this group were examined. Each family constituted on an average five members of whom 2·97 were adults and 2·06 minors or children. The number of male earners per family was 1·21 and that of female earners only 0·04. The average monthly income from the principal and allied sources was Rs. 159 per month while its expenditure came to Rs. 142·37 per family.

Expenditure.

Annual expenditure of an average family on food was Rs. 921·15. The expenditure on milk and milk products and on vegetables was small in comparison with the expenditure on similar items in case of higher income groups. As regards expenditure on items other than food an average family spent about Rs. 200 per year on clothing, Rs. 78 on medical aids, Rs. 17 on domestic services and Rs. 62 on education. Entertainment accounted for Rs. 17 per year.

Indebtedness.

Of the 47 families investigated, 18 were found to be in debt. The total debt incurred by the families was Rs. 15,086, which worked out at an average of Rs. 838 per family. The purposes of the debt were specified as follows : Of the total sum borrowed, 21·5 per cent. was borrowed for maintenance, 8·1 for marriage and other rituals, 45·00 for business, 14·5 for construction of buildings, 1·9 for purchase of machinery, etc. Banks, businessmen, insurance companies, co-operative societies and relations were the main sources of loan. Interest rates varied between 5½ per cent. and 8 per cent. and debts were repayable within periods varying between one and three years.

Education.

More than one-fourth of the population from this group was found illiterate. Illiteracy in this group was more pronounced than in any other group. Percentage of secondary and college education dropped quite steeply while the percentage of people who had taken or were taking secondary education was only 10·58. Percentage for college education was only 5·29. There was lack of sufficient funds to provide for the education. Out of 11 persons who had taken college education only 2 were females.

Low Income Group.

This group, includes families with incomes of Rs. 1,200 or below per annum. The average number of members in a family belonging to this group was found to be 7·8 consisting of 5·11 adults and 2·57

children. Both the male and the female members of the family worked. A few had ownership in land which worked out at an average of 1·63 acres valued at Rs. 1,200. In some cases the land was found mortgaged or pledged as security for contracting loans. Very few families were in possession of valuables and even such possessions were not worth Rs. 300. Only a few families owned cattle-heads worth Rs. 120 only.

The average income of a family in this group was about Rs. 133 per month. The low income and the large number of members in the families made it difficult to the families in this group to make both ends meet. Their major items of expenditure were food and clothing. The family from this group spent Rs. 900 per year on articles of food alone. Expenditure on clothing was another significant item in the budget on which the family could not afford to spend more than Rs. 200 per year. The expenditure over other items was allocated thus : Rs. 47·76 for housing, Rs. 58·23 for medicine, Rs. 78·28 for education, Rs. 14·88 for entertainment and Rs. 43 for domestic services.

Indebtedness.

Debt was a normal feature of the families in this group. Of the 11 families surveyed for this purpose it was found that the total amount borrowed by them was Rs. 19,460, the average working out at Rs. 1,769 per family. The debts were contracted for numerous purposes such as clearing off old debts, construction of houses, marriages, education, investment in business, etc., mostly from private sources such as merchants, relatives, petty traders and such others. The share of responsibility for loans in respect of co-operative banks was negligible. The rates of interest varied from six per cent. to nine per cent., the incidence of interest being very high when the loan was contracted from private institutions and relatives. The repayment was spread over from one to ten years. Immovable property normally served as security but in many cases loans were granted on personal credit and mutual relationship also.

In the matter of education progress made by this group of families was not far from satisfactory. The general tone of literacy was quite high with asmuch as 70 per cent. knowing reading and writing. About 40 per cent. of the literates had primary education. Nearly 8·45 per cent. of the literates had attained the level of secondary and only 3·02 per cent. the level of college education. Poverty and necessity to earn in early childhood deprived a large part of populace from getting benefits of higher education. However, there is found to be a major educational build up in this group due to the implemention of the new policy of Government to grant free education at all levels in case of those families whose annual income is below Rs. 1,200.

Rural Areas.

The rural standard of life offers a picture in contrast as compared to its urban counterpart. The ruralites do not get the same amenities as urbanites due to general rural backwardness, lack of proper transport and communication.

CHAPTER 9.
—
Economic Trends.
STANDARD OF LIFE.
Rural Areas.
High Income Group.

Classification of people in rural areas into various income-groups is made on lines similar to those on which grouping of urban population is based. And the villages from which these people come are selected in the same way as is done in the urban areas so that they can faithfully represent the conditions of the people in the whole district.

Most of the families in this group were those of agriculturists owning vast tracts of land and with an income exceeding Rs. 3,000 a year.

The amount of security and stability generally enjoyed by this class by virtue of its ownership over land and other property is greater than any other class of the rural society. For example, an average family of an agriculturist from this group was found to have owned land worth Rs. 20,000 or above, a house worth Rs. 8,500, cattle-head worth Rs. 4,000 and gold and silver ornaments costing over Rs. 1,200 or so.

The average number of members in the family of this group was five of whom three were adults. The monthly income and expenditure of these families amounted to Rs. 450 and Rs. 370, respectively.

Expenditure.

On food the family had to spent as much as, Rs. 1,200 whereas on clothing the average expenditure was Rs. 250 per year. Expenditure on fuel and lighting was Rs. 80·3, repairing of houses Rs. 87·0, medical aids Rs. 65·0, entertainment Rs. 21·7, education Rs. 39·5, miscellaneous Rs. 36·0. The expenditure on entertainment was negligible due to the semiabsence of theatres in the villages.

The level of education of the rural population was low compared to that of the urban population in the district. Among all the three groups, however, this group stood quite high as far as general literacy and the tone of education was concerned. Only 23·5 per cent. of the rural population from this group was found illiterate, while more than 50 per cent. had completed primary education and more than 23 per cent. had taken secondary education. Percentage of those who had reached the level of higher or college education, of course, was as low as 2·90.

Inventory.

The family possessions of this group were as under—utensils (mostly brass and some stainless steel) to the value of Rs. 315·5, furniture worth Rs. 66, cotton and silk clothes worth Rs. 244, bedding material worth Rs. 88·6 and bicycles, bullock cart worth Rs. 860. Many families also had radio, valuable religious books, old photo-frames, etc. estimated to cost about Rs. 500 to Rs. 800. People in rural areas had a fascination for gold and silver and the families in this group were not an exception. The survey revealed that on an average each family possessed gold and silver ornaments to the tune of Rs. 1,100.

Middle Income Group.

The average family in this group consisted of five members of whom four were adults. In each family the number of earners was more than one even though the head of the family was the principal earning member. The total earnings of the family from all sources were about Rs. 228 per month. Nearly every family owned a house

worth Rs. 3,000 or above and land admeasuring about 14 acres, and six heads of cattle valued at about Rs. 1,000. The value of gold and silver possessions by some families could be placed at Rs. 1,300.

The monthly expenditure which an average family had to incur was calculated to be Rs. 115·7, and the annual savings were Rs. 493·4. This does not mean that all the families in this group had a sound financial position or could very well balance their budgets.

Indebtedness.

A number of households were running into debts, the aggregate amount of their debts came to Rs. 24,130 and the average worked out at Rs. 1,856·0. These loans were contracted for various purposes such as, maintenance, business, construction of houses and wells, improvements on land, marriage, sickness, etc. The creditors belonged to different categories which included merchants, friends and relatives. The agriculturist also received assistance by way of tagai loans and credits from the co-operative societies. Variations in the rates of interest were remarkable, depending upon the source from which loan was taken and the purpose of its utilization as could be seen from the following figures :--

Tagai	0·48 per cent.
Private Sources	7·8 per cent.

The period covered by these loans also differed, as in the case of Tagai it was one year, in case of private loans it was two years or more and in some cases ranging over a period of even 15 years also.

Nearly a third section of the population from this group in the district was illiterate. About sixty per cent. had taken only primary education, while persons going in for secondary education formed as low a percentage as ten. College education was almost rare.

Inventory

Most of the family possessions were in the form of gold and silver ornaments. An average family had ornaments worth Rs. 638 or above. Besides this, it had all the necessary domestic utensils, mostly of brass, worth Rs. 97, bedding worth Rs. 108, and clothes worth Rs. 325. It was also found that nearly half the number of families also possessed vehicles such as bicycles, bullock-carts, etc., the cost of which ranged from Rs. 150 to Rs. 500. A family, besides its house or land, possessed other property valued at Rs. 2,000.

Low Income Group.

This group is economically the most handicapped section of the rural community. With a limited income capacity it finds extremely difficult to make its both ends meet. The following account attempts in brief to assess the economic position of the group manifested through the available statistical data and on-the-spot personal impressions.

The computed income of the family unit in this group came to about Rs. 84 per month. An average family was composed of five members, of whom three were adults. Inspite of the fact that some of the families did possess agricultural lands their average income was too small to make sizable additions to the total resources of

CHAPTER 9. — Economic Trends. STANDARD OF LIFE. Rural Areas. Low Income Group.

the family. The total area of land in possession of an average family worked out at less than 10 acres while its value was about Rs. 4,000. Instances of lands mortgaged were, however, very rare. Besides landed property, the family on an average possessed a house worth Rs. 1,200, about three heads of cattle, the value of which could well go over Rs. 1,200, and gold and silver ornaments worth Rs. 200.

Expenditure.

Of the total expenditure, 47 per cent. was earmarked for food items, consisting mostly of cereals like Bajri or Jowar and meagre quantities of milk, tea, vegetables, etc. Milk did not form either a part of the regular meals of the family or a drink even for children. The average family had to spend 17·6 per cent. on clothing. Besides this expenditure on clothing, the family had to spend 9 per cent. of its total expenditure on fuel and lighting, 2·4 per cent. on medical aids, 4·5 per cent. on education and 0·4 per cent. on entertainments and nearly 14 per cent. on miscellaneous items.

The educational standards of this class were very low with more than 50 per cent. above five years of age being illiterate. Among the literates 88 per cent. had studied up to primary level and the rest up to the secondary level. Very few persons had taken college education.

Indebtedness.

The income—expenditure pattern of this group reveals deficit budgeting. To fill up this gap borrowings were resorted to. Of the total families surveyed more than 62 per cent. had borrowed money and the average debt per family worked out at Rs. 742.

Loans were mostly borrowed from relatives and friends, co-operative societies, money lenders, merchants and petty shopkeepers. The high incidence of indebtedness can be directly attributed in a large number of cases to the insufficient income of these families. The rates of interest charged by the money lenders ranged from 7·50 to 12 per cent. The duration of loans varied from one year in the case of loans taken from money lenders to about five years in case of loans from friends and relatives.

Planning and Standard of Life.

Among the manifold schemes included in the "five-year plans" nothing concerns the village life as closely as the Community Development and the National Extension Service Schemes. The Community Development Programme was started in this district in 1952 with a view to building up a new life and to create a new pattern of society in rural areas. Later on the programme of Community Development was broadened in its application under the name of National Extension Service. Objectives of both these programmes are identical. They seek to bring about a social change by arousing the enthusiasm of the rural people for a new way of life and to put an end to poverty and starvation by initiating a process of growth in which every family in the village will be enabled to participate. The aim of the programme is not only confined to material development such as provision of food, clothing, shelter, health and recreational facilities but it extends to more important aspects of changing outlook of the people, instilling in them an ambition for higher standards of life and the will and determination to work for such

Planning and Standard of Life.

standards. In this district the talukas of Karad, Patan, Satara, and Khandala have been covered by National Extension Services and Community Development Block Schemes. Of these, Karad taluka is made a Post Intensive Block, the talukas of Patan and Satara fall under Community Development Block, while Khandala alone falls under the National Extension Services.

In addition to the above programmes the Sarvodaya Scheme, the Local Development Works Scheme and the Scheme of Development of Village Panchayats are of particular importance and interest to rural areas. These schemes are well under way at different places in this district. It is hoped that they will give to the people a new outlook of life and lift their standard to higher levels.

CHAPTER 10—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

General Administration.
INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security of person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of government the demand arose for the expansion of Governmental activities into what were called "nation-building" departments, namely Education, Health. Agriculture, Co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms a greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularization of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation-building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the end of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the descriptions that follow in this chapter and in chapters 11-17 the departments of the State operating in the Satara district have been grouped as follows :—

Chapter 10 — General Administration.*

Chapter 11 — Revenue Administration.

Chapter 12 — Law, Order and Justice.

* This is composed of the Collector and his subordinate officers.

Chapter 13 – Other Departments.

Chapter 14 – Local Self-Government.

Chapter 15 – Education and Culture.

Chapter 16 – Medical and Public Health Services.

Chapter 17 – Other Social Services.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

The Satara district formerly consisted of only three Prants or Sub-divisions composed of 11 talukas and three Petas or Mahals. On 1st August 1949, the whole Phaltan State and some villages from Bhor, Aundh and Jamkhindi States were merged in it. At the same time three talukas viz., Khanapur, Walwa and Tasgaon and one mahal viz., Shirala were transferred to the newly formed South Satara (Sangli) district and this district was named as North Satara (now Satara) district. A re-arrangement of the boundaries of (1) Phaltan and (2) Wai talukas and (3) Khandala mahal was effected after the merger of the States in the district. This newly formed district was reconstituted into three prants or sub-divisions comprising nine talukas and two mahals. The district had three sub-divisions prior to the introduction of Community Development as shown below :—

Name of Prants.	Names of Talukas.
(1) Satara Prant.	(1) Satara, (2) Jaoli, (3) Karad and (4) Patan.
(2) Koregaon Prant.	(1) Koregaon, (2) Khatav, (3) Man, (4) Phaltan and (5) Khandala Mahal.
(3) Mahabaleshwar Prant.	(1) Wai Taluka and (2) Mahabaleshwar Mahal.

An independent Karad prant was created after the introduction of National Extension Service and Community Development Block Schemes in Karad taluka.

The National Extension Service was introduced in Patan taluka on 2nd October 1953 and was in operation till October, 1956. This National Extension Service Block has been converted into Community Development Block for the period from 1st November 1956 to 30th September 1959. In order to achieve substantial progress in Community Development Block activities, Patan taluka was placed in charge of an independent Prant Officer. Patan Division, and the Karad Prant were abolished. When the Community Development Block activities in Karad taluka were over, it was given in charge of the Patan Prant.

One village viz., Shamgaon from South Satara (Sangli) district was recently included in Karad taluka of the district under G. R., R. D., No. TLC. 3156-C, dated 19th July 1958.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

Land Revenue.

The district now covers an area of 4034·4 square miles and according to the Census of 1951 has a population of 11,75,309. The administrative divisions stand now as shown below :—

		Area in Sq. miles.	Population (1951 Census).
(1) *Satara Division*			
(*i*) Satara	..	353·4	1,62,529
(*ii*) Koregaon	..	364·6	1,15,689
(*iii*) Jaoli	..	344·7	71,086
		1,062·7	3,49,304
(2) *Mahabaleshwar Division*			
(*i*) Wai	..	229·1	88,239
(*ii*) Mahabaleshwar	..	87·3	20,448
		316·4	1,08,687
(3) *Patan Division*			
(*i*) Patan	..	513·5	1,46,691
(*ii*) Karad	..	405·8	2,07,913
		919·3	3,54,604
(4) *Phaltan Division*			
(*i*) Phaltan	..	455·8	99,781
(*ii*) Khatav	..	509·1	1,31,360
(*iii*) Man	..	556·0	83,478
(*iv*) Khandala	..	203·3	48,095
Total	..	1,724·2	3,62,714
Grand Total	..	4,022·6*	11,75,309

The headquarters of Satara and Mahabaleshwar divisions are Satara and Mahabaleshwar, respectively; while the headquarters of Phaltan and Patan divisions are Phaltan and Karad, respectively.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER

The Satara district is included in the Poona Division which is in charge of the Commissioner, Poona Division. The Poona Division contains, besides Satara, the districts of Ahmadnagar, Sholapur, Kolhapur, Sangli and Poona. The posts of Commissioners existed

* The area of the district of Satara as supplied by the Surveyor General of India to the census authorities is 4,034·4 sq. miles. The area statistics given by the Census authorities which are reproduced in this table were obtained by the Census authorities from the District Inspector of Land Records or from local records.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONERS.

in the old Bombay State but were abolished in 1950. After the reorganisation of the States because of the increase in the area of the State it was considered necessary to revive the posts of Commissioners and they were accordingly revived from 3rd March 1958. The whole of the Maharashtra State is divided into four Divisions, each in charge of a Commissioner.

The Commissioner is the Chief Controlling Authority of the Division in all matters concerned with land revenue and the administration of the Revenue Department. He acts as a link between the Collector and the Secretariat. Appeals and revision applications against the orders of the Collector under the Land Revenue Code or under the Watan Act lie to him. In many cases Government's revisional powers under these and similar other Acts have been delegated to him. Besides revenue matters he is also responsible for supervising the work of Collectors in their capacity as District Magistrates. He is responsible for the development activities in the Division and has to supervise the work of Regional Officers of all Departments connected with development.

The following duties have been specifically laid down for the Commissioner :—

(*a*) Supervision of and control over the working of Revenue Officers throughout the division ;

(*b*) Exercise of executive and administrative powers to be delegated by Government or conferred on him by law ;

(*c*) General inspection of offices of all departments within the division ;

(*d*) Inspection of local bodies on the lines done by the Director of Local Authorities in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay ;

(*e*) Co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all Divisional Heads of Departments with particular reference to planning and development ;

(*f*) Integration of the administrative set up in the incoming areas

COLLECTOR.

The Collector is the head of the district administration and in so far as the need and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of the other departments also.

Revenue

(*i*) *Revenue*.—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water wherever situated, and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue, except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract (*vide*. section 45, Land Revenue Code). Such land revenue is of three kinds : (i) agricultural assessment, (ii) non-agricultural assessment, and (iii) miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection, and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. This assessment is revised every thirty

years, taluka by taluka. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records Department before a revision is made, and the Collector is expected to review the settlement reports with great care. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of thirty years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons as a matter of grace and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment, section 48 of the Code provides for alteration of the agricultural assessment when agriculturally assessed land is used for a non-agricultural purpose. In the same way, unassessed land used for a non-agricultural purpose is assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Land Revenue Code. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case, when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by the sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, etc. in Government land.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector, who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for.

Statistics of Land Revenue Collections :—The following are statistics relating to land revenue collections in Satara district for the year 1957-58 :—

Khalsa :	1114
Inam :	62

	Rs. nP.
Gross fixed revenue including non-agricultural assessment and all other dues.	27,57,550·90
Deduct—	
Assessment assigned for special and public purposes including forest.	2,567·79
Net alienation of total inams ..	2,28,916·55
Assessment of cultivable land unoccupied ..	1,09,471·06
Free or specially reduced ..	1,730·11
Remaining fixed revenue for collection—	
Agriculture ..	
Government occupied land including specially reduced.	23,07,802·26
Alienated lands ..	77,156·48
Building and other non-agricultural assessment.	29,906·65
Fluctuating Miscellaneous Revenue ..	2,47,257·00
Local Fund ..	5,23,959·41
Demand ..	31,41,679·01
Remissions ..	16,938·33
Suspensions ..	Nil.
Collections ..	31,22,871·79
Unauthorised balance ..	1,868·89

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

COLLECTOR, Revenue.

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other Acts, such as, the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamp Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court Fee Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Tolls on Roads and Bridges Act (III of 1875), the Bombay Entertainments Duty Act (I of 1923), and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The Collector and his establishment have to undertake the recovery of such dues whenever necessary.

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act, the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest department, so far as his district is concerned, lies on the Collector, and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the purpose of that administration except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts. In fact, he is the agency through which the Director of Excise and Prohibition arranges to have the policy of the department carried out. The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act.

Inams.

(*ii*) *Inams*.—As a legacy of former Governments, alienations of land revenue have taken place in regard to large areas of land in the district. There are also cash allowances settled under various Acts. It is the duty of the Collector to see that the conditions under which these are continuable are observed and they are continued only to persons entitled to hold them. Recently, however, most of the *inams* except *Deosthan* inams and some service inams useful to Government, have been abolished under various abolition Acts of the State Government. The State Government have inaugurated the policy of abolishing these alienations, and within a few years almost all lands in the district are expected to be assessed to full land revenue. With effect from 1st May, 1951, all Kulkarni watans along with the right of service were abolished by the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act (LX of 1950). By the Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act (XLII of 1953), which came into effect on 20th June 1953, all personal inams are extinguished in the case of personal inams consisting of exemption from the payment of land revenue only, either wholly or in part, if the amount of such exemption is or exceeds Rs. 5,000, with effect from the 1st day of August 1953, and in all other cases, with effect from the 1st day of August, 1955.

Public Utility

(*iii*) *Public Utility*.—The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884), and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883), regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government for the time being and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as can be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the

scarcity. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time.

Public Utility

The Collector of Satara is the Court of Wards for the Estates taken over under the Bombay Court of Wards Act (I of 1905). He is appointed a Manager to manage these estates. The responsibility of the work of collection of wards dues lies on the Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris. They have to collect these dues as an arrear of land revenue. The Collector has also to look after the estates of the minors under the Guardians of Wards Act.

Accounts.

(*iv*) *Accounts*.—Before separation of treasury work from the Revenue department, the Treasury Officer was a member of the Revenue department and he had to perform various important executive functions in that connection. The separation of the Treasury and Revenue cadres at the district level has come into force with effect from 1st April 1955. After separation, the Treasury Officer is a member of the cadre of Maharashtra State Accounts Service and functions independently. The treasuries are also under the administrative control of the Finance department. At the district headquarters and at Karad and Phaltan the cash business has been taken over from the treasuries by the State Bank of India. The District Treasury is now concerned only with the compilation of accounts of transactions reported to by sub-treasuries and the State Bank. The accounts are submitted to the Accountant General and the instructions laid down in the Accounts Codes and Compilation of Treasury Rules are followed by the District Treasury. Before separation of treasuries from the Revenue department the Collector and the Accountant General carried out periodical inspections of treasuries (Accountant General once in three years and the Collector once every year). For purposes of administrative control, the responsibility of the Collector in respect of Treasury Administration continues to remain unchanged and he continues to be in complete charge of the Treasury and the Treasury Establishment in his district. He does not, however, participate in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work his delegate and representative is the Treasury Officer.

Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters.

(*v*) *Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters*.—Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side, apart from hearing appeals on the decisions of the Prant Officer under the Land Revenue Code and various other Acts, may be mentioned: (i) The revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Mamlatdars' orders under the Act. (This power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector), (ii) Appellate powers under sections 53 and 67 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), (iii) The work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of civil courts' decrees, (iv) Proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (1 of 1894).

Local Self Government.

(*vi*) *Local Self-Government*.—With the revival of the posts of the Commissioners since 3rd March, 1958 the functions which were carried

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. COLLECTOR. Local Self-Government.

out by the Divisional officers are now being performed by the Commissioner of the Division.

Generally, in all cases, the passing of orders rests with the Commissioner of the Division in case of the municipalities constituted under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901 and with the State Government in case of the municipalities constituted under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925. So also, the statutory functions of the District Local Board are subject to the orders of the Commissioner of the Division and those of the School Board constituted under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, are subject to the orders of the State Government.

Similarly, the statutory functions of the village panchayats are governed by the rules made by the State Government and the bye-laws made by the District Local Board with the previous sanction of the Commissioner. There was a dual control of the Collector and the District Local Board over the village panchayats. But with the passing of the Bombay Village Panchayats (Amendment) Act, vital changes were effected in the village panchayats' administration. It is now looked after by a Board of the non-official constituted for the district. The Collector is empowered to hold elections and bye-elections to the municipalities, District Local Board and the Village Panchayats. The various Acts governing local bodies have conferred upon the Collector as the Chief representative of Government authority to supervise the actions of the local bodies and to give them advice.

Other Departments.

(vii) *Officers of other Departments.*—The Officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters can be divided into two groups :—

(A)—(1) The District Judge, (2) The District Superintendent of Police, (3) The Divisional Forest Officer, (4) The Executive Engineer, and (5) The Civil Surgeon.

(B)—(1) The District Inspector of Prohibition, (2) The Administrative Officer, District School Board, (3) District Agricultural Officer, (4) The Educational Inspector, (5) The District Health Officer, (6) The Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, (7) The Divisional Veterinary Officer, (8) The District Publicity Officer, (9) The Social Welfare Officer, (10) The Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, (11) The Sales Tax Officer, (12) The District Inspector of Land Records, (13) The Additional Assistant Consolidation Officer, (14) Assistant Consolidation Officer, (15) The District Statistical Officer, (16) The Senior Auditor, Local Funds Accounts, Satara Circle, (17) The Junior Inspector of Industries, and (18) The District Officer for Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives.

(A)—(1) The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all judicial magistrates in the district. The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) was enacted to meet a longstanding and wide-spread public desire for the

separation of judicial functions from executive officers. It has separated the magistracy into "judicial magistrates" who are subordinates of the Sessions Judge and "executive magistrates" who are subordinates of the District Magistrates. It has withdrawn from the executive magistrates practically all powers of trial of criminal cases and only in certain cases the Sessions Judge has to hear appeals from the decisions of executive magistrates. Before the enactment of this legislation, the Sessions Judge used to exercise appellate powers over the decisions, in criminal cases of the District Magistrate and other First Class Magistrates.

(2) The District Superintendent of Police and the Police force of the district are under the control of the District Magistrate in so far as their functions regarding the maintenance of law and order are concerned. As regards discipline, training and other administrative matters they are under the control of the Range Deputy Inspector-General of Police.

(3) The Divisional Forest Officer is regarded as the Collector's assistant in regard to forest administration.

(4) The Executive Engineer stands a little apart. Since his work is technical he is not directly subordinate to the Collector though in a sense he plays a part subsidiary to the general administration of the district, of which the Collector is the head, and he is expected to help the Collector whenever required to do so The Collector can ask him to investigate the utility of minor irrigation works likely to be agriculturally useful in the district. According to Section 11 of the Famine Relief Code, the Executive Engineer arranges, in consultation with the Collector, for the inclusion, in the programme of expansion of public works, of the plans for special and current repairs to roads and other useful works suitable as scarcity works. The programme of famine relief works is also prepared annually by the Collector, in consultation with the Executive Engineer and District Local Board. The approved programme is submitted through the Commissioner by 30th June every year. At the time of the actual opening of any work, the Collector can requisition the services of the Executive Engineer for making immediate arrangements for procuring the necessary establishment, tools, plant, building materials, etc. (Famine Relief Code, section 91).

(5) The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but must place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

(B)—The officers in this group are of a status lower than that of those in Group (A). Their services in their particular spheres, can be requisitioned by the Collector, either directly or through their official superiors. The District Inspector of Prohibition is subordinate to the Collector except in technical matters.

CHAPTER 10.
General Administration.
COLLECTOR.

These officers of the district have more or less intimate contact with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions.

District Magistrate.

(*viii*) *As District Magistrate*.—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other Executive Magistrates in the district. As District Magistrate, besides the ordinary powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate, he has the following powers among others :—

(1) Power to call for records from any subordinate executive Magistrate (section 435, Criminal Procedure Code).

(2) Power to issue commission for examination of witnesses (sections 503 and 506) ; and

(3) Power to hear appeals from or revise orders passed by subordinate Executive Magistrates, under section 514, procedure on forfeiture of bond (section 515).

When authorised by the State Government, the District Magistrate may invest any Magistrate subordinate to him with :—

(1) power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisance (section 143) ;

(2) power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144) ; and

(3) power to hold inquests (section 174).

Besides being in control of the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code, the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) and other Acts for the maintenance of law and order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations and outposts, in order that he may gain an insight into the state of crime in the limits of the police station and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884), and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts, to inspect factories and magazines, and to perform various other supervisional functions.

District Registrar.

(*ix*) *As District Registrar*.—As District Registrar the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

Sanitation and Public Health.

(*x*) *Sanitation and Public Health*.—The duties of the Collector in the matter of sanitation are : (*a*) to see that ordinary and special sanitary measures are initiated in cases of outbreaks of epidemic diseases ; (*b*) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the daily sanitary administration of municipalities and other sanitary authorities ; and (*c*) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary condition of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the

advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer, Satara and the Assistant Director of Public Health, Central Registration, District Poona, in this regard.

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. COLLECTOR. *District Development Board.*

(*xi*) ***District Development Board.***—Prior to 1952, there was a District Rural Development Board. The District or Divisional Officers of various departments concerned with rural development, members of the State Legislature and other representatives of rural areas constituted the District Rural Development Board. It functioned from 1939 to 23rd October 1952. The Collector was the *ex-officio* chairman.

With a view to co-ordinating the activities of the various non-statutory boards and committees in the district, the former District Rural Development Board was reconstituted in October 1952, as District Development Board, by amalgamating all existing non-statutory boards and committees with it. The constitution of the District Development Board is as below :—

(*a*) There are 71 members on the Board.—

(i) There are 17 District or Divisional Officers.

(ii) Two members of the Legislative Council.

(iii) Two members of the Parliament.

(iv) Eight members of the Legislative Assembly.

(v) One President, District Local Board.

(vi) Three representatives of District Local Board.

(vii) One representative of the District Central Co-operative Bank.

(viii) One representative of the District School Board.

(ix) One District Home Guard Commandant.

(x) Two representatives of the Sarvodaya Centres.

(xi) Two representatives of the Co-operative Department (Co-operative Marketing and Co-operative Agricultural Societies).

(xii) Two Associate members.

(xiii) Twenty-nine other non-officials.

The Collector is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the District Development Board.

The Vice-Chairman of the district development board is the Chairman of all the sub-committees except the District Police Advisory Sub-Committee and the Community Development Blocks/National Extension Service Advisory Sub-Committee of which the Collector is the Chairman.

The Joint Secretary of the Board is being appointed by Government. He is also the District Project Officer, Satara, for the National Extension Service, Community Development Works and he is assisted by a small staff.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

COLLECTOR.

The District Development Board, Satara has constituted the following 12 sub-committees as given in the statement.

District Development Board.

The functions and duties of the district development Board are: (1) to advise and help Government in the execution of policies, mainly in respect of matters concerning all the sub-committees; (2) to supervise and co-ordinate the work of its various sub-committees; (3) to supervise and guide the work of Taluka Development Boards; (4) to elect suitable agencies for the distribution of iron and steel materials and cement, to allot the materials and to supervise the scheme; and (5) to excute such schemes and administer such funds as may be entrusted by Government by specific instructions and orders.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

COLLECTOR.

District Development Board.

SUB-COMMITTEES UNDER THE DISTRICT DEVELOPMENT BOARD, SATARA.

Serial No.	Name of the sub-committee	Number of members.	Secretary.	Nature of work entrusted (in brief).
1	The Minor Irrigation Sub-Committee ..	10	The Executive Engineer, Satara ..	Minor Irrigation.
2	Rural Development Sub-Committee ..	13	The District Agricultural Officer, Satara ..	(1) Agriculture, (2) Forest, (3) Veterinary, (4) Subsidy under well-scheme, (5) District Museum, (6) *Van* Mahotsava, (6) Crop competition etc.
3	Agricultural Research Sub-Committee .	10	The District Agricultural Officer, Satara ..	Agricultural Research, etc.
4	Prohibition Sub-committee ; .. .	10	The District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Satara.	Prohibition matters.
5	Social Education Coordinating Sub-committee	10	The Educational Inspector, Satara ..	Education, Recreation.
6	Backward Class Welfare Committee ; ..	10	The Social Welfare Officer, Satara ..	Amelioration of Backward Class.
7	District Publicity Sub-committee ; ..	10	The District Publicity Officer, Satara ..	Publicity of Government policies, etc.
8	Village Panchayat Sub-committee ..	10	The Special Village Panchayat Officer, Satara	Administration of Village Panchayats and their functions.;
9	Co-operative and Marketing Sub-committee	10	The Assistant Registrar Co-operative Societies, Satara.	Co-operative movements, village industries, supply matters.
10	Public Works Roads and Village Water Supply Sub-committee.:	10	The Executive Engineer, Satara .	Roads and Buildings and Village Water-Supply, etc.;
11	Police Advisory Sub-committee ..	9	The District Superintendent of Police, Satara	Crime, Traffic and other matters on which Co-operation of police is useful.
12	Community Development and National Extension Service Advisory Sub-committee.	..	Joint Secretary, District Development Board	Community Development and National Extension Service matters.

CHAPTER 10. General Administration. COLLECTOR. *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.*

(*xii*) *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.*—The administration of the Board is looked after by the Collector in his capacity as President of the Board. The constitution of the Board sanctioned by the Government is as follows :—The Collector of the district is the President; a suitable retired ex-Serviceman is appointed the Vice-president and the members are :—The District Superintendent of Police, Satara; the Regional Director of Resettlement and Employment, Bombay (or his nominee); a representative of the Indian Navy wherever available; the President, District Local Board (subject to local bodies agreeing to the proposal), nine-non-Official members nominated by the Collector with the concurrence of the State Board; the Prant Officers; the Administrator, Services Post-war Reconstruction and other allied funds; the members of the State Board, resident in the district; the Educational Inspector, Satara; the Civil Surgeon, Satara, and Assistant Recruiting Officer, Satara. The duties of the secretary are entrusted to an ex-Junior Commissioned Officer, who serves as paid secretary. The duties of the Board are to promote and maintain a feeling of goodwill between the civil and military classes; to look after the welfare of the families of serving soldiers; rehabilitation of ex-servicemen by rendering them necessary help; financial help to the widows of ex-servicemen, disabled and other deserving ex-servicemen; to act as agency for the purpose of collection of funds, such as Flag Day and Hostel Day; to establish and conduct institutions such as Military Boys' and Girls' Hostel for the children of ex-servicemen who have no educational facilities at their places; formulate and implement schemes for employment of ex-servicemen and, in brief, to ensure welfare of serving soldiers and ex-servicemen in all possible manner. The activities of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, Satara, in brief, are given below :—(1) Financial relief to the extent of about Rs. 1,100/- is paid per month to the widows and other deserving ex-servicemen for their maintenance. (2) Three Military hostels: two for boys and one for girls are conducted. The total strength of the inmates is 103 (1959). (3) A rest house and a library are conducted at Satara for the benefit of the ex-soldiers and their dependents. (4) Scholarships amounting to about Rs. 40,672 are paid annually to the children of ex-servicemen to meet the school/college fees required to be paid by them and in some cases incidental expenses for purchase of books and hostel charges in respect of hostel inmates. (5) Free maternity facilities are provided for the wives of ex-servicemen at three centres in the district. (6) The ex-servicemen and their dependents in need of medical treatment, get their treatment at the Civil Hospital, Satara, and special medicines required, are provided out of Services Post War Reconstruction Fund/Re-allotment of Flag Day collections and other funds. The activities of the Board are controlled by the Maharashtra State Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board, Poona.

National Extension Service Blocks.

(*xiii*) *National Extension Service Blocks.*—The following Community Development and National Extension service Blocks were in

operation in the district (1959), *viz.*, (1) Karad, (2) Satara, (3) Patan, (4) Wai, and (5) Khandala. Out of these blocks the first four were covered under community development programme, while the last one was covered under National Extension Service programme. The Collector is expected to take personal interest in the National Extension Service Blocks opened in his district.

Control of Essential Articles.

(*xiv*) *Control of Essential Articles**.—There are in all 202 Fair Price Shops functioning in the district as on 15th December, 1958 for the sale of rice and wheat. The periodical inspection of fair price shops by the touring officers ensures efficiency in the working of the fair price shops and prevention of malpractice.

The Collector's Office.

The Collector's Office.—The Collector's Office at Satara is divided into many branches. The Personal Assistant to the Collector supervises the work of all the branches except the National Extension Service, District Development Board, and Rural Development Board which are supervised by the District Project Officer. The Personal Assistant is also the Additional District Magistrate.—

(1) The Revenue Branch under the Chitnis (in the grade of a Mamlatdar) deals with matters like land revenue, land grants, *watans*, cash allowances, tagai, establishment, encroachments, forest matters, city surveys, agricultural returns, irrigation recovery, mines and minerals, audit of village accounts (*Jamabandi* Audit) and inspection of talukas.

(2) The General Branch under the Head Clerk (in the grade of Mamlatdar) deals with municipalities, District Local Board matters, land acquisition, prohibition and excise, public works, medical affairs, execution of civil court decrees, telephone, displaced persons and evacuee property, etc.

(3) The Deputy Chitnis Branch deals with magisterial and political matters, fairs, issue of licences for cinema houses, entertainments and possession of explosives, etc., and police matters connected with the maintenance of law and order.

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* When as a consequence of World War II (1939-45), there was scarcity and maldistribution of various essential articles, such as foodstuffs, cloth, sugar and kerosene, Government undertook the control of the prices of these articles and the regulation of their production, supply and distribution. Some of the controls were continued for some years after the end of the war, and it was not till 1954, that the controls on foodstuffs were removed. In the beginning, the work involved by these controls was discharged by the officers of the department of Land Revenue and General Administration. Later, as work increased, special staff and officers were appointed. But the procurement of foodgrains was always entrusted to the revenue officers and the general control over the administration of supply and distribution rested with the Collector in the district and with the Mamlatdars in the talukas. In regard to rationing schemes the was responsible for their proper working and for exercising general supervision over the rationing officers and their staff.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

COLLECTOR.

(4) The Tenancy Branch has been recently opened and it is under the control of an Additional Chitnis.

(5) The Village Panchayat Branch is under control of the Special Village Panchayat Officer (of the rank of a Mamlatdar). But in view of the amendment to the Village Panchayat Act, a District Village Panchayat Officer in the Deputy Collector's grade is to be appointed. In addition to the above, there are other branches, *viz.*, (1) National Extension Service, (2) District Development Board and Rural Development Board, (3) Supply Branch, (4) Court of Wards and Guardian and Wards Branch, (5) District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

A District Project Officer in the Deputy Collector's grade looks after the work of (1) National Extension Service, (2) District Development Board, and (3) Rural Development Board branches. Supply Branch is in charge of an *Awal Karkun*. A Manager in the grade of Head Clerk looks after the work of Court of Wards and an *Awal Karkun* attends to the work of minors' estates in the Guardian and Wards Branch. The Secretary of the Board who is an ex-serviceman, looks after the work of District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board. The Election *Awal Karkun* (in the grade of Head Clerk), deals with the election matters. The District Registration Office is one of the branches under the control of the Collector and the District Registrar and is in charge of the Headquarter Sub-Registrar. There is also an Accounts Branch in charge of the Deputy Accountant.

PRANT OFFICERS.

The Prant Officers.—Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (I.A.S. Officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are in all four such prants or sub-divisions of the district for the present. Each prant is in charge of an Assistant Collector or a Deputy Collector. The Headquarters of Satara Prant is at Satara and those of the other Prants are at Mahabaleshwar, Phaltan and Karad. In addition to four Prant Officers, there are the following officers in the Deputy Collector's grade : (1) Personal Assistant to the Collector, (2) District Project Officer, (3) Two Prant Officers for hearing tenancy appeals and Agricultural Lands Tribunal in Prant Officer's grade at Satara, (4) Land Acquisition Officers in the Prant Officer's grade for land acquisition work for Koyna Project.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Mamlatdars, the Mahalkaris and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the Land Revenue Code and by any other law in force or by executive orders, in regard to the talukas and mahals in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

The Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris.—Each taluka has one or two *Awal Karkuns* (one of whom looks to the Treasury work) and eight

to ten clerks, 30 to 35 *Talathis*, one Circle Officer, and two to four Circle Inspectors. Each Mahal has one *Awal Karkun*, four to six clerks, five to fifteen *Talathis* and two Circle Inspectors.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

(*i*) *Revenue*.—The Mamlatdar's revenue duties are to prepare the ground work for the Prant Officer and the Collector to pass their orders upon. His report is called in almost all revenue matters. When these orders are passed he has to execute them.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue he has to get ready all village and taluka forms necessary for what is called the making of the *Jamabandi* of the taluka by the Collector or Prant Officer. The *Jamabandi* is an audit of the previous year's accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue is settled, but there are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon that fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewaris* with the determination of which the Mamlatdar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue such as that arising from the sale of trees, stone or sand, fixed when individuals apply for them.

The brunt of the work of collection also lies on the Mamlatdar. He can issue notices under section 152, Land Revenue Code, inflict fines for delay in payment under section 148, Land Revenue Code, distrain and sell moveable property and issue notices of forfeiture of the land, though he has to take the Prant Officer's or the Collector's orders for actual forfeiture.

He has to collect, in addition to land revenue, tagai loans, *pot hissa* measurement fees, boundary marks advances and irrigation revenue, the dues of other departments like Sales Tax, Income-tax and Forest when there is default in their payment, at the request of these departments to recover the dues as an arrear of land revenue

It is also his duty to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions under which inams are held and, whenever there is any such breach, to bring it to the notice of the Collector through the Prant Officer.

He has to make enquiries and get ready the material on which the Prant Officer has to pass his own orders under the Bombay Hereditary Offices Act (III of 1874). He himself can pass orders as to the appointment, remuneration, period of service, suspension and fining of inferior village servants, the grant of leave of absence to them and the like.

Applications for grant of tagai, are generally received by the Mamlatdar, who makes enquiries through Circle Officer and Circle Inspector, inspects the sites for the improvement of which tagai is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines

CHAPTER 10. — General Administration. MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. He can himself grant tagai up to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 200, under the Land Improvement Loans Act and Agricultural Loans Act, respectively. A Mamlatdar who has been specially empowered can grant tagai up to Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 500, under the Land Improvement Loans Act and the Agricultural Loans Act, respectively. In other cases he has to obtain orders from the Prant Officer or the Collector.

The Mamlatdar's duties regarding tagai, do not end with the granting of it; he has to see that it is properly utilised, inspect the works undertaken by its means, watch the payment, and make recoveries from defaulters. The Mamlatdar is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the areas of his charge. Some of his powers under the Act, have been delegated to the *Awal Karkuns.*

Additional Mamlatdars and Additional Mahalkaris have been appointed for each Taluka or Mahal office for work in connection with the implementation of the Tenancy law. Recently according to orders the Senior Mamlatdars have been designated with the work of Agricultural Land Tribunals under the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act and the Additional Mamlatdars have been entrusted with the revenue work. The Mamlatdars are however in overall charge of the taluka administration. The same orders apply to the Mahalkaris and Additional Mahalkaris in Mahals.

(*ii*) *Quasi-Judicial.*—The quasi-judicial duties which the Mamlatdar performs include: (1) inquiries and orders under the Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906); (2) the execution of civil court decrees; (3) the disposal of applications from superior holders for assistance in recovering land revenue from inferior holders; and (4) enquiry in respect of disputed cases in connection with the record of rights in each village. The last two are summary enquiries under the Land Revenue Code.

(*iii*) *Magisterial.*—Every Mamlatdar is *ex-officio* the Taluka Magistrate of his taluka. As a Taluka Magistrate, First Class, he has the following among other powers under the Criminal Procedure Code.-

(1) Power to command any unlawful assembly to disperse (section 127).

(2) Power to use civil force to disperse unlawful assembly (section 128).

(3) Power to require Military Force to be used to disperse unlawful assembly (section 130).

(4) Power to apply to District Magistrate to issue commission for examination of witness (section 506).

(5) Power to recover penalty on forfeited bond (section 514) and to require fresh security (section 514-A).

(6) Power to make order as to the disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed (section 517).

(7) Power to sell property of a suspected character (section 525).

If authorised by the State Government or the District Magistrate, the Taluka Magistrate may exercise the following among other powers :—

(1) Power to make orders prohibiting repetitions of nuisances (section 143).

(2) Power to make orders calculated to prevent apprehended danger to public peace (section 144).

(3) Power to hold inquests (section 174).

The Mamlatdar is also in charge of the management of the sub-jail. He has to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrate informed of all criminal activities in his charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order in his charge. In a case of serious disturbance of the public peace the Mamlatdar carries great responsibility, for, as the senior executive magistrate on the spot, he must issue orders and carry on till his superiors arrive.

(*iv*) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As a sub-treasury officer, the Mamlatdar is in charge of the taluka treasury, which is called "sub-treasury" in relation to the district treasury. Into this treasury all moneys due to Government in the taluka-land revenue, forest, excise, public works and other receipts are paid and from it nearly the whole of the money expended for Government in the taluka is secured. The sub-post offices in the taluka receive their cash for postal transactions from the sub-treasury and remit their receipts to it. The sub-treasury officer pays departmental officers on cash orders or demand drafts issued by treasury officers and on cheques, except where certain departments are allowed to present bills direct at the sub-treasury. The sub-treasury officer also issues Government bank drafts.

When the Mamlatdar is away from his Headquarters, the Treasury *Awal Karkun* is *ex-officio* in charge of the sub-treasury and the account business and is held personally responsible for it. During the Mamlatdar's presence he is authorised to sign receipts irrespective of the amount.

The taluka sub-treasury is also the local depot for stamps-general, court-fee and postal — of all denominations and for the stock of opium held there for sale to permit-holders.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish sub-treasury balances. Sub-Treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank for remittance of funds.

The Mamlatdar has to verify the balances in the sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

month, which for the convenience of the District Treasury is fixed on the 25th of all months, except February when it is the 23rd, and March, when it is the 31st, the latter being the closing day of the financial year. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the Mamlatdar to the treasury officer at Satara. The Sub-Treasuries are annually inspected by either the Collector or the Prant Officer.

(*v*) *Other Administrative Duties*.—The Mamlatdar is the pivot of administration in his taluka. He is responsible to the Collector and the Prant Officer whom he must obey and keep constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreaks of epidemics and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as any mal-administration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machinery.

He must help guide officers of all departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his taluka is concerned. In fact, he is at the service of them all and forms the connecting link between the officers and the public whom they are all meant to serve. This is particularly so in departments which have not a local taluka officer of their own. The Mamlatdar is also responsible for the cattle census, which really comes under the purview of the Agricultural Department. The Co-operative Department expects the Mamlatdar to propagate co-operative principles in his taluka. He has to execute the awards and decrees of societies in the taluka, unless there is a special recovery officer appointed for the purpose. He has to take prompt action for the control of epidemics and to render to the Assistant Director of Public Health and his assistants every help in preventing outbreaks of epidemic diseases and suppressing them when they occur.

Under executive orders, the Mamlatdar has to provide the Military Department with the necessary provisions and conveyances when any detachment marches through the taluka.

The Mamlatdar's position in relation to other taluka officers, e.g., the sub-inspector of police, the sub-registrar, the range forest officer, the sub-assistant surgeon and the prohibition officer is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres.

Though the Mamlatdar is not expected to work directly for local self-governing bodies, he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them. He is responsible for the administration of his taluka just as the Collector is responsible for the district.

The Mamlatdar is *ex-officio* Development Officer in charge of the National Extension Service Block opened in the taluka in his charge.

MAMLATDARS AND MAHALKARIS.

He is *ex-officio* Chairman of the Taluka Development Board which acts as the agency of the District Development Board in the taluka in all matters pertaining to agricultural and rural development and especially in regard to the "Grow More Food" campaign. The other members of the board are the Agricultural Assistant stationed at the taluka headquarters, and the Veterinary Assistant. The Collector nominates as members with the approval of Government, three non-officials known to take an active interest in the "Grow More Food" campaign in the taluka.

In relation to the public well-being, the Mamlatdar is the local representative of Government and performs generally the same functions as the Collector but on a lower plane.

CIRCLE OFFICERS AND CIRCLE INSPECTORS.

Circle Officers and Circle Inspectors.—In order to assist the Mamlatdar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants and to make local enquiries of every kind promptly, Circle Officers in the grade of *Awal Karkuns* and Circle Inspectors in the grade of *Karkuns* are appointed. The Circle Officer certifies entries in the record of rights and thus relieves the Mamlatdar of a good deal of routine work. There are some 30 to 50 villages in charge of a circle officer or circle inspector. These officers form a link between the Mamlatdar and the village officers. There are generally one circle officer and three circle inspectors in each taluka. Their duties relate to—

(*1*) boundary marks inspection, inspection of crops including the estimating of the *annewari*, the inspection of tagai works and detection of illegal occupation of Government land;

(*2*) preparation of agricultural and other statistical returns, *viz.*, crop statistics, cattle census, and water supply;

(*3*) supervision of the village officers in the preparation and maintenance of the record of rights, the mutation register and the tenancy register;

(*4*) examination of land revenue receipts and supervision of the revenue collection; and

(*5*) such other miscellaneous work as the Mamlatdar may from time to time entrust them with e.g., enquiry into alleged encroachments.

PATIL.

Patil (or Village Headman).—The Patil or Village Headman is the principal official in a village. The duties of the Patil fall under the following heads :—

(i) revenue; (ii) quasi-magisterial; and (iii) administrative. His revenue duties are—

(i) in conjunction with the talathi (village accountant) to collect the revenue due to Government from the rayats;

(ii) to detect encroachments on Government land and protect trees and other property of Government,

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

PATIL.

(iii) to execute the orders received from the taluka office in connection with recovery of revenue and other matters;

(iv) to assist the talathi in maintaining properly the record of rights and village accounts and to get him to submit the periodical returns punctually; and

(v) to render assistance to high officials visiting the village for inspection work and other purposes.

There are quasi-magisterial functions appertaining to the police patil. In a majority of villages the same person is both the police and the revenue patil. In some villages there are separate patils for revenue and police work. The police patil is responsible for the writing up of the birth and death register and for the care of unclaimed property found in the village. Several duties have been imposed on the police patil by the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867). The village police is under his charge, and he has authority to require all village servants to aid him in performing the duties entrusted to him. He has to dispose of the village establishment so as to afford the utmost possible security against robbery, breach of the peace and acts injurious to the public and to the village community. It is the police patil's duty to furnish the taluka Magistrate with any returns or information called for and keep him constantly informed as to the state of crime and the health and general condition of the community in his village. He has to afford police officers every assistance in his power when called upon by them for assistance. Further, he has to obey and execute all orders and warrants issued to him by an executive magistrate or a police officer; collect and communicate to the district police intelligence affecting the public peace; prevent within the limits of his village the commission of offences and public nuisances; and detect and bring offenders therein to justice. If a crime is committed within the limits of the village and the perpetrator of the crime escapes or is not known, he has to forward immediate information to the police officer in charge of the police station within the limits of which his village is situated, and himself proceed to investigate the matter and obtain all procurable evidence and forward it to the police officer. If any unnatural or sudden death occurs, or any corpse is found, the police patil is bound to assemble an inquest, to be composed of two or more intelligent persons belonging to the village or neighbourhood. The report of the inquest has then to be forwarded by him to the police officer. He has also to apprehend any person in the village whom he has reasons to believe has committed any serious offence and send him, together with all articles to be useful in evidence, to the police officer.

As regards the patil's administrative duties, he is expected to look to the sanitation and public health of the village. He must also report promptly the outbreak of any epidemic disease to the taluka

office. He is expected to render every assistance to travellers provided payment is duly tendered. Many of the patils are hereditary officers holding *watan* lands and having fixed terms of service; a few are stipendiary nominees of Government.

TALATHI.

The *Talathi* (village accountant).—The office of the village accountant used generally to be held by hereditary *kulkarnis*. In the past hereditary *kulkarnis* were allowed subject to certain conditions, to commute the right of service attached to the *Kulkarni watan*. But very few people took advantage of the commutation of *watan*. By the enactment of the Bombay Paragana and *Kulkarni Watan* Abolition Act, all the *kulkarni watans* along with the right of service were abolished with effect from the 1st of May, 1951 and talathis were appointed in place of these *kulkarnis*. In the merged State areas, also, the *Kulkarni watans* have been abolished by the enactment of the Bombay Merged Territories Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act and Talathis have been appointed in their stead. There is also a proposal to appoint talathi-*cum*-village panchayat secretaries at each village and for this purpose a class has been started at Mahuli to train talathis in village panchayat matters. If the villages are small, one talathi is appointed for two or more villages, which are called his charge or *saza*. The talathi receives monthly salary in a time-scale of pay. His main duties are: (1) to maintain the village accounts relating to demand. collection and arrears of land revenue. etc., the record of rights and all other village forms prescribed by Government; (2) to inspect crops and boundary marks and prepare agricultural statistics; and (3) to help the patil in the collection of land revenue, write the combined day and receipt books and other accounts and do other clerical work, including that of the police patil when the latter is illiterate. The talathi is Assistant Gram Sevak in those places where community development projects or national extension service blocks have been opened.

VILLAGE SERVANTS.

Village Servants.—In addition to the village officers mentioned above, there are village servants. They are of two kinds, *viz*., (1) those useful to the community, and (2) those useful to the Government.

The village servants useful to the community are the *joshi*, *mullas*, carpenters, barbers. potters, etc., who render service to the community. Some of them were granted inam lands; but by the enactment of the Bombay Service Inams (useful to community) Abolition Act, these inams have been abolished. The service is remunerated by the cultivators in the shape of an annual payment of sheaves or corn (called *Baluta*).

The village servants useful to community whose services are still in demand in villages are the carpenter (sutar), the barber (nhavi), the shoe-maker (mochi), the watchman (ramoshi), and the blacksmith (lohar). The washerman (dhobi), the potter (kumbhar) and the rope-maker (mang) are not generally in demand in all villages.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

VILLAGE SERVANTS.

There has, therefore, been a tendency for them to leave the villages and seek their livelihood in cities and towns. In some villages these village servants still survive. The silversmith (sonar) as a *balutedar* has entirely disappeared. The village astrologer (*gramjoshi*) is employed at the discretion of the cultivators. All the religious ceremonies of the cultivators are done through the *gramjoshi*, for which he is paid some amount called *dakshina*. Some religious-minded cultivators give him some quantity of corn and other presents in kind. The Mulla functions at the religious and other ceremonies of Muslims. There are several Mahars at a village. The Mahars used to take charge of dead animals of the villagers and sell their hides to the shoe-maker. For this and other service such as cleaning open spaces, etc. they used to get *Baluta* from the cultivators. The Mahars have, however, stopped this service since they have converted themselves to Buddhism.

There are also certain village servants – Mahars and Ramoshis – remunerated by grant of land free of revenue or actual cash allowance and appointed to assist the village officers in the collection of land revenue, to summon villagers to the chavdi, to carry the land revenue to the taluka Office, when required to help the Patil in the detection of offences and to help him to apprehend known criminals and to help him to keep order in the village. These do the same work for the village officers as is done by the peons under the Mamlatdar and the constables under the sub-Inspector. The Bombay Inferior Village *Watans* Abolition Act, 1958 came into force in Satara with effect from 1st August 1959, and with it all inferior village watans in the district stand as abolished. Full assessment is levied on all *inam* lands and these lands are entered in the relevant Record of Rights in the name of Government.

CHAPTER 11—REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

Revenue Administration
LAND REVENUE.
History.

FROM TIME IMMEMORIAL, THE LAND REVENUE HAS BEEN AN IMPORTANT AND DEPENDABLE SOURCE OF REVENUE IN INDIA primarily because it was the only source of stable revenue. Normally, the royal share was 1/6th of the total crop-share. The revenue survey was first introduced by Todar Mal in 1576 in South India. Lands were surveyed and settled, one third of the estimated produce being demanded as the royal share. The payment of revenue in kind was substituted by that in cash. In the absence of a regular survey, the *bhagbatai* system arose and became widespread with the downfall of the Moghal empire and the establishment of the Maratha rule. The revenue was farmed out to influential persons such as Desais, Amins, Patels, Deshmukhs, Deshpandes, etc. Lands were alienated to religious and charitable institutions by the State. The various rulers such as Hindu, Muslim and the British were forced to build upon the foundations left by their predecessors. Thus the present land system has devolved from the land systems which preceded it.

The present system was evolved by the British. Mount Stuart Elphinstone adopted the Rayatwari system as evolved by Munro in Madras and laid down the leading principles of revenue administration *viz.*, to abolish farming but otherwise to maintain the local system, to levy the revenue according to the actual cultivation, to make the assessment light, to impose no new taxes and to do away with none, unless obviously unjust and above all to make no innovations. Within these limitations, the revenue officers were given wide discretion in the measures to be adopted. In the initial stages attempts were made by the British to make annual, triennial or ten-year leases for securing land revenue from villages. They, however, failed owing to (*a*) the lack of details about the revenue administration, (*b*) high assessments fixed on the basis of past collections, and (*c*) the considerable fall in prices of agricultural produce in the thirties of the last century. In order to collect details about the revenue administration, revenue

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*** For sections on History of Land Revenue Assessment and Management, History of Land Tenures and Agrarian Movements, Dr. G. D. Patel's "The Land Problem of Reorganised Bombay State" has been largely referred to.**

CHAPTER 11.
Revenue Administration.
LAND REVENUE.
History.

surveys were carried out between 1811 and 1825. These surveys though they contain considerable information about the revenue and social and economic conditions, were of little value to the administration because they were not accompanied by a settlement of land revenue. Thereafter, a report was drawn in 1847 on the principles of the settlement of land revenue under Government direction. It declared that the chief design of the revenue survey was the regulation of the customary land tax so that it shall at once secure an adequate revenue to Government, the progressive development of the resources of the country and the preservation of all proprietory and other rights connected with the soil. Further, it clarified the objectives that the land should be assessed in accordance with its capabilities, thereby excluding consideration of such details as the ability to pay, caste or condition of the cultivators which formed the basis of settlement in the previous administrations. According to the report, the settlement involved three processes which were distinctly divided into—

(*a*) survey,
(*b*) classification and
(*c*) assessment.

In the revision settlements, the classification system was improved and brought up-to-date. The revision was remarkable in that it laid down important principles regarding (*a*) grouping, (*b*) the regulation of the rate of enhancements, (*c*) the graduated levy of enhancements and (*d*) suspensions and remissions of land revenue.

During the pre-British period, although the assessment was high, it was never collected in full. But during the British regime, it was collected in full by resorting to coercive measures, where necessary. The Joint Report of 1847 and the Land Revenue Code, 1879, did not contemplate any abatement of fixed revenue. The result was that the rigid collection of land revenue became oppressive and forced the cultivators to relinquish their holdings. The situation became acute during the latter half of the nineteenth century when there were frequent famines. In 1907, the Government of India, therefore, laid down the policy of granting suspensions and remissions of land revenue in the event of natural calamities such as flood, fire, etc. This concession introduced an element of flexibility in the otherwise rigid revenue system.

DEPARTMENT OF LAND RECORDS

Present System of Survey, Assessment and collection.

THE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM PREVALENT IN SATARA DISTRICT IS RAYATWARI and is based on a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of every field.

LAND RECORDS.

The original survey and settlements were introduced in this district between 1858-59 and 1862-63. Thereafter, the first revision settlements were introduced between 1890-91 and 1895-96. The second revision settlements were introduced between 1924-25 and 1926-27.

In all, 104 villages [Phaltan (73), Bhor (13), Aundh (14), Jamkhindi (2), Akkalkot (1), Sangli (1) and one village from Baramati taluka of the Poona district] have been included in the district. The original settlement was introduced in the ex-State villages of Phaltan in 1893-94 and the first revision settlement was introduced in 1924-25 which is now in force.

Present System of Survey, Assessment and Collection.

The whole of the district has been surveyed, classified and settled except for 82 *inam* villages of the pre-merger States areas which have now been surveyed and classified for the purpose of the Record of Rights and settlement under the Post-War Reconstruction Schemes Nos. 75 and 77-A. *Akarbands* for these villages have been prepared provisionally under section 52 of the Land Revenue Code read with Land Revenue Rule 19-O pending regular settlement under Chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code which will be taken up along with the revision settlement of the rest of the district. The current settlement has now expired from 1956-57 in all the talukas of the district and preliminary work for revision settlements is being done (1959).

Survey.

The survey work is done by chain and cross-staff method. The unit of the area is the "English acre" with its sub-division the *Guntha* equal to 21 square yards (i. e. the square formed by 1 chain or 11 yards), 40 gunthas making an acre. The area of each survey number is separately entered in the Land Records under an indicative number and that of the sub-division, too, is so entered under an indicative number subordinate to that of the survey number of which it forms a part.

Village, Taluka and District maps.

Accurate village maps have been prepared (generally on a scale of 20 chains to an inch) in respect of all the *khalsa* and *inam* villages surveyed by chain and cross-staff method and on a scale of 10 chains to an inch in respect of the remaining *inam* villages surveyed by minor triangulation method. Village maps prepared in the scale of 20 chains to an inch show the survey numbers and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, *nallas,* and forests, etc., whereas the maps prepared in respect of *inam* villages surveyed on minor triangulation method show the above particulars and in addition the *hissas* contained in each survey number as well as the minor triangulation stones with reference to which the boundaries of the survey number and *hissas* could be re-laid if necessary. From these village maps, the maps of taluka and district and the maps of the States have been prepared on a smaller and convenient scale of one inch to two miles.

Classification.

The main classes of lands as defined in section 117-C(3) which are recognised as dry crop, garden and rice, and the soil of each field has been classified with reference to its texture, its depth and deteriorating factors and extra advantages, if any, such as availability of *nalla* water, silt deposit, availability of drainage from higher lands, etc. The water factor has been separately considered in respect of well water (*Motasthal* garden) by classifying the wells and in respect of flow water (*Patasthal* garden) by classifying the duration and availability of water from the bandharas etc. and the crops grown thereon.

CHAPTER 11.

—

Revenue Administration

LAND RECORDS.

Classification

The classification value was expressed in terms of annas, 16 annas representing the standard. In Satara district the dry crop lands have been further divided into the following four sub-classes *viz*., *Khuski*, *Jirayat*, *Tisali* and *Kumari* for purposes of detailed classification.

One more factor that was particularly taken into consideration for the purpose of assessment of the lands was the *Dongar* class. Previously *Tisali* and *Kumari* lands had a specially sanctioned rate different from that of the ordinary dry crop. This was subsequently abolished and all dry crop lands have now one and the same rate. The inferior quality of *Tisali* and *Kumari* lands is now accounted for by the application of this *Dongar* class by which the standard rate is lowered according to the class of the *Dongar* land. These lands were divided into three classes according to their situation i.e. land situated on (1) plains, (2) minor spurs and (3) elevated spurs of hills.

Most of the soil classification as was originally done has been more or less confirmed during the revision survey and classification in this district except for the application of new classes *viz*., the general position, class and the *dongar* class. According to section 106 of the Land Revenue Code the original classification if confirmed or the revision classification if undertaken is final and no general re-classification of the soil is made at further revision settlements. All improvements made at the cost of private capital are exempt from increased taxation for a period of 30 years. They become liable for such taxation thereafter at the next revision settlements.

Settlement and Assessment

Prior to 1939, the settlement procedure was prescribed by administrative orders of Government under the Land Revenue Code. The settlement procedure was first brought on to the Statute Book under the Amendment (Bombay XX of 1939). Under the Land Revenue Code Amendment Act XXVIII of 1956, certain changes have been made in the settlement procedure. The changes in brief involve a shift in emphasis from the general economic conditions of the area and rental values to the prevalent prices and yields of principal crops. The various provisions governing the settlement procedure are contained in Chapter VIII-A of the Land Revenue Code and Chapter III-A of the Land Revenue Rules. The prescribed procedure in brief, is as under :—

"Settlement" is defined as the result of operations conducted in a zone in order to determine the land revenue assessment [Section 117 (C) (1)].

"Zone" is defined as a local area comprising a taluka or a group of talukas or portions thereof of one or more districts, which is contiguous and homogeneous in respect of :—

(*i*) physical configuration ;
(*ii*) climate and rainfall ;
(*iii*) principal crops grown in the area ; and
(*iv*) soil characteristics [Section 117-C(*1A*)].

The Settlement Officer (appointed by the State Government under section 18 Land Revenue Code) examines fully the past revenue history of the zone with a view to assessing the general effect of the incidence of assessment on the economic conditions of the zone. He then proceeds to divide the lands to be settled into groups and fixes the standard rates for each class of land in such groups.

The groups are formed on consideration of the following factors, *viz.* :—

(*i*) Physical configuration;

(*ii*) Climate and rainfall;

(*iii*) Prices; and

(*iv*) Yield of principal crops.

If the Settlement Officer thinks it necessary to do so, he may also take into account the factors specified in clauses (*a*)(*i*) of the proviso to the sub-section (2) of section 117G, *viz.* :—

(*a*) Markets,

(*b*) Communications,

(*c*) Standard of husbandry,

(*d*) Population and supply of labour,

(*e*) Agricultural resources,

(*f*) Variation in the area of occupied and cultivated lands during the last 30 years,

(*g*) Wages,

(*h*) Ordinary expenses of cultivating principal crops, including the wages of the cultivator for his labour in cultivating the land, and

(*i*) Sales of lands used for agriculture.

"Standard rate" is defined with reference to any particular class of land in a group, as the value of the sixteenth of the average yield of crops per acre on land in that class of sixteen annas classification value [Section 117C (5)].

Improvements made at the cost of holders are exempted from enhancement of assessment for a period of 30 years immediately preceding the date on which the settlement expires (Section 117-H).

The Settlement Officer is required to formulate his principles for settlement on the above basis and submit a comprehensive report to the Collector concerned. The report would contain :—

(*i*) the various statistics and data collected by him in the prescribed form,

(*ii*) A statement showing the effect of his proposals as compared to that of the previous settlement in force [Land Revenue Rule 19-B(1)].

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS. Settlement and Assessment.

The settlement report is published in the regional language in each village in the prescribed manner, together with a notice stating the existing standard rates for each class of land and the extent of increase or decrease proposed by the Settlement Officer. A period of three months from the date of notice is allowed for any objection to the Settlement proposals (Section 117-J).

Provision is made for referring settlement proposals to the Revenue Tribunal by the State Government at the instance of aggrieved persons (who have to deposit the prescribed amount of cost) within two months from the date of the notice (Section 117-KK).

After taking into account the objections, the Collector forwards the Settlement Officer's report to the State Government through the Settlement Commissioner and the Director of Land Records, with his remarks (Section 117-K).

The settlement report together with the objections and the recommendations of the Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal is required to be placed on the table of each chamber of the Legislature and the proposals can be discussed in the Legislature (Section 117-C).

Thereupon, the State Government passes final orders on the settlement report (Section 117-L) and, after a notice of the orders has been given in the prescribed manner, the settlement is deemed to have been introduced (Section 117-O).

The assessment to be imposed on each holding in the case of an original settlement is determined by the application of the standard rates to the classification value of the land through the medium of *Jantris* (table of calculation) prepared by the Superintendent of Land Records, and in the case of a revision settlement, it is worked out by increasing or decreasing the old assessment in the same proportion as there is an increase or decrease in the new standard rates over the old ones (Land Revenue Rule 19-H).

A settlement ordinarily remains in force for 30 years (Section 117-E).

Government may after the expiry of every ten years from the date on which a settlement was introduced under section 117-O enhance or reduce the assessment on lands in any zone by placing a surcharge or granting a rebate on the assessment by reference to the alterations of prices of the principal crops in such a zone (Section 117-M).

Additional water advantages accrued at the cost of Government can be assessed during the currency of the settlement (Section 117-Q).

LAND RECORDS. Record of Rights.

The Record of Rights Law (contained in Chapter X of the Land Revenue Code) was enacted in 1913. The Record of Rights has been introduced in all the villages of the district except a few *inam*

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. Record of Rights.

villages which too, have, of late, been taken up for survey and record of rights under the Post War Reconstruction Scheme. Under this scheme the Record of Rights work is done by the Revenue Department staff. The Record of Rights was introduced in all the villages of the district in 1959 except 12. Out of them, in four villages the Record of Rights was written but was yet to be promulgated whereas in respect of the remaining eight villages in Khandala mahal it was to be written for want of *pot hissa* measurement papers.

According to section 135-B(i) of the Land Revenue Code, the Record of Rights contains the following particulars :—

(*a*) the names of the persons who are holders, occupants, owners or mortgagees of the land or assignees of the rent or land revenue thereof;

(*b*) The nature and extent of the respective interest of such persons and conditions of liabilities attached thereto;

(*c*) The rent or revenue (if any) payable by or to any such persons; and

(*d*) Such of the particulars as the State Government may prescribe in this behalf by making rules from time to time. The present Record of Rights e.g. gives information regarding the total area of the holding, *pot-kharaba* cultivable area, assessment, *judi*, *nukasan*, names and modes of tenancies and crops grown in addition to those shown in item (*b*) and (*c*) above.

The State Government has now applied the law to all tenancies under section 135-B(2). Any acquisition of right either by succession, survivorship, inheritance, partition, purchase, mortgage, gift, lease or otherwise is to be reported to the village officers by the person acquiring it unless it is registered. (Section 135-C Land Revenue Code). Failure to carry out this obligation is liable to fine by way of late fees.

Functions of the Department.

The Land Records Department was created in 1884 when the revision, survey and settlement operations were nearing completion and the old survey and settlement department was brought to a close. The department is an adjunct to the Revenue Department. Its functions are :—

(*i*) to maintain all survey, classification and settlement records uptodate by keeping very carefully notes of all changes and for this purpose to carry out field operations preliminary to incorporation of the changes in the survey records;

(*ii*) to collect and provide statistics necessary for the sound administration of all matters connected with land;

(*iii*) to help reduce, simplify and cheapen litigation in revenue and civil courts by providing reliable survey and other records;

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

Functions of the Department.

(*iv*) to supervise the preparation and maintenance of record of rights and of the periodical inspection of the boundary marks;

(*v*) to conduct periodical revision settlement operations;

(*vi*) to organise and carry out village site and city surveys on an extensive scale and arrange for their proper maintenance;

(*vii*) to undertake special surveys for private individuals or for public bodies (such as survey of *Inam* villages); surveys in connection with railway, municipal and local board projects; town planning schemes and survey for the Defence and other Government departments.

(*viii*) to maintain up-to-date all village maps. and to reprint them and arrange for their distribution to various departments for administrative purposes and for sale to the public; and

(*ix*) to train the revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

The District Inspector of Land Records, Satara is the principal Officer in-charge of the Land Records Department in the district. He is a class II officer of the Mamlatdar's rank appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and is directly subordinate to the Superintendent, Land Records, Poona Circle, Poona in all technical matters. He is also subordinate to the Collector, Satara and has to carry out all administrative orders of the Collector in the matters of survey and land records. He is also required to train the revenue officers in survey and settlement matters.

Duties and Functions of the District Inspector of Land Records.

The District Inspector of Land Records is both a Revenue and a Survey Officer. His main duties are :—

(*a*) To supervise the measurement and classification work done by district and Cadastral Surveyors, *Pot Hissa*, Surveyors and Maintenance Surveyors, by taking field tests and to exercise check over the prompt disposal of all the measurement and other cases received in the District Survey Office;

(*b*) To be responsible for the maintenance of the Theodolite frame work in all villages surveyed according to minor triangulation system by arranging for the inspection of the stones in groups every year and replacing those that are found missing;

(*c*) To be responsible for the correctness and punctuality of the work done in the district and survey offices in the district;

(*d*) To take a small test of work of as many circle inspectors as possible;

(*e*) To compile the *huzur* statistics like the season and crop report and quinquennial returns about cattle and water resources;

(*f*) To arrange for the training of the Assistant Collectors, Junior Indian Administrative Service Officers and Deputy Collectors in survey and settlement matters as prescribed in G. R., R. D., No. 393/51-II, dated 18th August 1958 and supernumerary Assistant Collectors (Revenue Department Circular No. TRN/RD/1055, dated 14th September 1955);

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS

Duties and Functions of the District Inspector of Land Records.

(*g*) To hold the training classes on the lines indicated in G. R., R. D., No. TRN. (RDO 1053, dated 28th November 1953) for imparting training to mamlatdars in survey and settlement matters;

(*h*) To incorporate all changes in the survey records by issue of survey correction statements under proper authority and by correcting the village and district maps;

(*i*) To inspect the city survey offices every year and send inspection memoranda through the Superintendent, Land Records;

(*j*) To inspect the District Survey Office record of one taluka in every year and to see that all survey papers are forthcoming and to arrange for tracing or reconstructing the missing ones and recopying those that are torn;

(*k*) To watch the I. V. S., *pot hissa survey* and city survey recoveries and to maintain their account;

(*l*) To inspect the work of repairs to boundary marks in at least one village in each circle;

(*m*) To inspect the Record of Rights, tenancy and crop registers, to see that the village officers understand their work properly and to maintain uniformity in this respect in the district; and

(*n*) To advise revenue officers in all technical matters relating to survey and classification and in matters relating to the maintenance of Record of Rights.

District and Cadastral Surveyors.

The staff of district and cadastral surveyors deals with the routine measurement and classification work whether done for Government (e.g. in land acquisition cases etc.) or on private applications, civil court partition decrees, etc. In the case of private work, the prescribed measurement fees are recovered in advance from the parties. The district surveyor deals with the measurement cases that cannot ordinarily be entrusted to the cadastral surveyors on account of the difficulty, size, importance and urgency. The staff does the work of effecting necessary changes in the survey records by preparing *Kami Jasti Patraks* during monsoons.

District Survey Office and Headquarter Assistant.

The district survey office is in charge of the headquarter assistant who acts under the orders of the District Inspector of Land Records. The Headquarter Assistant and his staff are responsible for keeping the survey records up-to-date and in proper order. He deals with the correspondence connected with records. In urgent circumstances, the Headquarter Assistant disposes of the references under his own signature. in the absence of the District Inspector of Land Records, informing the latter of the action taken by him. He recovers and accounts for the fees received for private measurement work accord ing to prescribed procedure. He also issues certified extracts from survey records and supplies printed maps to the applicants on payment of the prescribed charges. The survey office issues the measurement cases to the surveyors and keeps a close watch over their prompt and proper disposal, scrutinises the surveyors' work in office and takes action to get all the changes effected in the survey records. In

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS.

this connection necessary *Kami-jasti patraks* (with their abstracts) signed by the District Inspector of Land Records are sent to the revenue authorities when countersigned by the Superintendent of Land Records and *Akarphod Patraks* signed by the District Inspector of Land Records are sent to the revenue authorities direct for the correction in the village and taluka accounts, records and maps.

Maintenance Surveyors.

The Maintenance Surveyor's staff is responsible for the maintenance of city surveys which are introduced under section 131 of the Land Revenue Code and the records including the Record of Rights and maps connected therewith and assist the revenue administration of the city-surveyed areas. They work under the immediate control of the revenue officers in-charge of the city survey, but the technical and administrative control of the staff vests with the District Inspector of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records. Such surveys were introduced in the following important cities and towns in the Satara district in the years noted against each :—

Name of the City Survey Town. 1	Year of introduction. 2	Staff incharge of maintenance. 3
1. Satara ..	1919	1 Superintendent. 2 Maintenance Surveyors.
2. Karad ..	1922	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
3. Wai ..	1923	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
4. Panchgani ..	1923	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
5. Mahabaleshwar ..	1926	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
6 Lonand ..	1946	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
7. Koregaon ..	1946	1 Maintenance Surveyor.
8 Phaltan ..	1949	Maintenance yet to be conducted.

Pot Hissa Surveys.

The cost of the maintenance of all these city surveys is borne by Government. All the revenue arising out of the city surveys in the form of non-agricultural assessment, occupancy price on account of disposal of Government lands assessment on municipal encroachments, measurement fees, copying fees, Record of Rights fees etc., goes to Government and it is seen that the expenditure incurred over each post of Maintenance Surveyor is fully recoverable from the public in this manner so as to make the post self-supporting. In addition to the above the village site survey of one village (viz. Udatara, Taluka Satara) has also been done in the year 1916. The village site survey however is not under the regular maintenance. The *Pot Hissa* Survey staff does the measurement work of all new *hissas* and thus helps to keep the Record of Rights up-to-date. Till 1st January, 1957, a staff of 13 *Pot Hissa* Survey measurers headed by a *Nimatandar* was directly working under the control of the District Inspector of Land Records. But due to the creation of separate establishment for each district by increasing the staff, this

control was switched to the survey Mamlatdar (P. H. S.), Sholapur who has his jurisdiction over Sholapur and Satara districts (*vide* G.R., R.D., No. S.V.C. 1057/c, dated 28th December 1956).

The cost of the sub-division measurement done by the measurers is distributed equitably over the number of *hissas* measured and is recovered from the public under section 135-G (*b*) of the Land Revenue Code.

Circle Inspectors.

The Circle Inspector works under the direct supervision and control of the Mamlatdar or Mahalkaris but in technical matters of survey and maintenance of land records he obtains orders from the District Inspector of Land Records. Each taluka and mahal is divided into a suitable number of circles according to volume of work involved and a Circle Inspector is put in charge of a circle for supervising the revenue administration and the land records of each village in his circle. He has to supervise the work done by the village officers by field inspection as well as by inspecting their village *daftars* as often as possible. He is expected to read and interpret maps and also prepare scale drawn sketches of plots and sites in the course of his duties. The Circle Inspector is thus the main link between the revenue administration and the land records. The diaries of Circle Inspectors are therefore being passed on to the Prant Officers through the District Inspector of Land Records.

Post War Reconstruction Schemes.

In addition to the normal duties of the department referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, the Land Records department is at present entrusted with the execution of the following three post-war reconstruction schemes in the pre-merger areas of the district as detailed below.

Scheme No.		Description.
74	..	Consolidation of holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.
75	..	Survey of *Inam* villages and introduction of Record of Rights.

Scheme Number 74—Consolidation of holdings.—The Assistant Consolidation Officer and the Additional Assistant Consolidation Officer, Satara, are entrusted with the duties of the preparation and execution of the schemes of consolidation of holdings. The former is in charge of Koregaon taluka and the latter of Satara taluka. Both of them are Gazetted Officers of the cadre of the District Inspector of Land Records and appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records and are working under the direct control of the Consolidation Officer, Poona.

The following staff is working under each of the Assistant Consolidation Officers :—

(*a*) Six Surveyors under one *Nimtandar* to assist him in bringing the Record of Rights up-to-date and collecting preliminary data for the preparation of the schemes of consolidation, and

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

LAND RECORDS.

Post War Reconstruction Schemes.

(*b*) A staff of Circle Inspectors to assist him in the execution of the schemes of consolidation of holdings after confirmation by the Settlement Commissioner and the Director of Land Records or Government, as the case may be.

The progress of consolidation work so far achieved is as detailed below :—

Item	Taluka or peta			
	Koregaon	Satara	Khandala.	Total
(1) Number of villages in which the consolidation scheme is enforced.	26	5	1	32
(2) Number of villages in which the consolidation scheme is approved.	..	2	..	2
(3) Number of villages in which the consolidation scheme is completed.	4	3	..	7
(4) Number of villages in which the consolidation scheme is in progress.	2	3	..	5
Total ..	32	13	1	46

One village from Khandala mahal was taken up at the outset for experimental purpose.

Scheme Number 75 and 77-A--Survey of Inam Villages for Record of Rights.—A special staff was sanctioned by Government for undertaking the survey and classification of the *inam* villages in the district in 1954. The special staff was put under the charge of two Survey Mamlatdars (*vide* G.R., R.D., No. 2879-144559, dated 11th September 1954 and S. V. C. 1256-L, dated 2nd April 1956) specially for the Satara district at the outset. One post of Survey Mamlatdar was however, subsequently abolished from 1st May 1956, after the completion of survey work. The measurement and classification in respect of 197 villages was completed by the said staff by 31st December 1957. Besides, one more village in Khandala mahal (Rui) was surveyed and classified by the Survey Mamlatdar, Ahmadnagar in 1951 under the same scheme. The staff has also completed the work of preparing *Akarbands* in respect of 82 *inam* villages hitherto unsettled but the rate of which is now temporarily fixed under Land Revenue Rules, 19-O by the Collector of Satara. The said staff

CHAPTER 11.

—

Revenue Administration.
LAND RECORDS.

was discontinued with effect from 1st January 1958 due to completion of the work in the district. The work of preparation of Record of Rights has been done by the regular staff of the Talathis under the control of the Revenue department.

History of Land Tenures.

The land tenures of the State comprised a congeries of *inams*, *watans*, cash grants and non-rayatwari tenures. It was not out of any generosity that the previous rules—whether the Hindu, the Muslim, the Maratha or the British—alienated villages, lands and cash allowances, but all the grants were dictated by the political necessity; the necessity of support to the existing rule and permanent stable revenue to the State. In order to achieve these objectives some leading men such as *paragana watandars*, *inamdars*, *khots*, *jagirdars*, *malguzars* etc. were selected and given *inams* in the form of entire villages, lands, revenues and cash grants.

These grants were the legacy of the past administrations and were the products of uncertain political conditions obtaining in the 17th and 18th centuries in India. Such grants were necessary in those uncertain political conditions, when the means of transport and communications and the art of administration had not developed on the present scientific basis. Creation and continuance of such special tenures affected the social well being of a large number of persons in the villages, who had to labour for the luxurious maintenance of their over-lords. Thus was created a class of non-cultivating landlords who banked and lived upon the revenues realised from their *inams* or *watans* and of their cultivators who became the drawers of water and hewers of wood. Although many tenures were the legacy of the past administrations, the British retained them as vested interests to support their new administration and to secure a stable land revenue to finance war in and outside India.

Such intermediaries outlived their utility in the new democratic set-up as embodied in the Constitution of India. As a result, Government of India laid down a policy for removal of all such intermediaries from the administration by enacting special legislation. In furtherance of this policy, all the State Governments undertook special legislation for abolishing the *inams*, *watans* and non-rayatwari tenures.

The Maharashtra Land Revenue system is primarily a rayatwari system in which the tiller of the land should in principle be directly responsible to Government for the payment of land revenue of his holdings and other such obligations. In practice, however, this was not uniformly the case as there were various intermediaries in the form of *inamdars* and landlords who shared this right of collecting the land revenue with Government in some cases, and enjoyed the right of exemptions from payment of land revenue either in part or wholly in other cases and thus consumed a part of State revenue. One of the steps in the land reforms activities

CHAPTER 11.
—
Revenue Administration.
LAND RECORDS.
History of Land Tenures.

of Government was therefore the abolition of the various *inam* tenures in the State. The Acts which have thus affected the *inam* tenures in Satara district are as detailed below :—

Name of the Act.	Date of enforcement.	Number of entire villages affected.	Area in respect of scattered holdings.	
			Acres.	Gunthas.
1. The Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watan Abolition Act, 1950.	1st May 1951	10	1,41,472	32½
2. The Bombay Merged Territories and Areas (Jagir Abolition) Act, 1953.	1st August 1955	4	(Two temporary villages) Two non-proprietory villages.	
3. The Bombay Merged Territories Miscellaneous Alienations Abolition Act, 1955.	1st August 1955	103	....	
4. The Bombay Personal Inams Abolition Act, 1952.	1st August 1953 or 1st August 1955 According to the nature of the grant.	206	...	
5. The Bombay Saranjams Jagirs and Other Inams of Political nature Resumption Rules, 1952.	1st August 1953 or 1st August 1955 according to the nature of the grant.	13	....	
6. The Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) Abolition Act, 1953.	1st April 1954	..	8,172	37
Total ..	....	336	1,49,645	29½

The only *Inam* Tenures which still prevail are (1) *Deosthan Inams* and (2) *Inams* of Class VI (Service Inam) useful to Government.

In regard to the Bombay Paragana and Kulkarni Watans Abolition Act, 1950, the Bombay Service Inams (Useful to Community) Abolition Act, 1953, the Bombay Merged Territories Alienations Abolition Act, 1955 provisions have been made for the ex-holders to be occupants of the resumed lands on payment of occupancy price prescribed by Government before the prescribed dates.

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. History of Land Tenures.

In respect of the resumed lands of which the occupancy price has been paid by ex-holders before prescribed date, regrant orders have been passed. In respect of the lands vesting in Government on account of failure on the part of the ex-holders to pay the occupancy price of Paragana and Kulkarni watan lands before 30th April 1956, Government have issued orders that the lands should be granted to the persons in actual possession on payment of the amount of occupancy price prescribed by Government. Government have also passed the Bombay Inferior Village Watans Abolition Act, 1958. The act came into force in Satara with effect from August 1st, 1959 and with it all inferior village *watans* in the district stand abolished from that date.

Land Reforms

Prior to 1938, the tenants held the tenancy on a customary basis with no legal agreement to define their rights and responsibilities. Great insecurity characterised the conditions of tenancy. The high share of produce taken by the landlord left the cultivator with a bare subsistence minimum, the tenant having little incentive to increase output. Wealth was primarily held in the form of land and accumulation of capital did not lead to productive investment. On this background of the problem, the tenancy system was a great obstacle to economic development. In Maharashtra, crop-share rents were the rule and the cash-rents were the exceptions. The tenancies were generally annual and there was no law preventing a landlord from evicting his tenants. Although in several cases, tenancy was continued from father to son, the tenants were generally tenants-at-will. The tenancy conditions became harsh and oppressive in the areas covered by the *inam* and non-rayatwari tenures.

This is the background of the tenancy problem in Maharashtra. The basic idea in the tenancy and other agrarian reforms is the transfer of ownership rights from those not working on the land to those doing so and the resultant redistribution of income in the agricultural sector.

The tenancy problem for the State may be divided into the following periods.—

(1) the pre-legislation period (before 1939);

(2) the Bombay Tenancy Act, 1939; period (1939-1947);

(3) the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948 period; (1948-1956); and

(4) the Land to the Tillers Act; period (1957 onwards).

Pre-legislation Period.

1. *The pre-legislation period (before 1939)*.—In the then Bombay State, there was no special tenancy law regulating the relations between landlords and tenants because such relations were mostly governed by mutual contract or local usage. The British Government took no notice of the regional variations in the conditions of agricultural tenancy from region to region, but laid down the general law as contained in the provisions of section 83 of the Land Revenue Code. This single section constituted the tenancy law of the then

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. Land Reforms.

Bombay State for 60 years. According to that section the land could be held by a tenant on payment of (1) agreed rent or services, (2) rent payable or services renderable by custom, and (3) in the absence of both, just and reasonable rent. The section recognised only permanent and annual tenancies. The protected tenancy was then not contemplated at all. Further, the concept of rent included an element of service to the landlord. The scales of law weighed heavily in favour of the landlord in that it permitted the landlord by virtue of agreement, usage or otherwise, to enhance the rent or service renderable by a tenant, to evict him for non-payment of rent or non-rendition of services. The landlord could terminate for any reason the annual tenancy by giving a three month's notice.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1939.

2. *The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1939.*—The Act was made applicable to the district in the year 1946. The tenants in land were given protection and their period of lease was settled at least for a period of ten years. The tenants who were cultivating the land in (1) 1932 to 1938 and (ii) from 1939 onwards to 1945 were declared as protected tenants and those who were cultivating on the appointed day i.e. 8th November 1946, were asked to apply within a period of one year for securing their rights of protected tenancy. Bombay Act No. XXXI of 1946 was passed and the tenants cultivating on 8th November 1947, were given the rights of protected tenants.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Land Act, 1948.

3. *The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1948.*—The Act aimed at the settlement of landlord-tenant relations and the establishment of the peasant proprietorship in the State. This Act was amended from time to time as given below :—

Adopted and modified by the Adoption of Laws Order, 1950.

Amendment of Bombay Act XII of 1951.

Amendment of Bombay Act XXXIV of 1951.

Amendment of Bombay Act, VL of 1951.

Amendment of Bombay Act LXXXIII of 1952.

Amendment of Bombay Act, LX of 1953.

Amendment Act of 1955

Amendment of Bombay Act XIII of 1956.

Adopted and modified by the Bombay Adoption of Laws (State and Concurrent subject order) 1956.

Amended by XV of 1957.

Amended by XXXVIII of 1957.

Amended by LXIII of 1958.

The Land to the Tillers Act.

4. *The Land to the Tillers Act; peridd (1957 onwards).*—The new law i.e. amendment of 1955, which has come into force on 1st August 1956, provides that every tenant in actual possession of land on 1st April 1957 i.e. "Tiller's Day" shall be subject to certain restric-

Land Reforms.

tions and liabilities provided in the Act and be deemed to have become the occupant of the land. The purchase price to be paid by the tenant for the land purchased by him is to be determined by the Agricultural Lands Tribunal or the State Government.

The information regarding the number of tenants and owner cultivators as it stood on 31st October 1958 is as follows :—

Protected tenants	..	42,413
Ordinary tenants	..	56,987
Owner cultivators	..	2,90,203

The information regarding tenancy suits filed, decided and the balance during the period from1948 to 1957 is as under—

1. Number of suits filed under the Tenancy Act.		33,412
2. Number of suits decided	..	26,158
3. Number of suits pending	..	7,254
4. Number of cases decided in favour of tenants.		17,059
5. Number of cases decided in favour of landlords.		9,099

Though the Collector is an appellate authority to hear appeals under the various sections of the Act, these powers have also been delegated to the Prant Officers.

Agrarian Movement.

In order to reduce inequalities in the distribution of land, legislative measures for abolition of the land tenures and the fixation of ceilings on the land holdings have been adopted by the State Governments. But these do not solve the problem of the landless labourers. In this context, the contribution of the *Bhoodan* movement as one of the schemes of land distribution to the landless has got a special value. In essence, the *Bhoodan* Movement attempts at abolition of private ownership in land because its fundamental principle is that all land belongs to God. There is neither compulsion nor force used in obtaining donation of land. The *Bhoodan* is a "loot by love" and the *modus operandi,*" is voluntary. The donated land is distributed by the *Bhoodan* Committee and a change is made in the Record of Rights accordingly.

Bhoodan.

Peasant Organisations.

The peasant organisations in the district aim at arousing among the farmer members interest in the agricultural improvement programme and educating them to take active interest in its implementation. It also serves as a link between the agriculturist members and all the agencies in the village concerned with the implementation of the agricultural improvement programme. The organisations help their members in securing assistance and services of the authorities concerned regarding credit, supplies, processing and marketing.

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration

REGISTRATION. Registration of Documents.

THE REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT.

UNDER THE INDIAN REGISTRATION ACT, (XVI OF 1908), compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. As a rule, fees are levied for such registration, but the State Government have exempted co-operative societies registered under the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act (VII of 1925). Certain types of societies, such as the urban credit societies, central financing agencies and housing societies (formed of persons belonging to classes other than agriculturists or backward communities) enjoy restricted exemption in respect of certain documents involving a certain prescribed consideration. For documents with higher than the prescribed consideration, fees have to be paid. All other co-operative societies enjoy unrestricted exemption. (For details *vide* G.N.R.D., No. 3648/45 (*a*), dated 26th July, 1948 amended by G.N.R.D. of even No., dated 14th June 1949). Similarly copies of awards under the Bombay Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act (XXVIII of 1947) and certificates under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947 are also registered free of registration fees.

Marriages under the Parsi Marriages and Divorce Act (III of 1936), Bombay Registration of Marriages Act 1953 (Bom. Act No. V of 1954) and marriages under the Special Marriage Act, 1954, are also registered.

In 1957 there were in all nine sub-registries in the district located at Satara, Karad, Phaltan, Koregaon, Jaoli (Medha), Man (Dahiwadi), Patan, Khatav (Vaduj) and Wai.

Some villages of Khandala and Mahabaleshwar petas are included in the regional sub-district of Wai and some villages of these petas are included in the regional sub-district of Phaltan and Jaoli (Medha), respectively. The Sub-Registrar, Wai holds his office at Khandala periodically, on days notified in that behalf. On these days, the Sub-Registrar's clerk at Wai acts as Joint Sub-Registrar, Wai, provided he is duly qualified.

Inspector General of Registration.

An independent post of the Inspector-General of Registration, is created with effect from 3rd July, 1958 and he performs the following duties in addition to his own duties as the Inspector-General of Registration for the Maharashtra State.

(1) Registrar General of Births, Deaths and Marriages.

(2) Chief Controlling Stamp Authority under the Hyderabad Stamp Act, in the Marathawada region of the State.

District Registrar.

The Collector of Satara is the Ex-officio District Registrar. The Registration unit is separate from the Revenue staff; but the District Registrar has powers of supervision over the entire District Registration staff. The Sub-Registrars are appointed by the Inspector General

of Registration but the District Registrar has powers to make such appointments in temporary vacancies. The sub-registry and district registry staff is appointed by the District Registrar.

District Registrar.

The District Registrar is required to carry out the instructions of the Inspector General in all departmental matters; and, if he has any suggestions to make for the improvement of the registration system, he submits them to the Inspector-General. The District Regisrar solves the difficulties encountered by the sub-registrars in the course of their day to day work. He visits the Sub-Registry offices in his district at least once in every two years, and sends his memorandum of inspection to the Inspector-General. He hears appeals and applications preferred to him under section 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908), against refusals to register documents by the sub-registrars under him. Under section 25 and 34 of the same Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct the documents concerned to be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover; and it may be registered at the cost of the party desiring it after the depositor's death. He is also authorised to receive declarations under the Muslim Personal (Shariat) Application Act (XXVI of 1937), and to register births and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Registration Act (VI of 1886).

Sub-Registrars.

The sub-registrars are immediately subordinate to the District Registrar. Their chief function is to register documents which fulfil the prescribed requirement and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid. The sub-registrar keeps a record of such registered documents and sends them to officers concerned, extracts from documents affecting immovable property in respect of which a record of rights is maintained, for making mutations therein. On application by parties, he issues certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents.

Every sub-registrar is an *ex-officio* Registrar of Parsi Marriages, under the Parsi Marriages and Divorce Act (III of 1936) and he is also the Registrar of Marriages under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, V of 1954. The sub-registrar working as head-quarter sub-registrar at Satara is vested with powers of solemnising marriages under the Special Marriages Act (XLIII of 1954). He is also vested with powers under the Muslim Personal (Shariat) Application Act. He is further the *ex-officio* Assistant Registrar of Companies and Registrar of Births and Deaths under Act VI of 1886. The principle of the department is to utilise, as far as possible, the spare time of the sub-registrars in the slack seasons, and to entrust them with some responsible work of other departments. Two sub-registrars in this district worked as *ex-officio* Mahalkaris in 1957. They were empowered to try assistance suits of annual rents up to

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration REGISTRATION.

Rs. 200 under the Land Revenue Code. The head-quarter sub-registrar is also required to do work relating to all stamp matters under the Indian Stamps Act, 1899, which was previously done by the Collector's office.

Inspection.

The work of the sub-registrars is inspected by the Inspector of Registration, Satara division, Sangli (comprising the districts of Satara, Sangli, Kolhapur and Ratnagiri) and the District Registrar and the inspection memoranda drawn up by these officers are scrutinised by the Inspector General of Registration. The Prant Officers also inspect the sub-registries and submit their inspection reports to the District Registrar who forwards them to the Inspector General of Registration if they contain anything of importance or interest deserving his notice.

The Inspector of Registration is directly subordinate to the Inspector General of Registration and does not exercise any administrative control over the registration offices. He is not a subordinate of the District Registrar. His duty is mainly confined to the inspection of the technical work of the registration offices, including the central records and to audit their accounts. He inspects the books in the central office of record and reports to the District Registrar about their condition so that any records which are in danger of being destroyed may be recopied and authenticated according to law. The inspector examines the books, indices, accounts and other records in the offices of the sub-registrars once a year; and he sends one copy of his memorandum of inspection to the District Registrar and another to the Inspector General for approval. The Inspector General passes orders in respect of such memoranda, adding his own remarks or suggestions, if any, for being complied with by the sub-registrar concerned.

Statistics.

The average annual income of Satara Registration District is Rs. 91,995·53 nP. and the average annual expenditure Rs. 49,983·67 nP (based on the figures of 1957, 1958 and 1959). The copying of the registered documents is done in the seven sub-registry offices by photofilming the documents and in the remaining two offices by hand. In all 12, 858 documents were registered in the district during 1957. Of these, 12,287 documents falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,03,10,269; 571 documents falling under optional registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 6,40,992. Five hundred and seventy marriages were registered under the Bombay Registration of Marriages Act V of 1954 and two marriages were solemnised under the Special Marriages Act (XLIII of 1954).

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT.

SALES TAX

SALES TAX IS AN INDIRECT TAX. It has become an important source of revenue and occupies a significant place in the State budget, Its importance can be gauged from the total revenue yield from this tax. It has more than compensated the loss of revenue resulting

from the introduction of prohibition. The sales tax was introduced for the first time in the then State of Bombay from 1st October, 1946. It was levied under that Act only at the last stage of sale and was, therefore, known as a single point tax. From 1st November, 1952 a new system was introduced and this was known as multi-point sales tax. Unlike the single point tax system, tax under the new Act was levied at every stage of sale excepting stages exempted under the provisions of the Act and the rules thereunder. This helped to raise more revenue and to check evasion to some extent. From 1st April, 1954 a new Act was brought into force. The system of the tax under this Act was known as two-point tax system. Under this system a tax was levied at every stage except when sale is to a dealer holding a licence and/or authorisation. It had thus an element of multi-point tax system.

Current Sales Tax Act.

The Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959 which came into force on the 1st of January, 1960, is applicable to the entire State of Maharashtra. The new Act embodies the various recommendations of the Sales Tax Enquiry Committee and has repealed and replaced the various Sales Tax Laws in force in the five sales tax regions of the State.

In the initial stages a dealer who holds goods purchased before 1st January, 1960, from a registered dealer in the old Bombay State area will, on the resale of the goods be liable to pay tax under the new Act subject to certain modifications and the benefit of section 8(*a*) of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1953, will not be available to him. Similarly exemption granted under the earlier laws to certain classes of goods generally or conditionally will, in some cases, not be accrued under the new law.

The Bombay Sales of Intoxicants Taxation Act has now been repealed and provisions for the taxing of spirituous medical preparations containing more than 12 per cent. by volume of alcohol (but other than those declared by Government to be not capable of causing intoxication) will now be taxed under the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959 at the rate of 30 nP. in the rupee at the first-stage only. Similarly, country liquor and foreign liquor brought in India including spirits, wines and fermented liquors will be taxed at the rate of 45 nP. in the rupee.

Schedule 'A' of the Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959 lists the exempted goods subject in some cases to conditions and Schedules B to E. the taxable goods. Taxable goods are broadly divided into five classes: (i) goods declared as important to inter-State trade, taxable only at the first stage (Schedule B, Part I); (ii) goods declared as important to inter-State trade, taxable only on the last sale (Schedule B, Part II); (iii) to other classes of goods taxable at only the first stage of sale (Schedule C); (iv) 9 classes taxable only at the last sale (Schedule D3); and (v) 21 classes specified and all other goods not specified elsewhere in any Schedule, taxable at the first stage and on the last sale and, again, to a very small incidence, at the retail stage.

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration SALES TAX. Classes of Tax.

The tax at the first stage is called the 'Sales Tax' and that on the last sale is called the 'General Sales Tax'. The tax at the retail stage is the 'Retail Sales Tax'. Sales Tax and the general sales tax as the names imply, are payable on sales. However, when a registered dealer purchases goods from an unregistered dealer or from Government he pays purchase tax. When he pays purchase tax, the dealer does not pay the sales tax or the general sales tax on the resale of goods as the case may be. The registered dealer does not become liable to purchase tax if he resells the goods without alteration within three months (6 months in the case of cotton) and in that case on such resale he pays in the routine way, sales tax or general sales tax or both, as may be due. The purchase tax is not a separate tax and is only intended to seal off a loophole for evasion.

Classes of Dealers.

The new Act creates five classes of dealers *viz.* :—

Registered Dealer.

(1) *The Registered Dealer* : Every dealer liable to pay tax must obtain a registration; failure to do so is regarded as an offence.

Licensed Dealer

(2) *The Licensed Dealer* : Every registered dealer who makes sales annually of more than Rs. 50,000 worth to other registered dealers may obtain a licence, on the strength of which he can make purchases, free of General Sales Tax for resale inside the State. The licensed dealer will thus generally be the wholesaler or semi-wholesaler.

Authorised Dealer.

(3) *The Authorised Dealer* : Every registered dealer whose sales in inter-State or export trade are more than Rs. 30,000 worth of goods annually or who sells that quantity to another authorised dealer who resells them in inter-State-trade or export may obtain an Authorisation against which he can purchase goods free of all taxes (or at a reduced rate in certain circumstances) for inter-State or export resale either by himself or another Authorised dealer to whom he sells them.

Recognised Dealer.

(4) *The Recognised Dealer* : Any registered dealer whose annual turnover of sales exceeds Rs. 25,000 of taxable goods manufactured by him may obtain a recognition against which he may make tax-free purchases of goods for use directly in manufacturing taxable goods for sale, save, generally speaking, for goods on which the tax is at the rate of two percent, or less and machinery.

Permit Holder.

(5) *The Permit Holder* : A registered dealer whose commission agency purchases on behalf of principals disclosed in his books exceed Rs. 30,000 per year, may obtain a permit, on the strength of which he may make purchase tax free or at a reduced rate, in certain circumstances for his principals.

Under the new Act the turnover limit attracting registration is Rs. 10,000 for a manufacturer and Rs. 30,000 for every other dealer. Dealers who are not liable to registration because their turnover has not exceeded the limits specified under the Act but are registered under the Central Sales Tax Act, 1956 will be liable to pay tax under the Bombay Sales Tax Act under conditions specified in the Act.

Great care is taken to see that the tax as far as possible, would not be recovered more than what is intended in the law. This is done by the set-offs allowed under the law.

SALES TAX. Administrative Organization.

For the purpose of the administration the Sales Tax Officer is the head at the district level who exercises the powers delegated to him under the Bombay Sales Tax Act and Rules for general administration of the Act in his charge. His duties are registering and licensing the dealers; assessing the dealers and making recovery of outstanding taxes through the Revenue Collector and detection of evasion of taxes. He is also empowered to compound certain offences under the Act.

The Sales Tax Officer of the district is subordinate to the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Central Division, Range III, who looks after general administration of the offices within his Range. In addition to this he is also an appellate authority.

The Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax of the Range is subordinate to the Additional Commissioner of Sales Tax, Central Division, Bombay, and he is the head and controlling authority in respect of administration of the Division. He is an appellate and revising authority over the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax and the Sales Tax Officer. In addition to this he assists the Commissioner of Sales Tax, Maharashtra State, Bombay, who is the head of the Sales Tax Department.

The Sales Tax Officer, Satara district, Satara is in charge of the Satara district. In addition to this for the purpose of convenient administration, Dapoli, Khed, Chiplun and Guhagar talukas from Ratnagiri district are attached to his jurisdiction.

The following table gives for the years noted the amount of sales tax collected in the Satara district and the number of registered dealers :--

Year.		Number of Registered Dealers.	Tax Collected.
			Rs.
1946-47	..	436	1,16,341·00
1947-48	..	635	5,21,541·00
1948-49	..	879	6,53,602·00
1949-50	..	1077	10,30,688·00
1950-51	..	1186	12,12,441·00
1951-52	..	1310	10,81,051·00
1952-53	..	1267	9,29,852·00
1953-54	..	941	9,63,645·00
1954-55	..	841	13,20,994·00
1955-56	..	910	10,74,094·00
1956-57	..	941	15,88,100·00
1957-58	..	914	14,28,584·00
1958-59	..	944	7,73,555·00

CHAPTER 11.
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Revenue Administration.
SALES TAX.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE YEAR-WISE SALES TAX RECEIPTS, THE COLLECTION CHARGES AND PROPORTION OF COLLECTION CHARGES TO THE AMOUNT COLLECTED IN SATARA DISTRICT.

Year. 1	Amount collected. 2	Collection charges. 3	Proportion of collection charges to the amount collected. 4
	Rs.	Rs.	
1946.47	1,16,341·00	13,629·00	8·53
1947.48	5,21,541·00	19,340·20	26·96
1948.49	6,53,602·00	19,743·94	33·11
1949.50	10,30,688·00	25,620·50	40·22
1950.51	12,12,441·00	28,502·50	42·54
1951.52	10,81,051·00	27,333·20	39·55
1952.53	9,29,852·00	26,011·75	35·74
1953·54	9.63,645·00	23,191·80	41·55
1954·55	13,20,994·00	22,366·26	59·06
1955·56	10,77,094·00	22,449·16	47·97
1956·57	15,88,100·00	26,862·80	59·12
1957·58	14,28,584·00	28,659·20	49·84
1958·59	7,73,555·00	30,735·04	25·16

THE STAMP DEPARTMENT.

STAMPS.
Organization.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF STAMPS, Bombay, is the authority which controls the supply and sale of Government stamps in the State.

Local Depot.

The Collector of Satara as the administrative head of the district, has general charge of the district administration of the stamp department. There is no independent Officer in the district specially in-charge of stamps. The Treasury Officer, who is a gazetted officer supervises the work of the stamp department in the district with the help of Stamp Head Clerk. He is in-charge of the local depot at Satara and is responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to the branch depots and their sale to the public.

STAMPS.

The Mamlatdar, the Prant Officer and the Collector are empowered to pass refund orders in respect of unused, spoiled and obsolete stamps presented within a prescribed period. The Treasury Officer, endorses pay endorsement on the refund bills for payment from the branch office of the State Bank of India, at the District Treasury.

Branch Depots.

A branch depot is located at every taluka or mahal head-quarters and it is in the charge of the Sub-Treasury Officer, i.e. the Mamlatdar or Mahalkari. They are empowered to grant refunds on stamps.

Stamp Vendors.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold not only at the local depot and the branch depots but also at various other centres by stamp vendors, authorised by the Collector, Satara. There are about 25 stamp vendors in the district. The Stamp Head Clerk sells to the stamp vendors at the District Head Quarters different non-postal stamps. He also sells impressed court fee stamps above the value of Rs. 125 to the public, as the local stamp vendor's sales are restricted to sales not exceeding the value of Rs. 125 in each case. Similarly non-judicial stamps above the value of Rs. 150 in each case are sold to the public at the District Treasury and Sub-Treasury. The Sub-Treasury Officers work as ex-officio stamp vendors. Stamps below this value in each case are sold by the authorised vendors.

The statistics showing the total receipts realised due to sale of judicial and non-judicial stamps and discount paid to the stamp vendors during the year 1958-59 and 1959-60 was as under:—

Kind of stamps.	1958-59 Receipts.	1958-59 Discount.	1959-60 Receipts.	1959-60 Discount.
Non-Judicial ..	2,66,163.45	4,988.88	3,32,083.28	6,512.95
Judicial	2,64,097.30	2,116.83	2,60,079.75	1,840.23
Total ..	5,30,260.75	7,105.71	5,92,163.03	8,353.18

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT.

MOTOR VEHICLES. Motor Vehicles Act.

THE MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT deals with the administration of the Motor Vehicles Tax and The Motor Vehicles (Amendment) Act (Act XV of 1956) and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act LXV of 1958. Under the first Act all motor vehicles have to be registered; all drivers have to take out a licence, which is given only on their passing a prescribed test of competence; the hours of work of drivers of public vehicles are restricted; and third party insurance of all vehicles plying in public places has to be effected. It gives power to the State Governments to subject vehicles to strict mechanical

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

tests and to control the number of vehicles to be licensed for public hire, specifying their routes and also the freight rates. Fees are leviable for registration and issue of licences and permits.

State Transport Authority.

There is a State Transport Authority for each State, and Regional Transport Authorities have been set up for convenient regions of a State. The State Transport Authority co-ordinates the activities of the Regional Transport Authorities. The Regional Transport Authority controls the motor transport in the region and deals with the issue of permits to different categories of transport vehicles according to the policy laid down by the State Transport Authority and the State Government from time to time. It also performs such duties as grant of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, taking departmental action against those permit-holders who contravene any condition of the permit, etc., and prescribing policy in certain important matters relating to motor transport in the region.

The Regional Transport Authority for the Poona Region with its headquarters at Poona has jurisdiction over the Satara district and also over the districts of Ahmadnagar, Kolhapur, Poona Sholapur and Sangli. It consists of ten members, including the Secretary, the other members, three official and six non-official, being nominated by the State Government under sub-section (*1*) of section 44 of the Motor Vehicles Act.

Regional Transport Officer.

The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer he is the Licensing Authority for licensing drivers and the Registering Authority for registering vehicles. He is invested with powers for prosecuting offenders in cases of offences committed under the Motor Vehicles Act. Acting under the authority of the Regional Transport Authority he is responsible for all the duties connected with the issue and countersignature of authorisations to drive public service vehicles and conductors' licences, and with the grant, revocation, suspension and cancellation of permits for public carriers, private carriers, stage carriages and taxi cabs.

Other Staff.

The immediate subordinate to the Regional Transport Officer is the Regional Supervisor. He assists the Regional Transport Officer in executing his duties and looks after the office administration. Whenever the Regional Transport Officer is out of the headquarters, the Regional Supervisor acts for him. He supervises the work of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors at head quarters.

There are also nine Motor Vehicles Inspectors and four Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors headed by an Assistant Regional Transport Officer, working under the Regional Transport Officer, Poona. The Inspectors carry out the work of registration, inspection of motor vehicles, testing of drivers and conductors, checking of motor vehicles and detecting of offences under the Motor Vehicles Act.

The Assistant Inspectors carry out the office routine work, assist the Inspectors in carrying out inspections of vehicles and also do the work of the Inspectors when the latter are on tour or on special duty.

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Liaison with Police Department.

This department has liaison with the Police department. The Police department carries out periodical checks of motor vehicles and detects offences under the Motor Vehicles Act. It attends to references from the Motor Vehicles Department regarding verification of character of applicants for public service vehicle authorisations, conductors' licences, taxi cab permits, etc. It also helps in the verification of non-use of vehicles and recoveries of arrears of taxes and in specifying particular places for bus stops, etc. The District Magistrate comes into relation with this department in connection with imposition of restrictions on road transport, fixation of speed limits, and location of motor stands at various places etc.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, taxes are levied on all motor vehicles, except those designated and used solely for carrying out agricultural operations on farms and farm lands. The taxes are based on the type of vehicles (e.g. motor cycles and cycles, goods vehicles, passenger vehicles, etc.) and their laden or unladen weight. The Act has removed all municipal and State tolls on motor vehicles. The Rules made under this Act lay down that when a vehicle is to be registered within the State, the registering authority (i.e. the Regional Transport Officer) shall verify the particulars furnished in the application for registration (e.g., the make of the vehicle, its capacity, etc.) and determine the rate of the tax for which the vehicle is liable. Every registered owner who wants to use or keep for use any vehicle in the State has to pay the tax determined, stating the limits within which he intends to use the vehicle, i.e. whether only within the limits of a particular municipality or cantonment or throughout the State. A token for the payment of the tax will be issued by the registering authority and this has to be attached to and carried on the vehicle at all times when the vehicle is in use in a public place. A fresh declaration has to be made annually, or every time the tax has to be paid (i.e. quarterly, half-yearly or annually). The registering authority before issuing the token in respect of the payment of the tax has to satisfy itself that every declaration is complete in all respects and the proper amount of tax has been paid.

CHAPTER 12—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE.

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

THE POLICE DEPARTMENT.

POLICE.

Functions.

THE PRIMARY FUNCTIONS OF THE POLICE are the prevention and detection of crime, the maintenance of law and order, the apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, treasure or private or public property of which they may be placed in charge, and the prosecution of criminals. They have, however, various other duties to perform, such as control of traffic, service of summonses and warrants in criminal cases, inspection of explosive and poison shops and extinguishing fires and others such as giving aid to displaced persons and pilgrims, verification of character, passports and naturalisation inquiries etc.

Organisation.

Under section 4 of the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) the superintendence of the police force throughout the State vests in and is exercisable by the State Government. In exercise of powers under section 6 of the said act, the State Government appoints the Inspector-General of Police for the direction and supervision of the police force. The Inspector-General of Police in the State of Maharashtra is thus the head of the police force and his headquarters is at Bombay. It is the province of the Inspector-General to watch over the recruitment, education, housing and equipment of the police force and to regulate the internal organisation and method of working. He is assisted in his office by two Assistant Inspector-Generals of Police (Officers of the rank of District Superintendent of Police).

For the purpose of administration, Maharashtra State has been divided into four Police Ranges, besides Greater Bombay. These four Ranges correspond with the four divisions for which Divisional Officers have been appointed. In Greater Bombay, the Commissioner of Police who is second in the hierarchy is in charge of the City Police Force. The State C. I. D. is under the control of an officer of the rank of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police. Similarly the State Reserve Police Force Groups and Police Training Schools are in charge of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Headquarters. Each Range in the State which is in charge of a Range Deputy Inspector-General is divided into districts, each corresponding with the revenue district, and is in charge of a District Superintendent of Police. Under section 17 (*1*) of the Bombay Police

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.
POLICE.
Organisation.

Act, the District Magistrate has control over District Superintendent of Police and the Police Force of a district and decides the questions of policy and of administration of law within the district, but he does not interfere into the questions of recruitment, internal economy or organisation of the District Force.

The District Superintendent of Police, Satara, is the executive head of the police force in the district. His primary duties are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and contented and to ensure, by constant supervision that the prevention, investigation and detection of crime in his district are properly and efficiently dealt with by the force.

Each district is divided into sub-divisions, which number from two to three in a district. Each sub-division is in charge of an officer of the rank of Assistant Superintendent of Police or Deputy Superintendent of Police who is responsible for detection of crime in his charge. Under the general orders of the Superintendent he is responsible for the efficiency and discipline of the officers and men in his division. He has to hold detailed inspections of police stations and out-posts in his charge at regular intervals.

Each sub-division has one or more Inspectors who are entrusted with detection of crime and supervision of bad characters and gangs in their circles. The supervision and co-ordination of the detection work of the different police stations in the circles is also entrusted to the Inspectors concerned.

At District Head-quarters, the District Superintendent of Police is assisted by an Inspector who is termed as Home Inspector. He is Personal Assistant to the District Superintendent of Police. He supervises the work of the office of the District Superintendent and at the head-quarters during the absence of the District Superintendent of Police and the Sub-Divisional Police Officer. He also does all the routine work at the head-quarters for the District Superintendent of Police. Besides, there are Inspectors for Local Intelligence and Local Crime Branches in bigger districts.

Each district is divided into a number of police stations. A Sub-Inspector of Police is in-charge of a police station. He is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime and for seeing that the orders of his superiors are carried out and the discipline of the police under him is properly maintained. He has under him head constables and constables. The head constables are to report to the Sub-Inspector all crimes in their beats and also to assist him in the investigation and detection of crime. When in charge of a particular post or circle of villages, the head constables act in all police matters in consonance with the heads of the Village Police. When attached to a police station, he holds the charge in the absence of the Sub-Inspector and looks to all routine work including investigation of crime. The constables perform such duties as may be ordered by the head constables and superior police officers.

The control and administration of the Railway Police is vested in the Superintendent of Police who has a parallel organisation on the

lines of district police. He functions under the supervision and control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police and the Inspector-General of Police.

Organisation.

With a view to eradicate the evil of corruption and for a more effective implementation of the prohibition policy of Government, the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Force has been created under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence, State of Maharashtra, Bombay, designated as Director, Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau, Maharashtra State. In every district at least one Sub-Inspector of Police of this force is stationed. Corresponding to the ranges in the mofussil, there are four units of this force with head-quarters at Bombay, Poona, Aurangabad and Nagpur, each in charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police. The unit for Greater Bombay is in charge of a Superintendent of Police.

The Satara District is divided into two sub-divisions: Satara Division and Karad Division, each in charge of Sub-Divisional Police Officer with head-quarters at Satara and Karad respectively. In addition to the Police Head-quarters at Satara, there are in all 19 police stations and 25 out-posts in the district. Out of the 19 police stations two are town police stations, *viz*., Satara City and Karad Town, ten taluka police stations, one mahal police station and six other police stations.

Village Police.

The district police is helped by the village police. Under the Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867), the control of the Village police is with the District Magistrate. The District Magistrate may, however, delegate any of his authority to the District Superintendent of Police. Each village or a group of villages has a Police Patil. The Police Patil is required to collect information regarding suspicious strangers and send it to the police station. He has to keep a strict watch over the movements of notorious characters under surveillance of the police. He is to give information to the police station of any offence committed in the village. When the patrolling policeman goes to the village, he has to give all the information he possesses about all events in the village. It is the duty of the village Police Patil to render assistance to any sick traveller. He is also responsible for maintaining law and order in the village.

In 1958, the number of the village police including the Police Patils was 6,873. Some of the Police Patils work as Revenue Patils also. The village police rendered assistance to the District Police in five cases in 1958.

Home Guards.

The Home Guards is a voluntary body organised under the Bombay Home Guards Act, III of 1947, and is intended to supplement the ordinary police force in relation to the protection of persons, security of property and public safety and such other services to the public as they may be called upon to perform. It is especially a civilian body but is nevertheless bound by discipline of a standard equal to that of any military organisation. The district unit of the Home Guards

CHAPTER 12.
Law, Order and Justice.
POLICE.
Home Guards.

organisation consists of a Commandant and several subordinate officers in command of divisions, companies, platoons, sections, etc. Appointments of Home Guards are made by the District Commandant from amongst the persons who are fit and willing to serve as Home Guards, and appointments of officers are made after a period of service in the ranks and on consideration of the capabilities of the Home Guards concerned. Home Guards are initially trained in lathi, weapons, control of traffic, prohibition and excise laws, first aid, mob-fighting, guard and escort drill, etc. A Home Guard gets powers, privileges and obligations under the Home Guards Act and the rules made thereunder only when called out for duty under the orders of the District Superintendent of Police. At other times a Home Guard is on the same footing as an ordinary citizen. When he is called out to aid the police he gets duty allowance of not less than Rs. 2 and not more than Rs. 3 per day as determined by the Government.

The Satara Home Guards Organisation was started in February 1948. In 1958, the organisation consisted of a District Commandant, four staff officers, ten units each under an Officer Commanding, three sub-units each under an Officer in charge and 338 Home Guards. The Units were at Satara, Patan, Karad, Koregaon, Vaduj, Mhaswad, Phaltan, Lonand, Wai and Panchgani and the sub-units at Aundh, Dahiwadi and Mahabaleshwar.

Village Defence Parties.

With a view to provide an opportunity to the villagers to cultivate among themselves and also to cultivate towards their villages a sense of civic duty, an organisation known as "Village Defence Parties" has been formed in the district. The village defence parties are very useful for the defence of villages against depredations of dacoits and other types of criminals. It is an organisation of public spirited and able-bodied villagers between the age of 20 and 50 who voluntarily enrol themselves as members of the parties.

For some districts there is a Police Officer of the rank of a sub-Inspector for the supervision of the village defence party in the district and is designated as the Village Defence Officer. He is assisted by a Joint Village Defence Officer who is from the public and works in an honorary capacity. There is an Assistant Village Defence Officer of the rank of a Head-Constable and a Joint Assistant Village Defence Officer from the public in an honorary capacity for each taluka. Under the taluka officers there is a *Kotwal* for each village defence party, who is also a villager. The *Kotwal* is in charge of the village defence party. The Joint Village Defence Officer and the Joint Assistant Village Defence Officer get permanent travelling allowance at Rs. 35 p.m. and Rs. 22·75 p.m. respectively. The village defence organisation in the district is subordinate to the District Superintendent of the Police who in turn is under the control of the District Magistrate.

In order to create confidence among the members of village defence parties, a few selected members are given arm licences and those men are expected to arm themselves with such guns as they might be able to procure on their own or with the help of the District Superintendent of Police. Members of the Village Defence Parties are trained together at a given place with such weapons including sticks etc. as they possess to defend themselves in the best manner they can under the guidance and leadership of the *Kotwals*. In order that there should be some men who can handle fire arms in an emergency, the District Superintendent of Police arranges to train in musketry a few men of the village defence parties. Further, to train himself in shooting each man is expected to fire ten practice rounds in the first year and five rounds in every subsequent year.

Village Defence Parties.

The village defence parties are intended merely for self-defence and do not possess any of the powers of Police Officers. Every act which the members of such parties may perform must be such as may be justified by the principles of the right of private defence of person and property as laid down in the Indian Penal Code. No act, therefore, of a member of a village defence party which is not justified under the Code is condoned merely because of such a person being a member of village defence party organised or working under the supervision of the police.

The special police staff for village defence parties sanctioned for Satara district was discontinued from March 1, 1954, and the work is being done by the police. In 1958, there were in the district 1,015 village defence parties with 44,757 members. There is no Village Defence Officer for Satara. There are, at present (1959-60), one Joint Village Defence Officer and ten Joint Assistant Village Defence Officers. Each village defence party has a *Kotwal*.

At the close of the year 1958, 1,105 members of village defence parties in the district were gun licensees. Some of the parties possessed 183 spears. 210 torches and 499 lanterns supplied at Government cost. The members used their own arms and ammunation and *lathis* for night patrolling. Seven hundred and fifty members were given badges.

Strength.

The strength of the district police which was 46 officers and 2,023 men in 1948 was 46 officers and 1,688 men in 1957. In 1958 the composition of the force was as follows:—

(a) *Permanent*—

District Superintendent	..	..	1
Assistant Superintendents	..	..	2
Inspectors	..	..	4
Sub-Inspectors	..	..	38

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Strength.

(including 6 reserved Sub-Inspectors.)

Unarmed Head Constables	..	..	179
Armed Head Constables	..	..	139
Unarmed Constables	..	..	540
Armed Constables	..	..	724
Head Wireless Operator	..	..	1
Wireless Operators	..	..	2

Total :— 45 officers and 1,585 men.

(b) *Temporary*—

Duties.	Sub-Inspectors.	Head Constables.		Constables.	
		Armed.	Unarmed.	Armed.	Unarmed.
(1) Merger of States ..	..	5	..	17	..
(2) Prohibition ..	..	..	11	1	36
(3) Koyna Project ..	1	1	..	4	4
(4) For increase in work as a result of the amendments to sections 103 and 173 Cr. P. C.	..	..	3	..	15
(5) Limb Out post ..	..	..	1	..	2
(6) Chaphal Out-post ..	..	..	1	.	2
(7) Vir Dam ..	..	2	..	4	..
(8) Karad College N. C. C. Armoury.	..	2	..	6	..
	1	10	16	32	59

The total strength both permanent and temporary was 46 officers and 1,702 men at the end of the year 1958.

The expenditure on the establishment of the district for the year 1958-59 was Rs. 24,30,361. The ratio of the police to area and population comes to one policeman to 2·31 square miles and 674 persons.

Recruitment.

Recruitment to the cadre of Assistant Superintendents of Police who belong to the Indian Police Service is made by the Government of India on the recommendation of the Union Public Service Commission. On their appointment they are attached to the Central Police Training College, Mount Abu for training for a period of one year and after successful completion of the training they are sent to the States concerned for further training. In the State, the probationers are attached to districts for practical training for 5½ months and at the Police Training School, Nasik for 4½ months before they are appointed to hold independent charges of Sub-Divisional Police Officers. An Assistant Superintendent of Police is considered eligible

Recruitment.

for promotion to a senior post in the Indian Police Service cadre after completion of four years' service from the date of joining the State.

Seventy per cent. of the total number of appointments on the sanctioned cadre of Deputy Superintendents of Police are filled in by promotion from the lower ranks of the district police force and the remaining 30 per cent. by direct recruitment which is made by the State Government from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Candidates appointed by direct recruitment are attached to the Police Training School, Nasik, for training and are kept on probation for a period of three years. During the first two years of their probationary period, they are required to pass departmental examination prescribed by Government. After passing the prescribed examination, while at the Police Training School, they are required to undergo practical training in districts for a period of one year. They are considered for promotion to Indian Police Service cadre after they put in eight years service as Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Appointments of Inspectors of Police are made by the Inspector-General of Police from amongst the Sub-Inspectors of Police who are found fit for promotion. No direct recruitment is ordinarily made.

Recruitment of Sub-Inspectors is made by the Inspector General of Police both by promotion of officers from the lower ranks of the District Police Force and by direct recruitment. Fifty per cent. of the vacancies are filled in by direct recruitment. Of the remaining 50 per cent., 25 per cent. of the vacancies are filled in by departmental candidates passing through the Police Sub-Inspector's course at the Central Police Training School, Nasik and the remaining 25 per cent by promotion of officers from lower ranks.

Candidates for direct recruitment may be either from outside the Police or from the Police department. These candidates are, in the first instance, selected for training in the Police Training School, Nasik as Police Sub-Inspectors. The selection is made by the Inspector-General of Police assisted by a Committee of the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, a Deputy Inspector-General of Police and the Principal, Central Police Training School, Nasik.

The police constables are recruited directly, and the head constables generally from the ranks of constables. However, to attract better men, recruitment of head constables is made direct from qualified candidates up to one-third of the vacancies.

Literacy.

Among the actual strength of 46 officers and 1,702 men of the Satara district at the close of the year 1958 none was illiterate.

Armament.

The armament of the district police in 1958 consisted of 30 carbine machine guns, 956 rifles of ·303 bore, 670 muskets of ·410 bore, 23 revolvers of ·455 bore, 45 revolvers of ·38 bore for the use of the police and 5 rifles of ·22 bore for imparting training to the public

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Armament.

in rifle shooting. Besides these arms, there were 70 rifles of ·303 bore, 135 muskets of ·410 bore and 21 revolvers of ·455 bore for use of the Home Guards.

Besides the men are trained in musketry. An Emergency Company of 100 armed men is maintained and given practice with the rifles of ·303 bore. Sixteen men from the Emergency Company are also trained with carbine machine guns. A Tear Smoke Squad of one Sub-Inspector, two head constables and 12 constables is formed for the district and along with this strength, five head constables and two constables are trained in tear smoke.

The district had a fleet of 15 motor vehicles in 1958.

In 1958 the district had a high frequency static wireless station at Satara with two receivers and two transmitters and a temporary high frequency wireless station each at Karad and Patan. Since then, the wireless station at Satara has been provided with a very high frequency set with a control station and two patrolling mobiles and a temporary high frequency wireless station has been installed at Phaltan.

State Reserve Constabulary.

With a view to provide the armed force which may be required at any place in the State to deal with any disturbance or emergency the state reserve police, trained more or less on military lines and equipped with modern weapons, has been organised and stationed in groups at important centres in the State, each group being under the control of a Commandant of the rank of District Superintendent of Police assisted by the necessary staff of officers of different ranks. The groups are provided with wireless sets and motor transport.

Crime.

The following table shows the crime reported to the Satara District Police during the year 1958 and preceding four years :—

	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954
(a) Cognisable cases (Classes I to VI).	3,272	2,800	3,369	3,055	2,788
(b) Non-cognisable cases	6,334	6,551	11,495	7,467	7,499

The reported important crime of the district during the year 1958 and the preceding four years was as under :—

	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954
(1) Murders and cognate crime.	71	61	51	54	47
(2) Dacoities ..	12	22	22	13	10
(3) Robberies ..	47	49	45	34	32
(4) House breakings and thefts.	366	359	355	254	297
(5) Thefts ..	570	455	450	391	371
(6) Receiving stolen property.	3	2	6	3	4
(7) Riots ..	25	27	17	7	13

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

The incidence of the reported cognisable crime per thousand population of the district during the year 1958 and preceding four years was as under :—

1958	.. ..	2·784
1957	.. ..	2·382
1956	.. ..	2·866
1955	.. ..	2·599
1954	.. ..	2·372

The Forward Post Scheme was introduced in the district in the border areas and the areas of the adjoining district, *viz.* Sangli, Kolhapur and Ratnagiri in 1957 and as many as 136 absconders were apprehended till 1960.

Prosecuting Staff and Prosecutions.

In 1958 there were nine Police Prosecutors of whom one was appointed as Senior Police Prosecutor in the district. The total number of cases conducted by the Prosecutors in 1958 was 2,094. The prosecuting Jamadars conduct minor cases.

Housing.

Of the total strength of 42 officers (four Inspectors and 38 Sub-Inspectors) and 1,702 men of the district entitled to rent free quarters in 1958, seven officers and 678 men were housed in Government quarters. In addition the military buildings at Satara occupied by the district police on rental basis accommodated two officers and 260 men. There is a proposal with the State Government to purchase the military buildings from the Government of India. The remaining officers and men lived in private buildings on hire.

The construction of residential quarters for the staff of Vaduj Police Station was completed in 1959 under the Second Five-Year Plan. The construction of quarters for the men and office of Undala out-post is nearing completion (1960).

Most of the offices are accommodated in Government buildings, and about 12 offices are accommodated in hired buildings.

Police Welfare.

The Police Families Welfare Fund is maintained for the district. This fund is financed by subscription from the members of the force and benefit performances etc The following facilities were given to the members of the fund during the year 1958 :— (1) Monetary help for medical treatment; (2) Clinic for women and children; (3) Scholarships to school-going children, (4) Poultry farm; (5) Vegetable garden; (6) Vegetable shop; (7) Dairy farm; (8) Sports for children; (9) Tailoring class for women; (10) Carpentry, (11) Adult female education; (12) Help to widows; (13) Transport facilities to school-going children; (14) Powder milk; (15) Recreation rooms; (16) Maternity Hospital; (17) Children's park; (18) Radios for police stations; (19) Mahila Mandals with sewing machines and indoor games; and (20) Newspapers.

A recreation room, a maternity hospital and a children's park were opened at Satara in 1958. There is also a Government mess, a canteen and a provision-store for the policemen at Satara. Besides,

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JAIL.

there is a co-operative credit society for the district police. The district police can also take advantage of the General Provident Fund and the Sports Fund.

THE JAIL DEPARTMENT.

Location of Jails.

THERE IS NEITHER A CENTRAL NOR A DISTRICT JAIL IN SATARA DISTRICT. As such, habitual prisoners convicted and sentenced for a term exceeding three months are sent to Sangli District Prison and to Nasik Road Central Prison. Central prisoners sentenced over two years are sent to Yeravda Central Prison; and short term prisoners of the district with sentences ranging from one week to a month are accommodated in the taluka subsidiary jails which are located at Dahiwadi, Karad, Khandala, Koregaon, Mahabaleshwar, Medha, Patan, Vaduj and Wai.

These sub-jails are classified as class III sub-jails and are administered by the Revenue Department. The sub-jails at Phaltan and Satara are class II Head-quarter sub-jails. The Satara sub-jail is in charge of a Jailor-*cum*-Superintendent. The Phaltan sub-jail is in charge of a revenue officer. The police lock-ups in the district are under the direct control of the Inspector-General of Police.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Prisons exercises, subject to the orders of the State Government, general control and superintendence of all prisons and jails in the State. He is assisted by Deputy Inspector General, Personal Assistant, Superintendent of Jail Industries and other office staff.

The executive officer in charge of a central or district prison is the Superintendent who is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal economy, discipline, labour, punishment and control, generally subject to the orders and authority of the Inspector-General. Under him are subordinate executive officers (like Deputy Superintendents, Jailors, Subhedars, etc.) and ministerial subordinates. In addition there are other subordinates (like medical officer, compounders, nursing orderly, etc.) also at each one of the central and district prisons in the State. The convict officers (i.e. prisoners promoted to the ranks of convict overseers and night watchmen under the jail rules) assist the jail guards in their executive duties. The services of well behaved convict overseers are being utilised now for doing patrolling duty outside the sleeping barracks but inside the jail at night time. The main wall and the outer yards are always manned for duty by the guarding staff.

Recruitment.

The post of the Inspector-General is generally filled in by the appointment of an I.C.S. or I.A.S. officer or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of the Superintendent of Central Prison (i.e. including the holder of the post of the Deputy Inspector-General or by transfer of a suitable officer in Maharashtra Medical Service, Class I, or by direct recruitment). The Superintendents of central prisons are officers promoted from the ranks of Superintendents of District Prisons. The senior-most Superintendent

Recruitment.

of a central prison is usually appointed to hold the post of Deputy Inspector-General after consulting the Public Service Commission. The Superintendents of district prisons are appointed both by direct recruitment or by promotion from amongst Jailors Grade-I in the proportion of 1 : 2. Jailors in Grade-I are also appointed both by direct recruitment and by departmental promotion in the proportion of 1 : 2. The candidates for direct recruitment to the post of Superintendent of a district prison and/or Jailor Grade-I must be honours graduates and they are recommended for appointment by the State Public Service Commission. A diploma in Sociology or Penology is an additional qualification. Appointments to Grade-II are made by the Inspector-General, by promotion of Jailors Grade-III and appointments to Grade III are made by the Inspector-General, fifty per cent. of which are by nomination from amongst candidates from outside who are necessarily required to be graduates and the other fifty per cent. of the appointments are given to suitable departmental men who have passed the Matriculation Examination or its other equivalent examination The candidates for appointment to the post of Jailor Grade-III are interviewed by a selection board consisting of the Inspector-General and two Superintendents of prisons who are nominated by the Government. The posts of sepoys are filled in by direct recruitment and the higher posts from the guarding establishment are generally filled in by promotion according to seniority but if suitable persons according to seniority are not available, appointments to the posts in higher grade are made by selection from amongst the members of the next lower ranks or by nomination of candidates with some high academic qualifications which are fixed for each post in high grade, individually.

Appointments to the posts of junior clerks are made by nomination from amongst candidates who must have passed the Matriculation Examination or its equivalent. Appointments to the ministerial posts in higher grade are made by promotion generally according to seniority from amongst the members of the next lower rank. Medical Officers are drafted for service in jail department for a period of two years from the Medical department.

Training.

The Superintendents of Prisons and Jails receive theoretical as well as practical training in Jail Officer's Training School, at Yeravda, on a scientific basis in all fields of correctional work. A comprehensive training programme in correctional administration has been prescribed and a vocational course of training has been chalked out which is designed to meet with the actual requirements of jail guards in discharging their daily duties satisfactorily.

An accounts test has also been prescribed for Gazetted and non-Gazetted superior staff of the Jail Department (i.e. Superintendents, Jailors, Stewards Clerks, etc.). The examination is conducted by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission, for Superintendents (including Superintendent of Jail Industries), Jailors in Grade-I and II and for members of the clerical cadre from senior clerk onwards and by the Inspector-General of Prisons for Jailors Grade-III, junior clerks and technical staff.

CHAPTER 12.
—
Law, Order and Justice.
JAIL.

A physical training instructor visits the jails in the State in rotation and imparts training in drill, games, and other physical activities both to the inmates of the jail and also to the jail guards.

Guarding Establishment.

Thus due care is taken to see that every jail officer and every jail subordinate gets an adequate opportunity to acquaint himself with the theoretical as well as practical sides of his duties, so that he can discharge them quite satisfactorily. The training programme has in fact gained an important place in the jail administration which aims at reformation.

Part of the guarding establishment is armed. This section serves as a reserve guard to reinforce the unarmed guards in the immediate charge of prisoners inside the prison or in extramural gangs in the event of assault, mutiny escape or other emergency. One or more jail guards are deputed at head-quarter sub-jails from the nearest Central, District or Special Prisons. The period of deputation does not usually exceed three years without obtaining specific sanction of the Inspector-General. They are assigned from time to time immediate charge of such prisoners and of such parts of the prison as the jailor under the orders of the Superintendent may direct.

Medical Officer.

No medical staff is sanctioned for head-quarter sub-jails but the Maharashtra Medical Service Officer in charge of the local Government dispensary or the medical officer attached to the local Board or Municipal dispensary stationed at or nearest to the place where the sub-jail is situated is deemed to be the medical officer of the jail. He receives no extra pay for the jail duty but is entitled to an allowance of Rs. 15 or Rs. 20 per month if the daily average number of prisoners in the jail exceeds 40 or 80 respectively. He has to visit the sub-jail regularly at least twice a week and also at such other time as he may be sent for to attend cases of serious illness or to examine newly admitted prisoners. A small stock of medicines is always kept in sub-jail office to treat minor cases and serious cases are transferred to the local Government dispensary for treatment.

Matrons

No posts of matrons are sanctioned for head-quarter sub-jails but the Superintendent is empowered to engage a matron locally whenever a woman prisoner is admitted to jail.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class I or Class II by the Court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence. They are further classified as casuals, habituals, undertrials, and security or detenus. There is no separate class of "political prisoners" but certain rules which do not allow the grant of facilities and privileges on the scope of length of sentence are relaxed in their favour under the specific orders of Government. Prisoners are also grouped as short termers, medium termers and long termers. Prisoners with a sentence up to three months are classed as short termers, those sentenced to three months and above

but up to two years are classified as medium termers and those sentenced to two years and above as long termers. The short termers are given deterrent treatment while in the case of medium and long termers paramount importance is given to the reformation of the prisoner. Head-quarter sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short term prisoners and undertrial prisoners only.

Jail Reforms.

A Jail Reform Committee was appointed by Government in 1946 and in their report published in August 1947, the committee made several recommendations to Government calculated to conduce to the reformation of the prisoner and Government accepted many of those recommendations. The rules for the treatment have been liberalised. The regulations regarding corporal punishment have been tightened and whipping as a jail punishment is now to be awarded in exceptionally few cases after obtaining prior sanction of Government. Punishments of penal diet and gunny clothing have been abolished. Rules about letters and interviews have also been liberalised.

Remission of Sentence.

The rules for the grant of remission of sentences apply to long termers only. Since only short-termers are confined to the Jails of Satara these rules are not detailed here.

Work.

Work is arranged according to the prisoner's health. On admission the prisoner is examined by the medical officer who classifies him as fit for light, medium or hard labour. A work allotment committee is constituted for central and district jails, the members of which have to take into account health conditions of the prisoners, their aptitude, past experience, etc., and assign suitable work for newly admitted prisoners with a sentence of six months and above. Any changes in the work so allotted to prisoners by the committee have to be effected only with the concurrence of the members of the committee. No such committee is to be appointed for short term prisoners.

Payment of Wages.

Long and medium term prisoners, so also security and undertrial prisoners who volunteer to work are paid 1/5th of the wages, which are paid normally for similar work outside provided they complete their daily quota of task to the satisfaction of the authorities concerned.

Canteen.

Jail Canteens have been opened in main Jails only where eatables, drinks, fruits etc., are sold to prisoners out of their earnings. The canteen thus serves as an incentive to prisoners to work and earn wages. Profits accruing from canteen transactions are utilised for the purchase of radios, books and other articles to promote the welfare of the prisoners.

Release on parole and furlough.

A prisoner may be released on parole in cases of serious illness or death of any member of his family or his nearest relative or for any other sufficient cause. The period spent on parole will not count as part of the sentence.

CHAPTER 12.
—
Law, Order and Justice.
JAIL.
Welfare of Prisoners.
Board of Visitors.

The prisoner who desires to be released on parole has to submit his application to the Jail Superintendent who has to endorse his remarks thereon and submit one copy thereof direct to Government and one copy to the Inspector-General of Prisons along with the nominal roll of the prisoner concerned. Prisoners who apply for parole on false grounds or who abuse the concession or commit breaches of any of the conditions of parole are liable to be punished. Enquiries as regards genuineness or otherwise of the grounds advanced in the application are made through the local revenue and police officers.

Prisoners with a sentence of one year and above are entitled to being released on furlough for a period of two weeks which will be counted as part of sentence.

A Board of Visitors composing official and non-official visitors is appointed for every headquarter sub-jail and taluka sub-jails. There are ordinarily four non-official visitors for headquarter sub-jails out of which two are the members of the Maharashtra Legislature and two are nominated by Government of whom one is a lady visitor. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of Government are interested in the prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both while they are in prison and after their release are nominated by Government on the Board of Visitors on the recommendation of the District Magistrate concerned and Inspector-General of Prisons. The Chairman of the Board of Visitors who is usually the District Magistrate arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board. Quarterly meetings of the whole board are convened. Non-Official visitors are also allowed to visit prison on any day at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman. The board records in the Visitor's Book its observations on the result of the detailed inspection of the jails. Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders. Other remarks made by the visitors and the quarterly committee of visitors are forwarded immediately after the end of the month by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General with such remarks as he may desire to offer.

Jail Panchayat Committee

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each yard and by the prisoners themselves, and the jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known in jail parlance as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for those prisoners who are ignorant of reading, writing and arithmetic, under the supervision of literate convicts and paid teachers who are appointed only at some of the main jails in the State. Regular annual examinations

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JAIL.

Welfare of Prisoners.

Vocational Training and Recreation.

are held in the jail by the Deputy Educational Inspectors. As remuneration for conducting literacy classes in jail an amount is received as grant-in-aid from the Education Department, 25 per cent. of which is given to the convict teachers as an encouragement after the quarterly examinations of the students (prisoners) are held and the rest of the amount is utilised towards the purchase of books, boards, etc., required for the literacy classes. Films on educational and reformative values are also exhibited by the District Regional Publicty Officer concerned.

Utmost precautions are taken in treating the prisoners suffering from various diseases and jail hospitals are equipped with all possible requirements. Special types of diseases are attended to with due care and all possible measures are taken against the spread of epidemics and contagious diseases.

The daily routine extends from 5-15 a.m. to 9-30 p.m. The actual working hours are from 8-15 a.m. to 10-45 a.m. and 11-45 a.m. to 4-15 p.m. (i.e. 7 hours in all) and other parts of routine include time for meditation, congregational prayers, physical training, games, social engagements, talks, singing of devotional songs, education classes and reading of newspapers and books. Central and District Prisons in the State have extensive factories comprising various sections (*viz.* textile, carpentry, smithy, *mochi*, etc.). Prisoners in headquarter sub-jails are employed in gardens attached to the jail prison and in other services (*viz.* sweeping of barracks, kitchen, conservancy, etc.) and on works like manufacture of narrow tape, cot tape, etc.

The authorised accommodation and the daily average population of the headquarter sub jail at Satara and Phaltan for the year 1957 was as under :—

Name of Jail	Sanctioned accommodation			Daily average number for the year 1957		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1. Satara sub-jail (II class headquarter sub-jail).	159	6	165	75	1	76
2. Phaltan sub-jail (II class headquarter sub-jail).	52	12	64	12	4	16

Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration Wing and Non-correctional Wing).

Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration Wing and Non-correctional Wing).

Legislation.

In Maharashtra State there are five pieces of Social Legislation the aim of three of which is to protect children and to prevent juveniles, adolescents and young adults from becoming habitual criminals. They are (1) the Bombay Children Act, 1948, (2) the Bombay Borstal Schools Act, 1929. and (3) the Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938. The remaining two are the Bombay Beggars Act, 1945 for prevention of begging and the Bombay Habitual Offenders'

CHAPTER 12.
—
Law, Order and Justice.
SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).
Legislation.
Children Act.

Restriction Act, 1947, dealing with prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. While the Children Act deals with children below 16 years of age, the Borstal Schools Act is applied to adolescents between 16 and 21, and the Probation of Offenders Act provides for offenders of any age, especially those between 21 and 25 and those who have not committed offences punishable with death or transportation for life.

There are also following two Children Acts prevalent in the respective Divisions :—

Children Act.	Division or area.
(1) The Hyderabad Children Act, 1951 ..	Marathwada.
(2) The C. P. and Berar Children Act, 1928 ..	Vidarbha.

The Bombay Children Act consolidates all previous laws relating to the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and also relating to the trial of youthful offenders. It gives protection to four principal classes of Children, *viz.*, (1) those who are neglected, destitute or living in immoral surroundings, and those in moral danger; (2) uncontrollable children who have been reported as such by their parents; (3) children, especially girls, who have been used for begging and other purposes by mercenary persons; and (4) young delinquents who either in the company or at the instigation of older persons or by themselves have committed offences under the various laws of the land. Such children are taken charge of either by the police or by officers known as "Probation Officers" and in most cases are kept in "Remand Homes". A Remand Home is primarily meant as a place where a child can be safely accommodated during the period its case is being considered and it is also meant to be a centre where a child's character and behaviour can be minutely observed and its needs fully provided for by wise and careful consideration. After enquiries regarding their home conditions and antecedents have been completed, they are placed before special Courts known as "Juvenile Courts" and dealt with according to the provisions of the Children Act. If the home conditions are found to be satisfactory, and if what is needed is only friendly guidance and supervision, then the children are restored to their parents and placed under the supervision of a trained Probation Officer. If the home conditions are unwholesome and uncongenial, the children are committed to institutions known as "Certified Schools" or "fit person institutions". Fit person includes any association established for the reception or protection of children. At these schools or institutions the children receive training according to their individual aptitudes, in carpentry, smithy, book-binding, tailoring, agriculture, poultry-farming, goat-rearing, gardening, cane-work, knitting, etc. Youthful offenders, when implicated in any offence along with adult offenders, have to be tried separately in Juvenile Courts without the paraphernalia of Criminal Courts. The technique employed in

Juvenile Courts is entirely different from that in adult Courts. Juvenile Courts are held in Remand Homes. Penal terms are avoided, and even the word "punishment" has been dropped from the enactment in describing the treatment to be meted out. The children are regarded only as victims of circumstances or of the wrong treatment received from adults.

CHAPTER 12. — Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING). Legislation. *Borstal Schools Act.*

Adolescent criminals coming under the Borstal Schools Act are sent for detention and training in the Borstal School, Dharwar. Factory work and agriculture form two main heads of vocational training. Weaving, manufacture of furniture and stationery, and smithy are some of the other vocations taught. The adolescents sent to this school are given such individual training and other instruction and are subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as will conduce to their reformation. However, boys found to be too incorrigible or unsociable to be kept in the Borstal School are transferred to the Juvenile Section of the Yeravada Prison. Similarly, if the Inspector-General of Prisons thinks that any prisoner in the Juvenile Section can be better treated to his advantage if he is sent to the Borstal School, he is accordingly transferred. Both juveniles and adolescents, when they have finished a certain period of residence in the institutions to which they are sent and have acquired some proficiency in a trade, are released, under a licence as prescribed under the Rules, to live in their homes, or, if they are destitutes, in "aftercare hostels" (institutions run by non-official agencies), under supervision, and efforts are made to find employment for them. There is no Borstal School in the Maharashtra State; hence the Borstal School, Dharwar, is made use of.

Machinery to enforce legislation. *Non-official.*

For the proper enforcement of the legislative enactments mentioned above, machinery, both official and non-official, is provided. The non-official machinery is provided by the Maharashtra State Probation and After-Care Association, Poona, with a net-work of affiliated bodies called the District Probation and After-Care Associations. These Associations provide "Remand Homes" and "after-care hostels" and also direct Probation Officers to make enquiries regarding the home conditions and antecedents of children and also to supervise the young persons released either directly by Courts or on licence from Certified Schools and the Borstal School, Dharwar.

Official.

The official agency is the Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional and non-Correctional Administration Wings), Poona. The work under the Juvenile Branch was transferred from Education Department to the Education and Social Welfare Department from the 1st of December, 1956. Later on, from the 1st November, 1957 the work under the former Juvenile and Beggars Department and the work under the Backward Class Welfare Department have been combined and a new Directorate of Social Welfare has been established. The Directorate works under the Education and Social

CHAPTER 12. — Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING). Machinery to enforce Legislation. *Official.*

Welfare department. There are now three Wings of the Directorate of Social Welfare under the Director of Social Welfare, as follows :—

(1) *Backward Class Wing*—

For all Backward Class welfare activities.

(2) *Correctional Administration Wing*—

Children Act work (Juvenile Branch and State Association Branch),

Beggars Act work,

Habitual Offenders Restriction work,

Bombay Probation of Offenders Act work.

(3) *Non-correctional Administration Wing*—

(1) Moral and Social hygiene programme and other plan schemes including report and research.

(2) Physically Handicapped Branch.

The Backward Class Wing is headed by the Joint Director of Social Welfare. The Correctional Wing is headed by the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration), who is also *ex-officio* Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions and Reclamation Officer for the respective legislations, *viz.*, (1) Bombay Children Act, (2) Bombay Beggars Act, and (3) Habitual Offenders Restriction Act. The third Wing is headed by the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (for other social welfare activities). Excepting the administration of Borstal Schools and institutions which is controlled by the Home Department at the Secretariat level, all work of the Correctional Administration Wing and non-Correctional Administration Wing is controlled by the Education and Social Welfare Department through the Director of Social Welfare.

So far as the Satara District is concerned, the Beggars Act has not yet been applied to any part of it.

The Bombay Probation of Offenders' Act, 1938, has been applied to the whole of the district of Satara since February, 1958. For the implementation of the Act, the appointment of a Chief Officer has been made.

The Bombay Children Act, 1948 has been applied to the City of Satara and area situated within a radius of five miles from the General Post Office in the City of Satara. It has also been applied to municipal limits of Wai, Karad and Panchgani in the district.

The Officer-in-Charge of the work of the Education and Social Welfare Department in this district is the "Probation Officer", who is a Government servant deputed by the Director of Social Welfare to the Satara District Probation and After-Care Association. He carries on the day to day work of the Association and is subordinate to the Director of Social Welfare and the Honorary Secretary of the Association. He is also responsible to the Juvenile Court Magistrates

Law, Order and Justice. SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING). Machinery to enforce Legislation. *Official.*

as far as Juvenile Court work is concerned. There is only one Probation Officer in the Satara District. The duties of the Probation Officer are as follows :—

(1) To study the children that are brought before the Juvenile Court and to submit reports based on his studies to the court suggesting a treatment programme.

(2) To supervise the children placed under his supervision by the Juvenile Court.

(3) To conduct inquiries regarding applications received by the Juvenile Court.

(4) To conduct the inquiries referred to the District Probation and After-Care Association by other institutions in respect of children and beggars.

(5) To conduct inquiries regarding children proposed to be released on licence from different Certified Schools and the Borstal School, Dharwar, and to supervise such children as are released on licence.

(6) To conduct inquiries and supervision work under the Probation of Offenders Act; and

(7) To do propaganda work to further the objects of legislation relating to children and youthful offenders.

There is only one remand home and one Juvenile Court in the district at Satara. The Judicial Magistrate, First Class, Satara, acts as a Presiding Officer of the Juvenile Court. Two Lady Honorary Magistrates are attached to the Juvenile Court, who advise the Presiding Officer in respect of disposal of cases before the Court.

The Remand Home in Satara is run by the District Probation and After-Care Association. The Association also runs a separate section for girls. The total annual expenditure of the Satara District Probation and After-Care Association during the year 1957-58 was Rs. 31,946·19 nPs. only. There is no After-Care Hostel in the district. The only Certified School in the district, *viz.*, Shree Chhatrapati Shahu Boarding House, run by the Rayat Shikshan Samstha, Satara, has various branches at different places in the district. The children when committed to Rayat Shikshan Samstha are sent to these places.

THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

JUDICIAL. District Judge.

THE DISTRICT JUDGE, SATARA, is the highest judicial authority in the district and presides over the District Court. Under Article 234 of the Constitution of India, appointments, postings and promotion of district judges[1] are to be made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court; and under Article 234, appointments of persons other than district judges to the judicial service[2] are made by the

[1] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes additional district judge, assistant district judge, chief judge of a small causes court, sessions judge, additional sessions judge and assistant sessions judge.

[2] Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as a service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of district judge and other civil judicial posts inferior to the post of district judge.

CHAPTER 12.
—
Law, Order and Justice.
JUDICIAL.
Civil Courts.

Governor in accordance with rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. Under Article 235, the control over the District Court and the courts subordinate to it, including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of district judge, is vested in the High Court.

The District Court is the principal court of original jurisdiction in the district, and it is also a court of appeal from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District Judge exercises general control over all the civil courts and their establishment and inspects the proceedings of these courts.

In addition to the District Court, there is located at Satara another Court presided by an Assistant Judge. The Assistant Judge exercises both original and appellate jurisdiction. He can try original cases, the value of which does not exceed Rs. 15,000.

Subordinate to the District Judge are two cadres of Civil Judges, Junior Division and Senior Division. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division), extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject-matter. Appeals in suits or proceedings wherein the subject-matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value are taken to the District Court, while in those wherein the subject-matter exceeds in value Rs. 10,000 are taken direct to the High Court.

The distribution of the senior and junior division courts of civil judges is as under :—

Town.		Senior Division.	Junior Division.
Satara ..	..	1	3
Karad ..	..	..	2
Wai ..	..	..	2
Patan ..	..	..	1
Koregaon	..	..	1
Vaduj		..	1
Dahiwadi	..	..	1
Phaltan ..	..	..	1

Except the civil Judge of the Senior Division at Satara and the two Civil Judges of the Junior Division at Karad, all Civil Judges of the Junior Division at the above places are also Judicial Magistrates, First Class, within their respective jurisdiction.

Criminal Courts.

The District Judge, Satara, is also the Sessions Judge of the district. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his court by the Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry and

hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate magistrates. The Sessions Judge has also the jurisdiction to try criminal cases falling under Section 198-B, of the Code of Criminal Procedure. The Sessions Judge (or the Assistant Judge invested with additional powers), if appointed by State Government, as Special Judge, has to try cases under the Bombay Prevention of Corruption Act (Bombay Act III of 1947), read with Section 161 of the Indian Penal Code.

The Assistant Judge also exercises the powers of an Assistant Sessions Judge on the criminal side and is generally invested with powers of an Additional Sessions Judge. The Sessions Judge and Additional Sessions Judge, may pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by any such judge is subject to confirmation by the High Court. An Assistant Sessions Judge can pass any sentence authorised by law except a sentence of death or of transportation or imprisonment for a term exceeding ten years.

Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951), has classified the magistracy of the State into two categories, *viz.*, (1) Judicial Magistrates, and (2) Executive Magistrates. Judicial Magistrates are of the following classes :—(1) Presidency Magistrates; (2) Magistrates of the First Class; (3) Magistrates of the Second Class; (4) Magistrates of the Third Class; and (4) Special Judicial Magistrates. Executive Magistrates fall under the following classes :—(1) District Magistrates; (2) Sub-Divisional Magistrates; (3) Taluka Magistrates; (4) Presidency Magistrates specially empowered by the State Government; and (5) Special Executive Magistrates. The State Government may, in consultation with the High Court, direct any two or more Judicial Magistrates in any place outside Greater Bombay to sit together as a bench and invest such bench with the powers of a Magistrate of the First, Second or Third Class.

Presidency Magistrates work in Greater Bombay. Special Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases or classes of cases or cases generally in any local area. Special Executive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government for particular areas, or for the performance of particular functions.

All Judicial Magistrates and Benches of Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge who may from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of business among them.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are detailed in paragraphs III-A, IV and V of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping the peace or for good behaviour, however, lie from Executive Magistrates to the Court of Sessions (section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government has power by notification to direct that appeals from such orders

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act.

made by a Magistrate other than the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Sessions. Again, under section 406-A of the Code any person aggrieved by an order refusing to accept or rejecting a surety under section 122 may appeal against such order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions. Under section 435 (4), the High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under section 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger), and 145 (procedure where dispute as to immoveable property is likely to cause breach of the peace), even though such proceeding was before an Executive Magistrate.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the Third, Second and First Class are detailed in Schedule III, Part I, II and III respectively of the Criminal Procedure Code (Act V of 1898). They may be invested with additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court, and these additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code. They are competent to pass the following sentences :—

(*a*) Magistrates of the First Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law.
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 2,000.
(*b*) Magistrates of the Second Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 6 months including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law.
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 500.
(*c*) Magistrates of the Third Class.	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding one month.
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 100.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act came in force on the 1st July 1953. In 1960 there were in all twelve Judicial Magistrates of the First Class in the district. Out of them two at Karad were exclusively Judicial Magistrates and the remaining were Civil Judges, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrates of the First Class. These were three at Satara, two at Wai and one each at (i) Dahiwadi, (ii) Koregaon, (iii) Patan, (iv) Phaltan, and (v) Vaduj. One Joint Civil Judge and Judicial Magistrate, First Class, Satara, sits for four days in a month at Medha to try cases arising from Jaoli taluka and the Joint Civil Judge and Judicial Magistrate, First Class, Wai, sits at Khandala and Mahabaleshwar respectively for eight and six days in a month to try cases from Khandala mahal and Mahabaleshwar mahal.

Other Law Officers.

The following are other Law Officers of Government functioning in the district :—

District Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor;

Assistant Government Pleader and Assistant Public Prosecutor;

Sub-Government Pleaders one at each of the following places :—

(i) Dahiwadi, (ii) Karad, (iii) Koregaon, (iv) Patan, (v) Phaltan, and (vi) Vaduj.

Number of legal Practitioners.

In October 1958 there were practising in various Civil and Criminal Courts in the district two Barristers, fifteen Advocates and 241 Pleaders.

Nyaya panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933), Nyaya Panchayats have been formed in a number of villages and these institutions are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. The constitution and powers of the panchayats are detailed in Chapter VI, sections 37 to 58-A, of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1933. An appeal lies to the District Court against a decree passed by a Nyaya Panchayat in any suit and to the Sessions Court against any order in any case.

Bar Associations.

The Bar Associations in the district which numbered six in 1960 were located at Satara (1928), Karad (1930), Patan (1953), Vaduj (1953), Dahiwadi (1916), and Phaltan (1949). The years of establishment are given in the brackets. The total membership of these associations was 194 in 1960. The objects of the associations are: (1) to promote contacts among the members of the legal profession; (2) to guard the honour and status of the members as members of the profession; (3) to send representatives and deputations to the authorities concerned in connection with legislative and other cognate matters affecting the public in general and the legal profession in particular; and (4) to take steps to secure greater efficiency and public confidence in the administration of justice.

Statistics of Civil Courts

In Satara District in the various Civil Courts 1,988 suits were pending at the end of the year 1958. In the year 1959, 2,124 suits were instituted; 2,375 suits were disposed of and 1,737 suits were pending at the end of the year. Out of the 2,124 suits instituted 108 suits were either for money or immoveable property; 787 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 995 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 207 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 and 32 of value above Rs. 5,000. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 12,49,902·54

Out of 2,375 suits disposed of, 409 were disposed of without trial; 386 *ex-parte*; 362 on admission of claims; 298 by compromise; 886 after full trial and 34 by transfer.

There were 659 appeals (including Miscellaneous and Debt Adjustment Board Appeals) pending at the end of the year 1958. During the year 1959, 459 appeals were instituted and 364 were disposed of and 754 appeals were pending at the end of the year.

Out of 364 appeals disposed of during the year 1959, 42 were either dismissed or not prosecuted; 225 confirmed; 50 modified; 31 reversed and 16 remained for trial.

CHAPTER 12.

—

Law, Order and Justice.

JUDICIAL.

Statistics of Criminal Courts.

In the year 1959 there were 10,823 offences reported in the Criminal Courts of the Satara District. Persons under trial numbered 19,153; persons whose cases were disposed of 14,934; persons discharged or acquitted 5,931; persons convicted 8,957; persons committed to Sessions or referred to Higher Tribunals 200; persons died or escaped or transferred to another State 46. None was sentenced to death; nine were sentenced to transportation or personal servitude; 863 to imprisonment and 7,885 to fine and 513 were asked to give security.

Statistics of Sessions Court.

During the year 1959, in the Sessions Court, 75 offences were reported, 205 persons were under trial; cases of 122 persons were disposed of during the year; 80 persons were acquitted or discharged; 42 persons were convicted; of whom 9 were sentenced to imprisonment for life and 33 were sentenced to imprisonment. Of these 33, two persons were ordered to furnish security and three persons were fined.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The following are the figures showing the revenue and expenditure of the Judicial Department in the district for the year 1958-59 :—

Revenue.

		Rs. nPs.
(1) Sale proceeds of unclaimed and escheated property.		1,601·69
(2) Fines by Civil and Sessions Courts	..	54,340·28
(3) Cash receipts of Record Rooms ..	..	39,274·23
(4) Miscellaneous receipts ..	..	7,507·50
Total	..	1,02,723·70

Expenditure.

(1) Pay of Officers ..	..	1,00,976·80
(2) Pay of the Establishment ..	..	2,01,506·49
(3) Pay of process serving Establishment	..	31,814·09
(4) Other Expenditure ..	..	2,21,825·46
Total	..	5,56,122·84

CHAPTER 13—OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS. Organisation.

THE BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS DEPARTMENT DEALS WITH (1) Roads and Buildings, (2) Irrigation, (3) Electricity, and (4) Public Health. All these branches are dealt with separately by district branches of departments.

(1) *Roads and Buildings*.—The Satara Division is a permanent Division, in charge of the Executive Engineer, Satara Division, under the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle. There are six Sub-divisions under Satara Division which are as follows :—

(1) Satara Sub-division	.. ..	Permanent.
(2) Karad Sub-division, Karad	..	Permanent.
(3) Koregaon Sub-division, Koregaon	..	Permanent.
(4) Phaltan (R. & B.) Sub-division, Phaltan.		Temporary Sub-divisions.
(5) Road Project Sub-Division	..	Temporary Sub-divisions.
(6) Polytechnic Institute Sub-division, Karad.		Temporary Sub-divisions.

Duties of Officers.

While each Circle is in charge of a Superintending Engineer, the divisions are in charge of Executive Engineers and the Sub-divisions in charge of Assistant Engineers or Deputy Engineers. The Assistant Engineers belong to the Maharashtra Service of Engineers (M. S. E.). Class I, and Deputy Engineers to M. S. E., Class II. These Officers are each in charge of a Sub-division and are, therefore, called Sub-divisional Officers. The Sub-divisions are divided further into sections each in charge of an overseer. There are about 20 overseers in each Division.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general control of Public Works in charge of Officers of the Department within the Circle. It is his duty to inspect the state of the various works within his circle and to satisfy himself that the

CHAPTER 18.
—
Other Departments.
BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.
Superintending Engineer.

system of management prevailing is efficient and economic. He is required to ascertain the efficiency of the subordinate Officer and petty establishments and to see and report whether the staff employed in each division is actually necessary or adequate for the management. He also examines the conditions of the surveying and mathematical instruments at the headquarters of divisions. In the case of office and petty establishments borne on divisional scales, he sees that these scales are not exceeded without proper authority. The Superintending Engineers are empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and Overseers within their Circles In the interest of administration, however, Executive Engineers of Divisions are consulted before posting these Officers to particular Sub-divisional charges under their control. It is also the duty of Superintending Engineer to recommend removals and transfer of Executive Engineers from their own Circles. The supervision and control of the assessment of revenue from irrigation works within his Circle rests with the Superintending Engineer. The Superintending Engineer is authorised to correspond direct with any of the local authorities, Civil or Military, within his Circle.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his Circle for the execution and management of all works within his division. He has to see that proper measures are taken to preserve all buildings and works in his division and to prevent encroachment on Government Lands in his charge. He is responsible to see that the surveying and mathematical instruments in his division are properly cared for and to report on their condition to the Superintending Engineer at the end of each working season. In addition to his duties, he is *ex-officio* professional adviser of all departments of the State within the limits of his charge.

The Sub-divisional Officers are responsible to the Executive Engineer in charge of the Divisions for the management and execution of works within their Sub-divisions.

The overseers are in charge of sections under the Sub-divisional Officers.

The total mileage as on 31st March 1961 as maintained in Satara division was 492·98 under the different categories of roads as detailed below :—

National Highways	..	80·59 miles.
State Highways	..	163·05 miles.
Major District Roads	..	127·44 miles
Other District Roads	..	112·32 miles.
Other Roads not included in the Plan.		9·58 miles.
		492·98 miles.

CHAPTER 18.

Other Departments.

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Executive Engineer.

Out of the above total length of road, the type of the surface and their lengths are as under:—

4·00 miles is of cement-concrete surface.

182·03 miles is of B. T. surface.

182·45 miles is of W. B. M. surface.

124·50 miles is of Murum surface.

(2) As regards New Building Construction the following buildings are completed:—

(i) Government Polytechnic at Karad.

(ii) Police lines at Vaduj.

(iii) Industrial Estate at Karad.

(iv) C. D. Building at Satara.

Buildings for police lines and Police Sub-Inspectors' Quarters are in progress at Karad, Dhebewadi, Satara, Umbraj and similarly major buildings, *viz.*, (*i*) New Civil Hospital with its sub-structures and New Inspection Bungalow at Satara are also in progress.

(3) All irrigation works from this Division have been transferred to Nira Right Bank Canals Division, Phaltan, recently.

Electrical Circle.

For carrying out advisory, administrative and executive duties pertaining to the generation and use of electricity, there is the Electrical Circle under the Electrical Engineer to Government. The jurisdiction of this officer extends to the whole of the State. Under him are five Electrical Divisions, each in charge of an Executive Engineer. Out of these five Electrical Divisions, two Divisions have their Head-Quarters at Bombay, two at Poona and one at Nagpur. Satara District falls under the jurisdiction of the Poona Electrical Division, Poona.

In Satara District there are three Electric Supply Companies at Satara, Karad and Mahabaleshwar. The Maharashtra State Electricity Board is also supplying electricity to certain towns in the district.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

THE IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT DEALS WITH (1) Major, Medium and Minor Irrigation Works, (2) Hydro Electric Schemes, and (3) Water Supply and Drainage Schemes.

Organisation.

For execution of multi-purpose Koyna Hydro-Electric Project Stages I and II, there exists the Koyna Organisation under the overall charges of the Chief Engineer, Koyna Project, with headquarters at Koynanagar, District Satara. The Chief Engineer, Koyna is responsible to Secretary to Government, Irrigation and Power Department for the working of this organisation. The Chief Engineer, Koyna, has under him on the civil side two Superintending Engineers, ten Executive Engineers, one Research Officer, one Chief Accounts Officer and number of Deputy Engineers, etc. for implementation of the Koyna project. [In the Electrical and Mechanical wing there is a Chief Engineer (Electrical), Koyna, with headquarters at Bombay and one Executive Engineer at Koynanagar]. For operation and maintenance of the construction power plant system the three medium irrigation

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. IRRIGATION AND POWER. Organisation.

schemes in the district are being executed by three independent sub-divisions *viz.*, Tarali Bandhara Sub-Division for Tarali Bandhara; Urmodi Bandhara Sub-Division for Urmodi Bandhara and Koregaon Sub-Division, for Ranand tank under the control of the Executive Engineer, Satara Division, who is under the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle, Poona. For the execution of the remodelling and extension of the Krishna Canals, which will benefit Sangli and Satara districts, there is a Krishna Canals Extension Sub-Division No. 1 at Karad under the Executive Engineer, Kolhapur Irrigation Division which works under the Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Circle (I), Poona.

Minor irrigation works in the district are supervised by the Executive Engineer, Nira Right Bank Canal Division, with headquarters at Phaltan. He is under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Deccan Irrigation Circle (I), Poona. There are two sub-divisions i.e. Tarali Bandhara Sub-Division and Minor Irrigation Investigation Sub-Division with headquarters at Satara. The former undertakes mostly construction work and the latter looks after investigation and preparation of plans and estimates for minor irrigation works in the district. The Director of Minor Irrigation is of the rank of a Chief Engineer and is the head of the department entrusted with the implementation of minor irrigation programme in the State.

The Executive Engineer, Public Health Works Division, Kolhapur is entrusted with the execution and maintenance of public health i.e. water supply and drainage schemes and the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Poona with the preparation of major public health schemes in the district. The works in Satara, Wai, Phaltan, Khatav, Patan and Jaoli talukas and Mahabaleshwar and Khandala Petas are looked after by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Mahabaleshwar, Water Supply Construction Sub-Division, Satara and those in Man and Karad talukas by the Sub-Divisional Officer, Sanitary Sub-Division, Sangli. The Executive Engineers of Public Health Works Division and Public Health Projects Division are under the control of the Superintending Engineer, Western Public Health Circle, Poona.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general control of works in charge of officers of the department within his Circle. It is his duty to inspect various works within his Circle and to ensure that the system of management and working prevailing in his Circle is efficient and economical.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to the Superintending Engineer of his Circle for execution and management of all works within his division. The Sub-Divisional Officers are responsible to the Executive Engineer in charge of the division for management and execution of works within their Sub-Divisions. The overseers are in charge of sections. They are under the Sub-Divisional Officers.

Koyna Hydro-Electric Project.

The Koyna Hydro-Electric Project (a multi-purpose River Valley Project) situated in the zone of Sahyadri mountains in the Southern Maharashtra, is designed to harness the heavy precipitation of nearly

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Koyna Hydro Electric Project.

200 inches annual rainfall in the Koyna valley to economic generation of electric power by channelling the waters up to high-drop tunnel along the western slope. The salient features of the project, which is being executed in stages since 1956, are (i) a rubble-concrete dam of about 207 feet high across the Koyna river at a point, nearly three miles upstream from Helvak in the district (on Karad-Chiplun road), storing 36,000 mc. ft. in first stage, (ii) diversion of the stored water to the west by underground tunnels and conduits through the surge shaft into the steel lined pressure shafts along and within the high western escarpment providing an almost vertical drop of 1,600 ft. under high pressure into the generation plant housed in underground halls approached by tunnel into the rocky face near the village Pophali of Chiplun taluka, and (iii) discharge of the water from the power house through tail race tunnel into the river Vashisthi which flows westward into Arabian Sea. The underground power-house is the first of its kind in Asia.

The power-house system consists of three huge parallel caverns with an access road tunnel, a ventilation tunnel (touching the caverns at the roof level) and cable tunnels to take outside the hill, the power generated and stepped up in the power-house system for onward transmission to Bombay for being linked with the Tata railway system serving the Bombay-Poona area and for distribution in the Southern Maharashtra region.

The first stage of the project is estimated to cost Rs. 38·28 crores. In this stage 4 machines each generating 60,000 KW. power will be installed. The first unit of the project is expected to be put into commercial operation by the end of the financial year 1961-62 and the remaining in succession thereafter.

The Second Stage development of the project envisages raising the dam to enable impound 98,000 mc. ft. of water, which would allow utilisation of 67,500 mc. ft. (partly from the run off of the river and partly from the storage) for power purposes by diversion to the West and a utilisation of 16,000 mc. ft. for irrigation in the Krishna basin upto the southern boundary of Maharashtra State.

As most of the other elements of the underground power-house system will already be constructed to the second stage dimensions during stage I construction programme the only civil engineering works that require to be executed in the 2nd stage are, raising the Dam to a section relevant to 98,000 mc. ft. storage, two more pressure shafts and the 2nd cable tunnel.

On the electrical and mechanical side, the provision and installation of four more generators capable of almost doubling up the power of the 1st stage together with appurtenant step-up transformers, switch gear and transmission system form the main bulk of work. The total generable units at the end of the 2nd stage will be 2,150 million KWH.

In addition, a power-house at the foot of the dam (with an installed capacity of about 40,000 KW), is also contemplated as a part of Stage II works. The Stage II project (including P. H. at the foot of the Dam), is estimated to cost Rs. 1,797·63 lakhs.

CHAPTER 13.
—
Other Departments.
IRRIGATION AND POWER.
Major and Medium Irrigation.

The Third stage development of the project consists of the exploitation of the Tail Race Potential. Tail Race waters emerging out of the Power House hill at an altitude of about 420 feet above the mean sea level, flow down a steep bed gradient of the outfall river. Within a distance of five miles, the bed level of this outfall river (Vashisthi), is about 150 feet. Thus a tail race plant, capable of generating 60,000 KW. at 60 per cent. load factor, is envisaged in the 3rd stage development.

The work of following medium irrigation schemes is in progress.

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Location	Estimated cost (in thousand of Rs.)	Potential on completion.
1	2	3	4	5
1	Tarali Bandhara	Patan ..	13·95	5,500
2	Urmodi Bandhara	Satara Taluka	17·16	4,100
3	Ranand Tank . ..	Man Taluka ..	30·18	2,700

Remodelling and Extension of Krishna Canals under execution will partly benefit Karad Taluka of the district and Walva and Tasgaon Talukas of Sangli district. The Vir Dam Project in Poona district is also expected to benefit 4,190 acres in Phaltan taluka of Satara district on its completion and full development.

A new major project, *viz.*, Koyna Irrigation Project is included in the Third Plan. The project envisages the construction of a pick-up weir at Warunji near Karad. The project is estimated to cost Rs. 950 lakhs and will irrigate on completion about 91,350 acres of which 18,150 acres will be in Karad taluka.

Minor Irrigation.

There are 31 minor irrigation schemes, irrigating 250 acres and less with an outlay of Rs. 2·94 lakhs incurred so far and a projected irrigable area of 3,128 acres, which have been completed in the First Five Year Plan. Two minor irrigation schemes completed in the First Plan, irrigating more than 250 acres, are as under :—

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Expenditure incurred.	Area irrigable.
1	2	3	4
		Rs.	Acres.
1	Bandhara at Nimb, taluka Satara ..	4,810	300
2	Bandhara at Jamb, taluka Wai ..	5,260	300
		10,070	600

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Minor Irrigation.

Eight minor works with an outlay of Rs. 29·99 lakhs and a projected irrigable area of 5,389 acres, have been completed in the First Five Year Plan in the district. The important schemes are as under :—

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Expenditure incurred in lakhs. of Rs.	Area Irrigable in acres.
1	2	3	4
1	Construction of an earthen dam across Banganga river near Kuransali road, Taluka Phaltan.	12·58	2560
2	Constructing irrigation tank ..	11·83	1600

About 22 minor irrigation schemes, with an estimated cost of Rs. 31·28 lakhs and a projected irrigable area of 7,974 acres, have been spread over the Third Five-Year Plan. The important schemes are as under :—

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Estimated Cost (in lakhs)	Area irrigable on completion.
1	2	3	4
		Rs.	Acres.
1	Constructing a Percolation Tank at Tambve, Taluka Phaltan.	10·41	1660
2	Bandhara at Morna River near Dhavane .	11·92	3640
3	Percolation Tank at Dhumaldara at Dhumalwadi	4·90	450

Water Supply and Drainage Schemes.

The main functions of the Public Health Organisation of the Department are as under :—

(i) Execution of Government and municipal water supply and drainage schemes.

(ii) Supervision of water supply and drainage schemes executed by local bodies through their own agencies.

(iii) To give advice so far as water supply and drainage problems are concerned to other departments of Government, in connection with schemes sponsored by them.

(iv) Maintain large number of water works in the State either owned by Government or owned by local bodies but entrusted to Government for running, the local bodies bearing the cost.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Water Supply and Drainage Schemes.

In the district, the following towns are provided with protected piped water supply :—

1. Satara City .. Satara City Water Works is owned and managed by the Municipality.

2. Satara Suburbs .. Satara Camp Water Works is owned and managed by Government.

3. Phaltan .. Owned and managed by the Municipality.

4. Karad .. Karad Head Works and Purification Works are owned and managed by Government. Distribution system is owned and managed by Karad Municipality.

5. Aundh .. Water Works are owned and managed by Government.

Following are the Government water supply and drainage schemes in progress in the district :—

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Estimated Cost. (in lakhs of Rs.)	
1	Improvement to Karad Water Works.	4·47	Works practically completed except few minor items.
2	Mahabaleshwar Water Supply Scheme (Head Works.)	9·28	Stage I practically complete except few items.
3	Panchgani Water Supply Scheme.	31·55	Scheme is recently sanctioned.

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURE.

Organisation.

THE CHARGE OF THE AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES OF THE SATARA DISTRICT rests with the District Agricultural Officer (Maharashtra Agricultural Service, Class II). He works directly under the supervision of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Poona Division, Poona, who is in charge of the six districts of the State. The Superintending Agricultural Officer is working under the direct control of the Director of Agriculture, who is assisted by four Joint Directors, one for establishment, second for extension, third for agricultural engineering and the fourth for research and education. The Superintending Agricultural Officer is the administrative head of the Division, who controls the activities of the District Agricultural Officer. But in addition to him the State level specialists guide the

District Agricultural Officer in specialised matters. They are as under :--

1. Agronomist.
2. Plant Pathologist.
3. Agricultural Chemist.
4. Agricultural Entomologist.
5. Soil Specialist.
6. Oil-seed Specialist.
7. Rice Specialist.
8. Millet Specialist.
9. Statistician.
10. Sugarcane Specialist, etc.

There are six branches in the office of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, and the heads of these sections, namely, establishment, accounts, technical, research and education, agricultural engineering, statistics, crop protection, crop competition, guide the District Agricultural Officer, in respective subjects. The Superintendent of establishment branch looks after the establishment matters, and the Assistant Accounts Officer looks after accounts matters. The Personal Assistant to the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Deputy Director of Agriculture (Engineering), Deputy Director of Agriculture (Research and Education), the Assistant Statistician, the Crop Protection Officer and the Crop Competition Officer, are responsible to guide the District Agricultural Officer in their respective spheres in agricultural extension work.

The District Agricultural Officer is assisted by the Assistant District Agricultural Officer, in office work and by two Agricultural Officers, appointed for Taluka Seed Multiplication Farm and *Kharif* and *Rabi* Campaigns, respectively. Similarly he is assisted by the District staff of one Agricultural Officer and one Agricultural Supervisor in charge of the paddy pilot scheme and the Division. respectively who are being assisted by the Agricultural Assistants under different schemes With the introduction of community development and pre-extension blocks in the district, the staff of the Agricultural Department is withdrawn from seven talukas and hence there are only eighteen Agricultural Assistants working for general agricultural extension work in the rest of the four talukas. Similarly the staff of twelve Agricultural Assistants is provided under the Paddy Pilot Scheme, who are working under one Agricultural Officer, Paddy Pilot Scheme. six Agricultural Assistants under Jowar Pilot Scheme and two Agricultural Assistants under Oil-seeds Scheme. Thus in all thirty-eight Agricultural Assistants are working in the district for agricultural extension work of general and special nature.

In the community development and pre-extension block the work of agricultural extension is entrusted with the Block Development Officer who is being assisted by the Extension Officer (Agricultural) at block level and *Gramsevaks* at village level. There are in all

CHAPTER 13.
—
Other Departments.
AGRICULTURE.
Organisation.

eight blocks of community development pattern and two pre-extension blocks sanctioned in seven talukas and ten extension officers (Agricultural) guide the *Gramsevaks* whose number is about ninety. In community development and pre-extension areas the *Gramsevaks* are expected to devote mainly to the agricultural extension work. They work under the Block Development Officers and the District Agricultural Officer. In other areas the Agricultural Assistants carry out agricultural extension work under the supervision of the Agricultural Supervisors.

Soil Conservation.

The work of soil conservation is undertaken in the district, since 1st September 1955 and the items like contour bunding, strip cropping, dry farming, etc., are undertaken. Five Agricultural Supervisors and twenty-six Agricultural Assistants assist the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer in contour bunding work.

In the district, whole of Man taluka, eastern parts of Khandala and Khatav talukas and southern part of Phaltan taluka which receive north-eastern rains are partially scarcity stricken areas where soil conservation measures need to be taken. The contour bunding and dry farming work is undertaken in Man and Khatav talukas to start with and will be extended to Khandala peta. The work of contour bunding is so far done in respect of 29,528 acres of land under Land Improvement Act, 1942.

The work of carrying out the dry farming plots is also undertaken by the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, who is assisted by fourteen Agricultural Assistants. The scheme started in the year 1958 and upto 1960-61, 1,197 dry farming plots have been taken in 207 villages of the district.

Mechanical cultivation.

A unit of four bulldozers was provided for the district for levelling of lands. The unit works under the Sub-Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, Satara. The bulldozing work is generally undertaken in compact blocks with 500 hours of work in each block. The machine works for ten hours a day. The target for each machine for the year is fixed at 750 hours and the machines usually work for 5-6 months only from January to June, after the *kharif* crops are harvested and the lands are ready for work. The work done by the unit so far is 11,433 hours.

THE ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.
Functions.

THE MAIN FUNCTIONS OF THE ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT are treatment of sick animals, control of various live-stock diseases and improvement of live-stock in the State. The department also conducts the work of control and eradication of ticks. It also advises people in the hygienic methods of animal management and insists upon improving the breed of live-stock for the preservation of animal wealth of the country, by the method of artificial insemination, etc.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY.

Veterinary Activities.

The veterinary activities in Satara district are controlled by the Divisonal Veterinary Officer, now designated as District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara Division, Satara, who is in-charge of three districts at present, *viz.*, Satara, Sangli and Sholapur. He is an officer of Class II rank in the Maharashtra Veterinary Service and is directly responsible and subordinate to the Director of Animal Husbandry, Maharashtra State, Poona.

Veterinary Dispensaries.

In the Satara district, there are eleven veterinary dispensaries located at Satara, Nagthana, Patan, Rahimatpur, Medha, Phaltan, Vaduj, Mhaswad, Lonand, Karad and Wai.

Of these, the Nagthana dispensary is run by Government and the rest are maintained by the District Local Board, Satara.

The veterinary officers in charge of the veterinary dispensaries, except the dispensary at Lonand, are Government officers of Class III in Maharashtra Veterinary Service. The veterinary dispensary at Lonand is a branch veterinary dispensary and is in charge of a stockman. The stockmen attached to other veterinary dispensaries carry out vaccinations and castrations. The veterinary officers in charge of the veterinary dispensaries visit the centres coming under their jurisdiction for treatment of animals.

In areas taken up for National Extension Scheme, and Block Department activities, stockmen are placed at the veterinary aid centres. Under this scheme, two veterinary aid centres are functioning in Patan taluka, four in Karad taluka, four in Satara taluka and two in Wai taluka. These centres are supervised by veterinary officers in charge of the main veterinary dispensaries in the respective areas.

Diseases, Inoculations and Vaccinations.

In 1957-58, 31,458 animals were treated for contagious and non-contagious diseases and 3,565 castrations were performed at the veterinary dispensaries in the district. In the same year the staff treated 20,924 animals and performed 1,002 castrations in the villages while on tour.

The following are the statistics of out-breaks of main contagious diseases and the vaccinations carried out during the year 1957-58 :—

Serial No.	Name of the Disease.	Number of out-breaks reported.	Number of vaccinations carried out.
1	Haemorrhagic Septicaemia.	58	18,949
2	Black Quarter ..	171	44,784
3	*Ranikhet*	33	23,678

During 1957-58, 17,579 animals were sprayed with Gammexane powder by the field-staff for the eradication of ticks.

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments.

There is an artificial insemination sub-centre at Phaltan and at *Karad. In all 448 inseminations were performed at the Phaltan* sub-centre in 1957-58.

FOREST. Organisation.

THE FOREST DEPARTMENT.

THE HEAD OF THE FOREST DEPARTMENT IN THE STATE is the Chief Conservator of Forests, whose headquarters are at Poona. For administrative purposes, the whole State is divided into six circles as shown below :—

Name of Circle.			Headquarters.
1. Nasik Circle	..	..	Nasik.
2. Poona Circle	..	..	Poona.
3. Nagpur Circle	..	..	Nagpur.
4. Amravati Circle	..	..	Amravati.
5. Chanda Circle	..	..	Nagpur.
6. Bombay Circle	..	..	Thana.

At the Headquarters of each Circle is a Conservator of Forests.

The Conservators have under them Divisional Forest Officers and Sub-Divisional Forest Officers, to look after the administration of the Divisions and independent Sub-Divisions, respectively. The Divisional Forest Officers belong to Maharashtra Forest Service, Class I and the Sub-Divisional Forest Officers to Maharashtra Forest Service, Class II. The Divisions in some cases are divided into Sub-Divisions, which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Forest Officers. The Divisions or Sub-Divisions as the case may be, are divided into small executive parts called "Ranges" and each Range is managed by a Range Forest Officer, under the control of the Divisional Forest Officer or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, as the case may be. The Range Forest Officer is a non-gazetted subordinate officer (Class III) who is usually trained at one of the forest colleges of India, i.e., those at Dehradun and Coimbatore. Each Range is sub-divided into "Rounds" and each "Round" is managed by a Round Officer or a Forester who is usually trained at one of the Forest Classes in the State. Finally each Round is sub-divided into "Beats" and each Beat is in-charge of a "Beat Guard".

The Satara Forest Division, falling under the Poona Circle, is held by the Divisional Forest Officer, Satara. Under him there are five Range Forest Officers and three independent Round Officers (under the direct control of the Divisional Forest Officer), one Range Forest Officer for Malshiras Afforestation Scheme, twenty Round Officers and 105 Beat Guards. Of these five Range Forest Officers, seventeen Round Forest Officers and seventy-seven Beat Guards are

stationed in the Satara district. The following are the ranges and independent rounds in the district.

CHAPTER 18.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

Organisation.

Name of Range or Independent Round.	Headquarters.	District in which it falls.
(1) Satara Range ..	Satara ..	Satara.
(2) Karad Range ..	Karad ..	Satara and Sangli.
(3) Patan Range ..	Patan ..	Satara.
(4) Dhebewadi Range ..	Dhebewadi ..	Satara and Sangli.
(5) Mahabaleshwar Range.	Mahabaleshwar	Satara.
(6) Phaltan Round ..	Phaltan ..	Satara.

Forest Zones.

The Satara Forest Division spreads over the three districts of Satara, Sangli and Sholapur. The details of the forest areas from the Satara district are given below :—

Area in charge of	Reserved Forests (in square miles.)	Protected Forests (in square miles.)	Leased Forests (in square miles.)
Forest Department ..	425·83	21·75	24·30
Revenue Department ..	108·19	....	....

Most of the forests in the district lie in a belt along the main range of the Sahyadris, and the rest are spread in patches throughout the district. Most of the forests are State owned and the rest are possessed by *malkidars* and *inamdars*.

The type of vegetation is mainly governed by the amount of rainfall in a particular locality. The rainfall varies considerably as the Division is spread over three districts, *viz.*, Satara, Sangli and Sholapur. Akkalkot taluka in Sholapur district receives an average rainfall of 30″ during a year whereas Phaltan and Aundh in Satara district receive 17″ rainfall on an average during a year. The rest of the Division is broadly divided into three zones, *viz.*, (1) Eastern Zone—In this zone the average rainfall during a year is 23·33″, (2) Central Zone—This zone receives an average annual rainfall of 96·20″ and (3) Western Zone—In this zone the average rainfall during a year is very high, generally over 250″. Thus it is seen that the rainfall gradually increases as we go to the West. Similarly, there are four very distinct types of forests met with on going from West to East. On the Sahyadri Ghats and their slopes, which are subjected to heavy precipitation, the evergreen forests are met with. This evergreen zone perceptibly merges into a zone of wet mixed deciduous forests where teak is entirely absent but somewhat evergreen species, e.g. *Terminalia tomentosa*, *Dalbergia latifolia* are in marked

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. FOREST. Forest Zones.

predominance. This zone in its turn merges into the dry mixed deciduous type where teak is plentiful and grows in association with other typically deciduous species like *Anogeissus latifolia, Odina wodier, Schleichera trijuga*. This type finally merges into a 'Savannah' type where the tree-growth is almost entirely absent due to deficient rainfall, poor soil and general deterioration caused by heavy incidence of grazing and ruthless cutting practised by the villagers before forest conservancy put a check to it.

(A) *Evergreen Forests (Western Zone)*.—The evergreen forests are confined to the Sahyadrian Range where rainfall is excessive (72" to 252") and the soil is lateritic. The common stunted type of evergreen forests consist of *Syzygium cumini, Actinodaphne-hookeri, Glochidion lanceolarium, Memecylon edule, Terminalia-chebula, Couthium-didymum*, etc. A taller type of forest which is definitely a further advance towards the climax contains much of *Memecylon edule, Sidroxylon-tomentosum, Symplocos-beddomei, Olea-dioica* with other evergreen species. A still better type of forest approaching nearly climax contains much of *Litsea-stocksii* and *zeylanica*, but *Actinodaphne-hookeri* predominates. Almost climax type of thick evergreen forests contain the important species of *Saccopetalum-tomentosum. Sterculia-guttata. Machilus-glaucescens. Olea-dioica Actinodaphne-hookeri* and *Syzygium cumini*.

(B) *Dry mixed deciduous forests (Eastern and Central Zones)*.—The forests vary in quality from straight and well grown teak forming a high forest of fair quality to a retrograde scrub forest which is fairly common in the eastern talukas particularly in Khandala peta. The latter is not a scrub climax due to climax limitations but a very debased form of dry mixed deciduous forest. In inferior areas teak is found where there is greater depth of soil and where land is more fertile. The other species consist of *Boswellia-serrata, Anogeissus-latifolia, Odina-wodier, Schleichera-trijuga, Gymnosporia-montana, Osyris-arborea*. In poorer quality areas sandalwood comes under the cover of bushes. In good quality areas one finds well grown teak in association with *Anogeissus-latifolia, Terminalia-tomentosa, Butea-frondosa, Schleichera-trijuga, Grewia-tillafolia, Cassia-fistula, Eloeodendron-glaucum, Albizzia-lebbek, Zizyphus-xylopyra*.

(C) *Wet mixed deciduous forests*.—Throughout the Division there is a very clearly marked line between the evergreen forests in the zone of excessive rainfall generally above 100", and the dry mixed deciduous forests in the Eastern Zone with a rainfall generally below 60". The wet mixed deciduous forests are, therefore, generally met with on the slopes of Sahyadri Hills where rainfall is more than 60". At first on the lower slopes there is a change in some species, the conspicuous being the disappearance of teak. *Adina cordifolia* and *Dalbergia latifolia* increase while *Terminalia tomentosa, Terminalia-belerica, Diospyros embryopteris* and *Garuga pinnata* assume a rather more evergreen appearance. The other species commonly met with are *Flacourtia-Sepiaria, Pterocarpus-marsupium, Ficus*, spp. and *Bridelia retusa*. The shrubs met with are *Carissa carandas, Zizyphus rugona, Woodfordia Floribunda, Vitex negundo* etc.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

Forest Zones.

The Revenue and Forest departments are closely interconnected in their work at a number of points. Afforestation and disafforestation are practically joint functions of the Revenue and Forest departments, since public rights in the land proposed for afforestation have to be settled by the Revenue department. Working Plans (described later) for the management and development of forests are prepared solely by the Forest department, but in so far as the prescriptions of Working Plan affect local supply and the rights and privileges of the inhabitants of the district, the approval of the Collector concerned has to be obtained before it is submitted to the Government by the Chief Conservator of Forests, for sanction.

Divisional Forest Officer.

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the exploitation and regeneration of the forests according to sanctioned Working Plans and other orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts, supplies material to departments and the public, realises revenue and controls expenditure under instructions from the Conservator of Forests. He deals finally with forest offence cases, having power to compound the same. In short, he is responsible for forest administration and management in all matters relating to technical forest operations.

Sub-Divisional Forest Officer.

The duties of the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer in charge of an independent Sub-Division are exactly the same as those of the Divisional Forest Officer, while the Assistant Conservator or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer attached to a Division assists the Divisional Forest Officer in the work of inspection and supervision of various kinds of silvicultural works requiring technical knowledge, besides attending to other duties entrusted by the Divisional Forest Officer. At present there is no Sub-Divisional Forest Officer under the Divisional Forest Officer, Satara.

Range Forest Officer.

The Range Forest Officer is in executive charge of his Range. He is responsible for carrying out, with the help of the Round Officers and Beat Guards, and according to the orders of the Divisional Forest Officer or the Assistant Conservator of Forests or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer, all the work in his charge, such as the marking, reservation, girdling and felling of trees, the transport of timber, fuel etc. to the sale depots, sowing, planting, tending and other silvicultural operations, construction of roads, buildings and wells according to sanctioned plans and estimates, protection of forests and investigation of forest offences, supervision on removal of forest produce by purchasers and by holders of rights and privileges and issue of forest transit passes and permits.

The Forester's duties include protection of forests, detection and investigation of forest offences, issue of forest transit passes and permits, collection of revenue from permits and compensation in offences, preservation of standards (*i.e.* the number and kind of trees prescribed for preservation and the manner of cutting etc.) in coupes given out to contractors for cutting, inspection and protection of forests, and guidance and supervision of forest guards.

CHAPTER 13.
—
Other Departments.
FOREST.
Classification of Forests.

The Forest Guard's functions are to patrol and protect all forests in his Beat, repair and maintain forest boundary marks, execute silvicultural works, *viz.* sowing, planting and creeper-cutting and detect forest offences.

Under the Indian Forest Act (XVI of 1927), forests are divided into two categories, *viz.* reserved and protected forests. Before forests are classified they have to be subjected to regular settlement by a Forest Settlement Officer, who enquires into the existence of all public and private rights. In case of reserved forests, the existing rights are either settled, transferred or commuted. In the case of protected forests, the rights are clearly recorded and regulated. The reserved forests of the Satara district coming under the Satara Forest Division measure 425·83 sq. miles and these are in charge of the Forest department. Further, 108·19 sq. miles are in charge of the Revenue department. The protected forests in the district under the Forest department are 21·75 sq. miles.

Working Plans.

In addition to the above there are two different kinds of leased forests in this Division, *viz.* (*a*) Forests entrusted by the owner to the care of the Forest department for such period and on such terms as are mutually agreed upon, and (*b*) Such forests as Government have acquired either on perpetual tenureship or for such period as Government may be pleased to retain them on certain specific terms under agreement. The total leased forests in the Division are 24·86 sq. miles of which 24·30 sq. miles are in Satara district. All reserved forests and leased forests in charge of the Forest department are organised and managed according to the prescription of the Working Plans. A Working Plan is a document which lays down the details of scientific management of a forest for a prescribed number of years. Before a Working Plan is drawn up a survey is made of the growing stock, at times by actual enumeration and an analysis is made of the stems of standing trees to determine the rate of growth of the principal species with special reference to the soil and the climatic conditions of each locality. On the basis of the data thus collected, plans are drawn up for felling, regenerating, silvicultural treatment and protection of forests with provision for the due exercise of the rights and privileges of the people. including grazing of cattle. The preparation of the Working Plans for this Division is done by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Poona and Amravati Circles, Poona, who is under the Conservator of Forests, Poona Circle, Poona.

Functions of the Department.

The main functions of the Forest department are exploitation. regeneration, and protection of forests according to the sanctioned Working Plans and other orders and the conduct of sales, entering into contracts and supply of material to Government departments and the public. In addition a number of schemes under the Second Five Year Plan are executed by this department in this Division. The salient aspects of the functions are described below:—

(1) *Regeneration and maintenance.*—As the area is cut and tree growth removed, it is regenerated with fresh crop. Great care and precaution are taken against damages by man, animals, insects and

Functions of the Department.

other pests and against adverse climatic influences, and other inanimate agencies. Damage by man is caused by (1) lighting of fires, (2) encroachments, (3) faulty exploitation methods, including illicit cuttings, and (4) misuse of forest rights and privileges. Though occasionally forest fires may originate from natural causes, in the vast majority of cases they are due to human action, either within or without the forests. To prevent damage by fire, the whole-hearted support and co-operation of the public is required. This co-operation is secured through the authority and influence of the village headman. Precautionary measures like fire-tracing and early burning are also taken by the department in good time. Clearing of shrubby growth along roads and paths is also done to avert any fire spreading in the forest. Rigid patrolling and vigilant watch against unauthorised felling and removal of forest produce by the villagers is resorted to. Offenders in respect of unauthorised grazing and other damage from cattle are dealt with under the Forest Act and other laws.

(2) *System of management.*—The area under the management of the department in the district is worked under various silvicultural systems, prescribed in the current Working Plan. Regeneration work is carried out in two ways. *viz.* (1) mainly by natural means (coppice) and (2) mainly by artificial means. Under the coppice system, trees are allowed to be cut at ground level or near it, and regeneration takes place naturally by shoots from the stump. Under the artificial system, when trees are felled, regeneration is effected by artificial methods, such as sowing, transplanting of root and shoot cuttings called stumps, in regularly spaced lines. Cleaning, thinning and other cultural operations are also undertaken by the department in the coupes as detailed below.—

Name of working Circle.	Cleanings.		Thinnings.		
	1st	2nd.	1st	2nd	3rd.
Fuel Working Circle..	2nd year	4th year ..	10th year.	20th year	..
Teak Timber Working Circle.	5th year	....	16th year.	36th year	56th year.
			Cultural Operations.		
			1st	2nd	
Main Working Circle	6th year	....	6th year	21st year	

With a view to demonstrate to the public how the barren areas could be successfully reclothed with tree species, afforestation schemes are also undertaken.

Grants of bare or exploited areas in reserved forests are made on 'agri-silvi' basis on temporary tenure. Under this system villagers

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. FOREST. Functions of the Department.

are encouraged to produce food crops along with plantation of tree species. In this district this system of grant of forest land has proved to be unsuccessful because the lessee does not observe the silvi part of the operation. Agri-silvi cultivation and pure cultivation in forest lands is not much encouraged now-a-days, as such cultivation leads to disafforestation of lands, and consequently, the total forest area is reduced. Old grants are however, continued.

(3) *Exploitation*.—Forest products of this Division are divided into two main classes, *i.e.* major and minor. The chief major forest products are timber, firewood, and charcoal. Almost all the major forest produce is consumed in the Satara Forest Division only and practically no major forest produce is exported. The chief minor forest products are grass, *Hirda*, *Shikekai*, and *Apta* and *Tembhurni* leaves.

The major forest produce is derived out of the coupes due for working. These are advertised for sale and are sold by tenders or by public auction.

With a view to providing firewood and charcoal to the residents of the hill stations at Mahabaleshwar and Panchgani at reasonable prices, two firewood and charcoal depots at these two hill stations are run by this department. The average consumption of charcoal and firewood at these two depots is as under :—

	Charcoal	Firewood.
Malcolmpeth Depot	.. 25 Tons	.. 100 stacks of 400 Cft.
Panchgani Depot	.. 100 Tons	.. 400 stacks of 400 Cft.

Coupes in these felling series of the Fuel Working which have been set apart for the supply of charcoal and firewood to the depots are worked departmentally.

The minor forest products are sold by tenders or auction. Some minor forest produce is also sold on permits.

In 1958-59, the total income of the Forest Division accruing from all sources was Rs. 1,97,769 and the total expenditure was Rs. 4,82,229. The expenditure was more than income as the total expenditure was inclusive of the expenditure on various development schemes under Second Five Year Plan.

Forest Roads

Forest Roads.—The total length of forest roads in the Division is two miles and seven furlongs. There are only two forest roads in the Division and both of them are non-metal roads.

Relations with People.

Relations with people.—The recognised forest rights, privileges and concessions given to the people in Satara district are embodied in the Bombay Forest Manual, Vol. III. In the district the people enjoy the special privileges of removal of *karvi* for agricultural purposes, and removal of Mhowra fruits for their use, in addition to the general privileges of taking water from the forest, way to water in forest,

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FOREST.

Relations with People.

free grazing in open forests, removal of stones and earth from approved places for domestic and agricultural use, etc. In the application of forest rights and privileges and in the work of forest protection and exploitation the officials of the Forest department come into direct contact with the people.

Vana Mahotsava.

Vana Mahotsava.—The Government of India inaugurated in 1950 an important programme called '*Vana Mahotsava*' to be celebrated in the first week of July every year. However, week of celebration of *Vana Mahotsava* is different for each district and is fixed after taking into consideration the probable period of starting of the rains. The object of *Vana Mahotsava* is to encourage the planting of as many trees as possible in suitable localities. In choosing the trees, preference is given to quick-growing species of economic value such as *babul, bamboo,* fruit trees, shade trees, ornamental trees and fodder trees. Free supply of seedlings is made to the public and to other departments for planting during annual *Vana Mahotsava* and nurseries for the purpose are raised at Godoli in Satara Range, Varade in Karad Range, Gureghar in Mahabaleshwar Range, Bhosgaon in Dhebewadi Range and Vihe in Patan Range and other suitable places in the district. The supply of seedlings to public is made through the District Development Board which distributes seedlings to the people of various talukas. The after-care of the young plants is undertaken by the individuals or by the public bodies to whom seedlings are supplied. Cultivators desirous of planting trees in the Forest department area or on road-side areas belonging to the Public Works department are given *sanads* enabling them to take the fruits of the trees planted by them. Government waste lands and forest lands are made available whenever possible for planting mango groves, to be owned commonly by the villagers and financial assistance at the rate of Re. 1 per tree per year for a period of five years is given in cases of groves consisting of 100 or more mango trees.

Second Five Year Plan Schemes.

(1) *Scheme for improvement of denuded areas in Satara Range.*—The scheme aims at afforestation in an area of 851 acres and 16 gunthas and improvement of the already afforested area of 351 acres and 34 gunthas at an estimated cost of Rs. 61,243. Plantation works in an area of 558 acres and 16 gunthas were carried out during the first three years of the Second Five Year Plan period. The expenditure incurred so far is Rs. 30,556·87. During the period 1959-61 an area of 720 acres will be afforested at an estimated cost of Rs. 35,792 in addition to the maintenance of already afforested areas. The scheme is progressing satisfactorily.

(2) *Kaju Plantation Scheme.*—*Kaju* is a dollar earning commodity. It is also a very hardy species, not requiring exacting conditions for its growth. Therefore, this scheme is introduced with a view to clothe the inferior land with species of economic value. The scheme aims

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FOREST.
Second Five Year Plan Schemes.

at plantation of cashewnut in an area of 550 acres at an estimated cost of Rs. 48,448·64. During the year 1958-59 some pre-monsoon works were carried out in an area of about 153 acres at a cost of Rs. 3,609·89. In the year 1959-60, all 550 acres were proposed to be planted after completing the pre-monsoon works in the remaining area at a cost of Rs. 32,443. The plantation raised will be maintained in 1960-61 at an estimated cost of Rs. 9,153·75.

(3) *Scheme for raising of live-hedge of agave.*—The scheme is introduced with a view to provide an effective fence to demarcate forest boundaries, to check up the encroachments over the forest areas and to protect the plantations from stray cattle. The scheme aims at raising of *agave* hedge along the periphery of 62½ miles. So far, the number of miles fenced is 32½ at a cost of Rs. 5,022·94. It was proposed to fence a length of 15 miles in 1959-60 at a cost of Rs. 3,000 and another 15 miles at the same cost in 1960-61.

(4) *Establishment of wet nurseries.*—The scheme is introduced with a view to supply seedlings and stumps for the annual *Vana Mahotsava.* Five nurseries have therefore been started in the Second Five Year Plan period to achieve the aim. Till 1959, an expenditure of Rs. 17,738·39 has been incurred. During the period 1959-61 all these nurseries will be maintained at an estimated cost of Rs. 9,637·92.

(5) *Scheme for raising of special teak plantation.*—The scheme is introduced with a view to increase the area under teak especially in Patan taluka. The scheme aims at plantation of teak over 50 acres at an estimated cost of Rs. 6,198. Plantation work in an area of 10 acres has so far been carried out at a cost of Rs. 1,254·41. The remaining area of 40 acres will be planted during 1959-61 at an estimated cost of Rs. 5,158.

(6) *Scheme for afforestation and rehabilitation of pasture lands.*—The scheme is introduced with a view to wire fence the selected *kurans* in order to protect them from continuous grazing. With the protection afforded, it is expected that the *kurans* will be improved to a considerable extent. Till 1959 the expenditure incurred on the scheme was Rs. 10,805·03. An expenditure of Rs 11,343 is estimated during 1959-60.

(7) *Scheme for establishment of a park at Mahabaleshwar.*—Mahabaleshwar is one of the most fascinating hill stations of the Maharashtra State and is visited by a large number of tourists and distinguished persons from all over the country. It also attracts school children and college students during their academic and pleasure excursions. Since the local flora is limited to a few kinds of trees like *Jamun, Hirda, Pisa, Anjani,* etc. there has been a long-felt need to introduce various suitable ornamental, economic and exotic species both to break the monotony of the indigenous vegetation and

also to increase the economic potential of these forests. This needed research to find out the most suitable species for the characteristic shallow and lateritic soil and the high rainfall of the plateau. Consequently, experimental plantation of various non-indigenous species were undertaken by the Forest Department since 1943. In order to combine this aesthetic and economic development affording the enjoyment and education of the public, the idea to establish a Forest Park at Mahabaleshwar was first conceived in 1955. Accordingly, a scheme costing Rs. 45,060 and spread over a period of five years was drawn up in June, 1956 under the Second Five Year Plan, and the Pratapsinh Park was opened in March, 1957. The park has become an object of popular attraction. The park has a number of interesting items, the children's corner being one of them. Till 1959, the expenditure incurred on the Park was Rs. 72,869·76. During the period 1959-61 the expected expenditure was Rs. 1,05,942 bringing the plan expenditure to Rs. 1,78,811·76 The Scheme for the establishment of the Park has become a great success and a visit to the Park is a pleasure for the visitors to this beautiful hill station.

(8) *Construction of Herbarium-cum-Reading Room in Park at Mahabaleshwar.*—This Scheme is introduced to increase the utility of the Park so that the adults and children could be further induced to know more about the forests, the trees, shrubs and vegetation in general by a visit to the herbarium which is intended to be furnished with specimens of all important forest trees, shrubs and herbs found in Maharashtra State. The expenditure so far incurred on the construction of the herbarium hall and providing literature is Rs. 26,834·94. During the period 1959-61 an expenditure of Rs. 34,000 will be incurred on furnishing the herbarium with interesting items.

(9) *Village Forest Panchayat Scheme.*—Owing to the deterioration of forests and their mal-distribution the villagers are finding it difficult to get the facilities of grazing, fodder and fuel etc. It is, therefore, proposed to get the deteriorated treeless tracts improved by the efforts of the villagers. Villagers are being advised very often and more so at the time of the annual *Vana Mahotsava* to abstain from burning cow-dung as fuel which is to be used for manuring agricultural fields. They are also asked to take more care about their cattle wealth which is the backbone of the agricultural industry in India. To achieve this, Maharashtra Government have included the improvement of grazing land and development of woodlands in the list of the local development works and the schemes relating to the improvement of grazing lands and wood lands are included under the Community Development programme.

The scheme has been introduced to meet the vital necessity of the villagers in respect of grazing, fodder and fuel as far as possible. The scheme is called 'Creation of wood lands and improvement of

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. FOREST. Second Five Year Plan Schemes.

grass lands'. In Satara district the following villages have taken up this work on a very modest scale :—

Name of C. D. Block.	Name of village.	Area in acres.
Karad ..	(1) Kiwal	10 — 00
	(2) Wagheri	5 — 00
	(3) Masur	10 — 00
	(4) Tulsan . ..	10 — 00
	(5) Kole	10 — 00
		45 — 00
Satara	(1) Nagthana	8 — 00
	(2) Nagewadi	6 — 26
		14 — 26

The works were carried out entirely by the villagers themselves under the technical advice and guidance of the Forest department. Special staff was appointed by the department for this purpose.

Koyna Project.

Koyna Project.—The Forest Department is intimately connected with the Koyna Project in respect of the following :—

(1) Clearance of tree-growth from the submergible area,

(2) Grant of forest land for rehabilitation to the affected people.

Clearance of tree growth of the submergible area is done by the Forest Department with the help of the available supply of labour. Since the submergible tree growth is difficult of access and not valuable, it is not possible to work the area at a profit. The project authorities have agreed to bear the loss involved in the clearance.

As regards the rehabilitation, the affected people choose a particular land for resettlement. The Rehabilitation Officer, Koyna, after consultation with Land Utilisation Officer regarding its suitability for cultivation refers the case to the Forest department which obtains Government sanction for disafforestation of the forest land and the land is cleared thereafter.

THE DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES.

INDUSTRIES. Organisation

THE WORK OF THE DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES is mainly confined to the development and progress of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in the State.

The Officer directly in charge of cottage, small-scale and large-scale industries in Satara district is the Deputy Director of Industries (Class I State Service), who has his headquarters at Poona, and whose jurisdiction also extends to the districts of Poona, Ahmadnagar, Sangli,

Kolhapur, Sholapur and Osmanabad. He works directly under the Additional Industries Commissioner, Maharashtra State so far as small-scale and cottage industries are concerned and under the Director of Industries, Maharashtra State, Bombay, so far as large-scale industries are concerned. He is also in charge of work connected with the administration of the Bombay Weights and Measures Act (XV of 1932), the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act (LXIX of 1958), and the Hyderabad Weights and Measures Act, 1356 Fasli, and the respective Rules thereunder. Under these three Acts, his functions relate to the enforcement of the Weights and Measures Act, collection of revenue in the form of fees for verification and/or reverification and stamping of weights and measures, etc. He is authorised to grant and/or renew registration under the Bombay Weights and Measures Act, 1932, and licences under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 to repairers of and/or dealers in weights and measures, weighing and/or measuring instruments etc. to applicants complying with the prescribed requirements under intimation to the Directorate of Industries. He is also designated as Deputy Controller of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958. He is required to render all possible assistance to the occupiers of factories with a view to obtaining statistical returns, complete in all respects, in good time. He also collects industrial and commercial information on a voluntary basis as and when required either by the State or by the Union Government. He undertakes investigations in connection with cases of trade disputes with parties in the district referred to by Indian embassies abroad or foreign embassies in India. Cases of breaches of the provisions of the Trade and Marks Act, 1958 or Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper Use) Act (XII of 1950), are also investigated by him. In addition, he is empowered to sanction loans under the State Aid to Industries Rules to the limit of Rs. 1,000 in each case, to applicants in his jurisdiction, subject to the condition that the total amount sanctioned by him does not exceed Rs. 5,000 in any one year. His miscellaneous duties extend to investigation of applications (for industrial purposes) from parties in his area for a licence under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951; for requirements of power, water, land acquisition, erection of buildings, for essentiality certificate in connection with the import and for applications for raw materials and machinery, allotment of controlled materials such as iron and steel, cement, etc. and exports.

The Deputy Director of Industries is assisted in his work by an Industries Officer and other subordinate staff stationed at Poona. So far as Satara district is concerned he is assisted by an Industries Officer stationed at Satara and by three Junior Industries Inspectors and three Manual Assistants with their headquarters at Satara, Phaltan and Karad.

The duties assigned to the former Inspector of Weights and Measures under the Bombay Weights and Measures Act, 1932 and

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

the Rules thereunder are now carried out by the Industries Inspectors who are also assigned duties under the Hyderabad Weights and Measures Act and Rules and the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act and Rules wherever these Acts are in force. The main purpose of these Acts is to provide for the adoption and compulsory use of standard weights and measures in the State. No weight or measure or weighing or measuring instrument may be sold, delivered or used for trade, unless it has been verified or re-verified in the manner prescribed by the Rules made under these Acts and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. Fees are fixed for verification, stamping, etc. It is the duty of the Inspectors to carry out the verification and stamping and collect the fees.

Weights and Measures Act.

The Standards of Weight and Measures Act, 1956 has established in India the standard weights and measures based on the Metric System. The changeover to the Metric System will, however be gradual, spread over 10 years. The Government of Maharashtra have enacted the complementary legislation, *viz.*, Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958, and the Rules thereunder.

It was decided by the State Government that the provisions of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958 in so far as they relate to weights or measures should be introduced in a phased programme in specified areas of the State. So far as Satara district is concerned the exclusive use of Metric Weights for all transactions in trade and commerce has been made compulsory from October 1, 1961 in the Satara Municipal Area and in the rest of the district it came into effect along with all other areas of the State from April 1, 1962.

So far as measures of capacity in Metric units are concerned, the same have been introduced with effect from October 1, 1961 in municipal areas of Satara only with a transitional period of one year during which the use of old measures in seers and gallons will be permitted side by side with the measures in Metric units.

Collection of Statistics.

The Industries Inspectors have to carry out duties in connection with collection of statistics from scheduled industries coming under first schedule of the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 employing 10 to 49 workers. Government of India has delegated to them the powers for collecting quarterly production statistics from such units under Industrial Undertakings (Collection of Information and Statistics) Rule, 1959. The units are required to submit quarterly statistical returns in the prescribed *pro forma*. The Inspectors have to ensure that the factories concerned maintain proper accounts and registers and have to render assistance in completing the returns. They have also to attend to the work connected with the conduct of *ad hoc* surveys of various small-scale industries at the instance of the State Government and the Central Government. Besides, they have to carry out duties in connection with the registration of small-scale industrial undertakings in order to have a correct picture of various small-scale industries in the State.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

INDUSTRIES.

Loan Schemes.

On transfer of the activities of cottage industries to the Directorate of Industries with effect from December 1, 1960, the Deputy Director of Industries, Poona, has to look after the work of following loan schemes :—

(1) Grant of loans under State Aid to Industries Rules.

(2) Loans to backward class artisans.

(3) Loans to trained or *bona-fide* artisans.

(4) Loans to educated unemployed persons.

Training Schools and Production Centres.

In addition to the above loan schemes the following cottage industries training schools and production centres are working in Satara district which are looked after by the Deputy Director of Industries Poona :—

(1) Carpentry and Smithy School, Karad.

(2) Pit Tanning Centre, Satara.

(3) Retanning and Finishing Unit, Satara.

An Industrial estate is being established at Karad where 20 factory sheds have been constructed for locating small-scale industrial units.

DEPARTMENT OF COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES. Organisation.

SATARA OFFICE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES is under the administrative control of the Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Kolhapur, at the sub-divisional level. His next superior at the Divisional level is the Deputy Director of Cottage Industries and Deputy Registrar of Industrial Co-operatives, Poona Division, Poona. The Director of Cottage Industries and Additional Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Maharashtra State, Poona, is the head of the department.

The Assistant Director of Cottage Industries and Assistant Registrar for Industrial Co-operatives, Kolhapur, has general powers of supervision over :—

(1) demonstration parties and peripatetic schools,

(2) industrial co-operative societies, and

(3) survey work in connection with industrial co-operatives and village industries.

He has general control over the Government staff in the district pertaining to cottage industries and industrial co-operatives. He entertains and scrutinises applications for loans from individual artisans, educated unemployed, backward class persons and co-operative societies, and forwards them to the Deputy Director concerned or Director of Cottage Industries as the case may be. He also sees that agreements in connection with the loans sanctioned are properly executed, after which the loans are disbursed by him. He endeavours to introduce improved implements and improved methods of production in village and cottage industries and communicates to the Small

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES Organisation.

Industries Research Institute at Poona the problems requiring research in regard to such implements and methods. He has to maintain contact with associations of artisans or with individual artisans in the district who have distinguished themselves in their respective industries, make a continuous study of the needs of the different cottage and village industries and render help in the revival of the decaying and extinct industries, particularly through utilisation of locally available raw materials. It is partly his duty to prepare schemes for the development of cottage industries and industrial co-operatives.

Under the Assistant Registrar is the District Officer of Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, Satara. He attends to the organisation of industrial co-operatives and development and promotion of small-scale industries. He is expected to supervise the working of demonstration parties, production centres, training schools, etc. and is responsible for recommending loans and subsidies to industrial societies and for recovery of the stipulated instalments. The District Officer, Cottage Industries and Industrial Co-operatives, Satara, is assisted in his work by one Grade II and two Grade III Industrial Supervisors, one Handloom Supervisor, one Instructor in Cotton Weaving and one Jobber for powerloom scheme.

Industrial Co-operative Societies.

In 1959, the various types of industrial societies in the district were as under :—

1.	Weavers' societies	22
2.	Labour contract societies	14
3.	Tanners' and leather workers' societies	10
4.	Fibre workers' societies	11
5.	Oil *ghani* workers' societies	9
6.	Wool weavers' societies	7
7.	Forest labourers' societies	6
8.	Potters' societies	3
9.	Carpenters' and smiths' societies	2
10.	Women's societies	2
11.	Work-shop workers' societies . ..	2
12.	Printing Press workers' societies	1
13.	Soap Factory workers' societies	1
14.	District Industrial Association	1
15	Bee-keepers' societies	1
16.	Umbrella manufacturing workers' societies ..	1
		93

These Societies with a total membership of 5,576 in 1959 had the share capital of Rs. 1,73,664 and the total working capital of Rs. 5,02,443. During 1958-59 rebate on sale of handloom cloth was given to the weavers' societies to the extent of Rs. 20,992 and management grant of Rs. 6,518 has been granted to societies for dye house

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES.

and sale depots. In addition accessories worth Rs. 3,570 were granted to these societies. The powerloom scheme has also been introduced in the district at Phaltan and powerlooms have been already allotted and installed. Similarly it is proposed to introduce powerloom at Atit. The number of registered handlooms in the district was 2,057 in 1959.

Peripatetic Schools and Production Centres.

There are two production centres and two peripatetic schools in the district run by the department of Cottage Industries. A pit tanning centre has been started at Satara in March 1957 under the Second Five-Year Plan. The object of the centre is to introduce improved methods of tanning amongst the local tanners. The re-tanning and finishing centre at Satara, has a large scope for the development of the tanning industry because the local tanners of whom there is a large number, use old methods of tanning. Technical advice and practical demonstration is being given to the local tanners so that their old methods might be improved. A carpentry and smithy school has been started at Karad. Fifteen trainees have been admitted to the school, when its fresh term began in April, 1959. The term period extends over one year. After completion of the course, certificates are awarded to successful candidates by the Department. Trainees are paid a stipend at the rate of Rs. 25 per month. A leather work school has been started at Shirwal in Khandala peta since December 1958 when fifteen regular trainees were admitted. The duration of the term is of one year. The trainees are paid a stipend of Rs. 20 per month. Training in improved methods of leather work and use of improved tools and equipment is given.

Technical Experts and other Government help.

Technical experts in various industries attached to the office of the Director of Cottage Industries, Poona, give technical advice to the industrial co-operatives as well as production centres and peripatetic schools. Various methods of production, use of improved tools and equipment and various chemical processes are tried to minimise the cost of production. Government also helps in marketing the products of cottage industries through Government subsidies, sales depots and emporia and also through the mobile van placed at the disposal of Deputy Director, Cottage Industries, Poona. Till 1959 a sum of Rs. 63,200 was disbursed among eight weavers' co-operative societies in the district under the handloom development scheme and a sum of Rs. 99,087 has been advanced to fourteen societies other than the weavers' co-operative societies as direct departmental loans. Government loan through the department and through various schemes to help weavers' co-operative societies as well as other types of societies to meet their requirements of working capital is sanctioned in Satara as in other districts.

Loans to Individuals.

In cases where it is not possible to form a co-operative society of artisans or in cases where societies are not in a position to solve the problems of the individual artisans, loans to individuals for development of cottage industries are also granted by the Cottage Industries department. Till 1959, individual artisans engaged in various

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES. Loans to Individuals.

industries have been granted loans under various schemes as detailed below :—

Scheme.		No. of Artisans.	Loan.	Subsidy.
1. Backward Class Artisans	..	49	35,530·00	1,185·00
2. *Bona fide* Craftsmen ..	..	34	12,932·50	562·50
3. Educated Unemployed	..	17	18,412·50	2,162·50
4. State Aid to Industries Rules	..	9	18,700·00	*Nil.*
Total	..	109	94,575·00	3,910·00

Development Blocks.

There are four development blocks in the first stage at Satara, Patan, Wai and Khandala, one block in the second stage at Karad and two pre-extension blocks at Javli and Koregaon. All first stage blocks have been provided with an Extension Officer for Industries. There is no Extension Officer for Industries for II-Stage Block at Karad. Industrial activities in the Karad Block are looked after by the Extension Officer (Co-operatives), II-Stage Block, Karad.

Satara Block.

The Block started functioning during 1956. During the budget period peripatetic schools in hosiery, carpentry and smithy, tailoring and toys and doll-making for women were conducted out of the Block funds and 60 trainees received training in the abovementioned industries. Glue manufacturing was also taken up and 19 industrial co-operative societies were formed in the Block area.

Patan Block.

The Block was started on 1st November 1956. The activity in the Block area consisted in running peripatetic schools in tailoring for men. Short courses for three months for training in tailoring for *mahila mandals* were taken at Malharpeth, Patan, etc. in the Block area. Leather work school at Tarale and a carpentry and smithy school at Dhebewadi are also being conducted. Till 1959, 80 trainees have undergone training in various industrial activities in the peripatetic schools In 1959, there were twelve industrial co-operative societies in the Block area.

The Patan and Satara Block period expired on 1st November 1959 and the blocks have been converted into stage II Blocks. The activities which were undertaken in stage I period are continued with the available funds in Stage II.

Wai Block.

The block was started on 2nd October 1956 and the following activities have been taken up in the block area. About one hundred trainees were trained in various industries in the peripatetic schools conducted by the Block authorities. The various peripatetic schools were : dyeing and printing school, carpentry and smithy school, tailoring schools, schools for training in sheet metal training in fibre work and for training *mahila mandals* in soap-making at six places in the block area. In 1959, there were 12 industrial co-operative societies in the Block.

The Block was started on 1st April 1958. There is a tailoring class for *mahila mandals* each at Shirwal and at Lonand. One Departmental school in leather work is functioning in the block area. In 1959, there were five industrial co-operative societies in the block.

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES AND INDUSTRIAL CO-OPERATIVES. Khandala Block.

Karad Block.

The Block is a Stage II block, with a budget provision of Rs. 50,000 of which Rs. 10,000 as recurring and Rs. 40,000 as non-recurring. One departmental carpentry and smithy school is functioning at Karad. In 1959, there were twenty industrial co-operative societies in the block area.

Pre-extension Blocks.

A pre-extension service scheme has been recently applied to the Javli and Koregaon talukas in the district.

All the industrial activities in the development block areas are carried out with the help of the community development block staff irrespective of the block to which it is attached and in co-operation with all other Government departments in the district.

Other agencies.

The Khadi and Village Industries Board is functioning in the district with a staff of one District Organiser and one Oil *Ghani* Inspector stationed at Satara. The Village Industries Board undertakes the activities including (1) *vastra swavalamban* scheme; (2) production of *khadi;* (3) popularising *Amber Charakha*; (4) development of wool industry; (5) promoting silk industry; (6) neera and palm gur scheme and classes in neera and palm gur; (7) gur and Khandsari production, (8) scheme to help oil men's co-operative societies; (9) hand-pounding of rice; (10) extraction of fibres; (11) glue manufacturing and (12) potteries.

The bee-keeping scheme undertaken in Mahabaleshwar area and the Parli Valley and Koyna Valley by the Village Industries Board and the Khadi Commission has made considerable progress in the collection of honey. The Board runs a bee-keeping research centre and an emporium for selling honey at Mahabaleshwar.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT.

CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

THE CO-OPERATIVE DEPARTMENT IN THE SATARA DISTRICT is in the administrative charge of the District Deputy Registrar who is a Class I Gazetted Officer in the Maharashtra Co-operative Service. He is assisted by three Assistant Registrars who are Class II Gazetted Officers. The jurisdiction of the three Assistant Registrars is demarcated on territorial basis as indicated below :—

Assistant Registrar.	Jurisdiction.
Assistant Registrar, C. S. I ..	Karad, Patan and Koregaon Talukas.
Assistant Registrar, C. S. II ..	Phaltan, Khatav and Man Talukas and Khandala Peta.
Assistant Registrar C. S. III ..	Satara, Javli and Wai Talukas and Mahabaleshwar Peta.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

Organisation.

The three Assistant Registrars are responsible for all matters relating to co-operative societies including industrial co-operatives, regulated markets, money lending, and paddy blocks from their respective territorial charges. In the field, the District Deputy Registrar and the Assistant Registrars are assisted by two Co-operative Officers, four Assistant Co-operative Officers, four Industrial Supervisors and one Powerloom Jobber who are mainly responsible for organisation of co-operative societies, development of the co-operative movement, supervision over all types of co-operative societies in rural and semi-rural areas.

The co-ordination of the departmental activities at the district level is done by the District Deputy Registrar, who ensures the internal co-ordination of the field responsibilities which are performed by the Assistant Registrars, Co-operative Societies and Assistant Co-operative Officers, Industrial Supervisors etc. The office of the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara, consists of following staff :—

One Office Superintendent, four Head Clerks, eight Senior Clerks (including one Statistical Assistant), and ten Junior Clerks.

The Office of the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara, attends to day-to-day disposal of correspondence received in the name of the District Deputy Registrar under the overall control of the District Deputy Registrar and the Assistant Registrars.

Supervisory Staff.

The supervisory staff serves as the last link in the administrative machinery. Their main responsibility is confined to intensive supervision over the working of all agricultural credit, *Seva* and multi-purpose societies. They are expected to inspect every society under their charge at least once in three months. They are, in addition, required to assist the societies in the preparation of normal credit statements and assets registers and also in making arrangements for provision of crop finance. There are 26 Supervisors working in the district. They work as friends, philosophers and guides of the societies. The appointments of supervisors are made by the Divisional Joint Registrar of Co-operative Societies from among those who have undergone training at the Regional Co-operative Schools and have passed the prescribed examination. They are under the control and direction of the District Supervision Committee which functions under direct control of Provincial Board of Supervision.

The Committee consists of—

1. The District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Satara.

2. The Chairman of the Central Financing Agency *viz.* : The Satara District Central Co-operative Bank.

3. The Chairman of the District Co-operative Board.

4. One or two representatives of the Taluka Co-operative Supervising Unions in the district.

5. One representative of the Agricultural Non-Credit Societies in the district.

The Co-operative Officer is the Secretary of the Committee. The Committee recommends disciplinary action, whenever necessary against the Supervisors, scrutinise and check their tour programmes and diaries and take periodical reviews on the working of the supervising unions and the Supervisors.

Supervising Unions.

A Supervising Union is formed for nearly every taluka by societies registered in the area. All Agricultural Credit Societies, *Seva* Societies and Multi-purpose societies are eligible for membership of these unions. The main functions of the Supervising Unions are (i) to advise, guide, assist, rectify and control the constituent societies by efficient and regular supervision and (2) to provide a means of assessing the credit of each of its constituent societies and to make recommendations in this behalf to the financing agency. The Supervisors of the area act as Secretaries of Unions.

The subjoined table indicates the number of Taluka Supervising Unions in this district together with a total number of Agricultural Credit, *Seva* and Multipurpose Societies, affiliated to them.

Sr. No.	Name of the Supervising Union.	No. of societies affiliated.	Of which are Agricultural credit societies.
1	2	3	4
1	Satara Va Javli Co-operative Supervising Union Limited, Satara.	91	88
2	Wai Taluka, Wai	57	57
3	Karad Taluka	113	118
4	Patan Taluka	93	88
5	Khatav and Man Talukas .. .	89	87
6	Koregaon Taluka	80	80
7	Phaltan Taluka	67	67
8	Javli Taluka and Mahabaleshwar, Panchgani.	52	52
9	Khandala Peta, Shirwal	35	35
10	Man Taluka, Dahiwadi	35	35
		732	707

District Co-operative Board.

Education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the spread of the co-operative movement are carried on by the District Co-operative Board under the guidance of the Maharashtra Co-operative Union. The membership of the Board is of two classes *viz.* (1) ordinary, consisting of all co-operative societies in the district, and (2) associate, consisting of individuals. A nominee of the

CHAPTER 13.
—
Other Departments.
CO-OPERATION.
District Co-operative Board.

financial agency namely, the Satara District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara and the Executive Officer of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union are ex-officio members of the general body of the Board. The constitution of Satara District Co-operative Board is as below :—

1. one representative from each taluka,

2. one representative from every 20 individual members,

3. one nominee of the Maharashtra Divisional Co-operative Board, Limited,

4. one nominee of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union Limited,

5. nominee of the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Poona. (Maharashtra State).

6. the co-operative training inspector working as member secretary of the board,

7. nominee of the Central Financing Agency.

Audit.

Section 22 of the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act provides for statutory audit of every society once a year either by the Registrar or by some person authorised by him. The audit staff in the district works under the control of the Divisional Special Auditor Co-operative Societies, Poona. In this district, there are three auditors and two additional auditors (seasonally appointed for clearance work), seven sub-auditors and six additional sub-auditors (seasonally appointed for clearance work). The three auditors with their head quarters at Satara, Koregaon and Karad are entrusted with the audit of (1) multi-purpose societies, (2) taluka development boards, (3) industrial societies, (4) district co-operative board, (5) supervising unions, (6) agricultural non-credit societies like joint-farming, crop protection societies, lift irrigation societies, etc., and (7) other societies. Arrears work in respect of the audit of the above societies is attended to by the additional audit staff appointed for the purpose.

The six sub-auditors with their head quarters at Wai, Satara, Koregaon, Karad, Phaltan and Vaduj, audit all agricultural credit societies with their distribution centres or fair price shops with a turnover of less than Rs 50,000. Every distribution centre or fair price shop is treated as a separate audit unit. The six additional sub-auditors attend to the clearance of arrears of audit work having been appointed for the purpose.

In pursuance of the policy of progressive decentralisation of the movement in recent years steps have been taken to appoint certified auditor to carry out the statutory audit of the following types of societies. (1) consumers' societies with a turnover of Rs. 50,000 and over, (2) urban banks and societies classed as 'A' or 'B' with a working capital of Rs. 50,000 and over, (3) housing societies having no outstandings against them on account of Government loan and (4) any other society certified by the Registrar.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION. Registrar's Nominees.

Under provisions of the Bombay Co-operative Societies Act, co-operative societies or members thereof may refer their disputes to the District Deputy Registrar, for decision either by himself or by the appointment of an arbitrator. Every year a list of persons who may act as arbitrators is published and the District Deputy Registrar sends cases of disputes to such arbitrators. In the Satara District, 18 arbitrators have been appointed for the year 1960-61.

Educational Institutions.

The Maharashtra State Co-operative Union which is recognised as the sole agency for imparting co-operative training to officials and non-officials throughout the State has established a regional co-operative school at Poona, Jalgaon and Kolhapur to impart training to the lower staff of the Co-operative Department and co-operative institutions and in particular to supervisors, bank inspectors and secretaries of *seva* societies, taluka purchase and sale societies, etc. There is one co-operative training college at Poona which imparts training to the higher staff of the department. The Junior Departmental persons and Institutional candidates from the Satara district are eligible to be deputed to the schools and the intermediate and senior personnel of Department, are eligible to be deputed to co-operative training college at Poona.

Marketing.

The Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Marketing), Maharashtra State, Poona, is also Director of Agricultural Marketing and in this capacity he shares with the Collector of the district the responsibilities for the effective enforcement of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act (XXII of 1939). The Director performs functions of survey, organisation and constitution of regulated markets; assessment of adequate scales of licence fees, rates of commission and charges of other market functionaries, approval of bye-laws and annual budget of market committees, technical guidance as regards the manner in which the accounts of the market committees should be maintained. The administrative control of the market committees and the enforcement of the statutory provision and the rules governing the regulation of markets are vested in the Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Marketing), Maharashtra State, Poona.

All the marketing work in respect of the district is now entrusted to the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara, who is assisted by three territorial Assistant Registrars. working under him. He works under guidance of the Divisional Joint Registrar, Poona, and the Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Marketing), Poona, assisted by the three Assistant Registrars, Co-operative Societies, Satara. The Agricultural Produce Markets Act (XXII of 1939) aims at regulating the selling and buying of agricultural produce and provides for the establishment of regulated markets for agricultural commodities. These markets are to be placed under the supervision of statutory market committees fully representative of growers, traders, local authorities and Government. The market committee is empowered to levy fees on the agricultural produce under regulation,

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Marketing.

bought and sold by licensees in the market area. The committee may also levy fees on traders, commission agents, measurers, surveyors and other persons operating in the market. They also issue licences to different marketing functionaries. With the previous sanction of the Director, they can prescribe rates. maximum charges for the services of the various persons operating in the market.

In the Satara District there are four regulated markets one at each of the business centres of Karad, Satara, Koregaon and Phaltan These centres serve the major portion of the district. The agricultural produce regulated at these markets is as under :—

1. Karad .. Ground-nut, shelled and unshelled; Gul, Turmeric, Chillies, Tur, Mug, Onions Jowar, Bajri and Coriander.
2. Koregaon .. Ground-nut, shelled and unshelled ; Coriander, Jowar, Bajri, Chavali, Mug, Gram, Gul. Chillies, Tur, Potatoes and Beans, and cattle, sheep and goat.
3. Phaltan .. Safflower, Gul, Onion, Jowar, Bajri, Wheat Tur, Gram, Cotton, Cattle, Sheep and Goat.
4. Satara .. Ground-nut, shelled and unshelled ; Coriander, Turmeric, Tur, Gram, Onion and Gul.

These market committees have got sub-market yards as shown below :—

	Market yards.	
	Principal.	Sub-market yard.
Karad ..	Karad ..	Umbraj, Masur and Malhar peth.
Koregaon ..	Koregoan ..	Rahimatpur and Wathar.
Phaltan ..	Phaltan ..	Lonand.
Satara ..	Satara ..	Wai. Surur, Vaduj and Atit.

Money-Lending.

The Bombay Money Lenders' Act (XXXI of 1946), was brought into operation from 17th November 1947. The salient features embodied in the Act are: (1) licensing of money-lenders; (2) maintenance of accounts by money-lenders in the prescribed form; and (3) restrictions on rates of interest.

The Personal Assistant to the Collector of the district used to work as the Registrar of Money-Lending and the Mamlatdars and Mahalkaris in the district were working as Assistant Registrars of Money-Lenders. As per the revised set-up, the enforcement of the Bombay Money-Lenders' Act the whole administration has been transferred completely to the Co-operative Department. The Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies (Administration) is now the Registrar-General of Money-Lenders, Maharashtra State. The Divisional Joint Registrar, Co-operative Societies. Poona, is also the Divisional Registrar of Money-Lenders, Poona Division. The Department Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara, is the Registrar of Money-Lenders for

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Money Lending.

the district assisted by the three territorial Assistant Registrars who work in the capacity of Assistant Registrars of Money-Lenders so far as money lending sections of the department are concerned. The District Deputy Registrar maintains the register of money lending and all the money-lenders in the district are licensed by him to carry on the business of money lending only in accordance with the terms and conditions of the licence received by them. The illicit money-lending cases are detected by the Assistant Registrars assisted by one co-operative officer and Assistant Co-operative Officers. The District Deputy Reigstrar as Registrar of Money-Lending has also powers to cancel a licence. Appeals against the Registrar's orders can be made to the Registrar-General of Money-Lenders whose decision is final.

Sarvodaya Centres.

In the year 1949, the Government adopted a scheme known as '*Sarvodaya* Scheme' the aim of which is to bring about all-round intensive development--social, educational and economic--of selected compact blocks of 30 to 45 villages in each district through the constructive programme which was foremost in the objectives of Mahatma Gandhi. The executive authority in the formulation and implementation of such a scheme in each district is a non-official worker known as a '*Sanchalak*' of the *Sarvodaya* Centre who is assisted and advised by non-official committee of members known as the '*Sarvodaya* Committee'. Every year, a plan of development of the area is formulated by the *Sanchalak* which is considered by the 'State *Sarvodaya* Committee' before it is finally sanctioned by Government.

In the Satara District, there are two *Sarvodaya* centres, one at Mahabaleshwar and the other at Phaltan. The Mahabaleshwar Centre was started in the year 1949 and has its headquarters at Mahabaleshwar. It includes 73 villages from Mahabaleshwar Peta and from Javli taluka. In addition to this centre there is another centre at Phaltan having 35 villages under it. These villages are imbued with a spirit of *Sarvodaya* ideology and have opened this centre in January 1950.

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.

State Road Transport.

SATARA DISTRICT COMES UNDER THREE STATE TRANSPORT DIVISIONS *viz.*, Poona, Kolhapur and Sholapur, a major portion coming under Poona Division.

Nationalisation of Passenger Transport was decided upon by the State Government in August 1947 and the first services were started departmentally in June 1948, the administration of which was subsequently handed over to a Statutory Corporation in December 1949, under the provisions of the Road Transport Corporation Act (XXXII of 1948). Since then the Corporation has been reconstituted under the Road Transport Corporation Act, LXIV of 1950.

Organisation.

For administrative convenience of operating the services, the entire State was originally divided into 16 viable Units (now eight, after the transfer of three units to Mysore on account of States'

CHAPTER 13.
—
Other Departments.
STATE ROAD TRANSPORT.
Organisation

Reorganisation, in 1956 and five units to Gujarat State after the break-up of the bilingual Bombay State in 1960), called divisions. The Officer-in-charge of each division is called the Divisional Controller and he is a Class I Officer. He works immediately under the General Manager who is the administrative head of the Central Office and is assisted by the following departments and branches *viz.*, (1) Administration, (2) Traffic, (3) Mechanical Engineering, (4) Accounts and Audit, (5) Statistics, (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering. (9) Secretariat, (10) Legal and (11) Cenrtal Workshop.

The nationalisation of services in the Poona Division was started in June 1948. The Divisional Controller, Poona Division, is the head of the division and is responsible for the operations. He is assisted by eight Class II Officers who have the following functional responsibilities :—

The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters, related to traffic operations.

The Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labour relations with the administration and publicity in the division.

These branches are manned by two officers, the Divisional Auditor and the Divisional Statistician.

Workshop.

The workshop side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer with the assistance of a Divisional Works Superintendent and Assistant Works Superintendent. Besides, there are as many depot managers as there are depots, who are wholly responsible for the working of the depots.

Statistics

The operations started in June 1948 with 36 buses plying on eight routes in the Ahmadnagar district. By 31st May 1958 the operations were spread over in Poona and Satara district, the division holding a fleet of 254 buses plying on 152 routes. The buses put on road have, on an average a seating capacity of about 38 exclusive of the seats for the driver and the conductor. The average daily mileage operated by these buses during May 1958 was 23,075 carrying on an average 46,711 passengers per day. The average distance travelled per passenger during May 1958 was 19·84 miles.

The division also held a fleet of 11 trucks on 31st May 1958. These trucks were operated as public carriers, on a contract basis, on terms prescribed by the Corporation.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses and trucks are carried out at the Divisional Workshop, which is situated at Poona. Further, after the operation of every 12,000 miles, the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance and docking. In addition there is a workshop in each of the depots for maintenance and running repairs to vehicles. These are located

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. STATE ROAD TRANSPORT. Statistics.

at Swar Gate (43), Shivajinagar (41), Satara (28), Narayangaon (17), Talegaon (16), Koregaon (15), Bhor (14), Wai (13), Sirur (8), Khed (7), Dhond (6) and Mahabaleshwar (6). The number of vehicles attached to each of these depots is given in brackets. Regular daily and weekly servicing and docking for maintenance after a run of 3,000 miles, are carried out in these depots.

Amenities.

The Corporation provides various amenities to the travelling public and a number of facilities to its employees e.g. housing, sports, medical treatment and welfare centres etc. which are detailed in Chapter Number 7, *viz.*, Communications.

THE FISHERIES DEPARTMENT.

FISHERIES. Organisation.

FOR ADMINISTRATIVE CONVENIENCE, the Satara district is included in the Kolhapur division. The office at Kolhapur is headed by the Superintendent with under him an Assistant Superintendent and other subordinate staff, and is directly under the control of the Director of Fisheries, Bombay.

The duties of the Superintendent are as under :—

(i) Survey of inland sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture.

(ii) Stocking of tanks and lakes with suitable varieties of fish every year.

(iii) Supervision of the tanks.

(iv) Formation and supervision of Fisheries Co-operative Societies and devising ways and means to improve the socio-economic conditions of fishermen.

(v) Investigation of applications from fishermen for loan from Government.

(vi) Supervision and recovery of loan and crediting the money to treasury.

(vii) Encouraging fishermen to take advantage of the different schemes of the department.

(viii) Collection of statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen of the district.

The development of fisheries in the Satara district has not made much headway for want of perennial sheets of water. Fisheries are, therefore confined to a certain extent to rivers like Urmodi, Venna, Krishna and Koyna which flow through the district. No portions of these rivers are leased out to fishermen for fishing rights. Presence of a few irrigation tanks and reservoirs have, however, given scope for development of fisheries in the district by stocking these sheets of water with fry of select varieties such as *Catla, Rohu* and *Mirgal*.

CHAPTER 14—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

Local Self-Government.

INTRODUCTION.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT is conducted by various statutory bodies enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions could be marked in three spheres. First, in regard to their constitution, from full or partly nominated bodies they have now become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which had gone on widening, has, with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950), reached the widest limit possible, viz., universal adult franchise. Every person who (*a*) is a citizen of India, (*b*) has attained the age of 21 years, and (*c*) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification, is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1950 reservation of seats for women, Muhammedans, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Harijans and Backward Tribes, had been provided in municipalities and District Local Boards, and for women, Muhammedans, Harijans and Backward Tribes in village panchayats. Muhammedans were also provided separate electorates in local boards and municipalities before 1947. The enactment mentioned above, abolished the reservation of seats for Muhammedans, Christians and Anglo-Indians but continued it for ten years from the commencement of the Constitution of India (i.e., till 25th January 1960) for women, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, which castes and tribes, more or less represent Harijans and Backward Tribes.

Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of areas under their charge.

Another recent reform is connected with Controlling Authority over institutions of Local Self-Government. Before the enactment of the Bombay Commissioners of Divisions Act, 1957 (VIII of 1958), the Divisional Officer who was also designated as the Director of Local Authorities of the Division used to exercise this control but since its enactment, the posts of Commissioners have been revived and Commissioners of Divisions now exercise the powers and functions which the

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.
INTRODUCTION.

Director of Local Authorities used to exercise in respect of the following Acts :—

(1) The Bombay Village Sanitation Act (I of 1889).

(2) The Bombay District Vaccination Act (I of 1892).

(3) The Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901).

(4) The Bombay Town Planning Act (I of 1915).

(5) The Bombay Local Boards Act (VI of 1923).

(6) The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act (XVIII of 1925).

(7) The Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930).

(8) The Bombay Village Panchayats Act (VI of 1933).

The Commissioner, Poona Division, has jurisdiction over the Satara district.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The total area in the district under the administration of municipalities in 1958, was 102·31 square miles with a population of 1,21,742, according to the 1951 Census. The Phaltan municipality from the former Phaltan State was constituted as a district municipality under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901 (III of 1901), after the merger of the Phaltan State. There are two borough municipalities in the Satara district, viz., the Satara City Borough Municipality and the Karad Borough Municipality, which are governed by the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925 (XVIII of 1925), and the others are district municipalities governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901 (III of 1901).

The following is the list of the Municipalities in the Satara district with their population according to the 1951 Census, area, number of wards, total number of councillors, number of seats reserved for the representatives of women, the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and number of nominated seats:—

Name of Municipality	Population 1951 Census	Area in sq. miles	Number of Wards	Number of Councillors. Total	Reserved for women	Reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes	Un-reserved	Nominated	Remarks
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(1) Satara City Borough.	38,521	1·3	9	33	1	3	29		*The Superintendent of Mahabaleshwar acts as the *ex-officio* President of the Municipality and the Mahalkari of Mahabaleshwar acts as the *ex-officio* member of the Municipality.
(2) Satara Sub ..	2,549	4·0	4	12	1	3	8		
(3) Rahimatpur ..	8,055	12·3	7	15	2	1	12		
(4) Mhaswad ..	9,145	34·5	5	15	2	2	11		
(5) Phaltan ..	12,142	30·3	5	16	2	2	12		
(6) Karad Borough ..	25,721	8·8	6	23	2	2	19		
(7) Wai .	16,099	1·3	5	15	2	1	12		
(8) Mahabaleshwar ..	4,972	[illegible]	3	12	1	1	8	2*	
(9) Panchgani ..	4,538	1·3	4	14	1	3	9	1	
Total .	1,21,742	102·31	48	155	14	18	120	3	

*The population given in the Census Hand Book is of the revenue village which in area is much bigger than the Municipal district administered by the municipality. But the population of the revenue village more or less approximates to the population of the municipal town, as the area of the revenue village not included in the municipal district is more or less unhabitated as it is composed only of agricultural fields. The cultivators stay in the town and go to the fields when they have to perform agricultural operations.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

MUNICIPALITIES.

District Municipalities.

Under the Bombay District Municipal Act (III of 1901), the State Government has power to declare by notification any local area to be a "municipal district" and also to alter the limits of any existing municipal district. In every municipal district a municipality has to be constituted, consisting of elected councillors, the Commissioner of the Division having power to nominate councillors to represent constituencies which fail to elect the full number allotted them. The State Government has power to prescribe the number and the extent of the wards to be constituted in each municipal district and the number of councillors to be elected by each ward. Till 26th January 1960, it could also reserve seats for the representation of women, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes.

The term of office of a municipality is four years, but it can be extended to an aggregate of five years by an order of the Commissioner, Poona Division. Under the Act every municipality has to be presided over by a president selected from among the councillors and either appointed by Government or elected by the municipality, if the State Government so directs. A Vice-President is elected by the councillors from among themselves, but in the case of a municipality whose President is appointed by Government the result of the election of Vice-President is subject to the approval of Government. At present all municipalities in the Satara district are allowed to elect their Presidents.

The Government of a municipal district vests in the municipality. The President's duties as the head of the municipality are :—

(*a*) preside at meetings of the municipality;

(*b*) watch over the financial and executive administration and to perform such other executive functions as may be performed by the municipality; and

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the municipality.

There is provision for the compulsory constitution of a managing committee in the case of all municipalities. Option is also left to municipalities to appoint other executive or consultative committees.

The act divides municipal functions into obligatory and optional. The former include all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population, while the latter are matters, which though they are legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential. The following are among the obligatory duties laid on all municipalities :—

(*a*) lighting public streets, places and buildings;

(*b*) watering public streets and places;

(*c*) cleansing public streets, places and sewers, removing noxious vegetation, and abating all public nuisances;

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.
MUNICIPALITIES.
District Municipalities.

(*d*) extinguishing fires, and protecting life and property, when fires occur ;

(*e*) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices ;

(*f*) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places ;

(*g*) securing or removing dangerous buildings or places, and reclaiming unhealthy localities ;

(*h*) acquiring and maintaining, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead ;

(*i*) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary marks, slaughter-houses, latrines, privies, urinals, drains, sewers, drainage works, sewerage works, baths, washing places, drinking fountains, tanks, wells, dams and the like ;

(*j*) obtaining a supply or an additional supply of water, proper and sufficient for preventing danger to the health of the inhabitants from the insufficiency or unwholesomeness of the existing supply when such supply or additional supply can be obtained at a reasonable cost ;

(*k*) registering births, marriages and deaths ;

(*l*) public vaccination ;

(*m*) establishing and maintaining hospitals and dispensaries and providing medical relief ;

(*n*) establishing and maintaining primary schools ;

(*o*) disposing of night-soil and rubbish and, if so required by the State Government, preparing compost manure from such night-soil and rubbish ;

(*p*) constructing and maintaining residential quarters for the conservancy staff of the municipality ;

(*q*) providing special medical aid and accommodation for the sick in time of dangerous disease ; and taking such measures as may be required to prevent the out-break of the disease and to suppress it and prevent its recurrence ;

(*r*) giving relief and establishing and maintaining relief works in time of famine or scarcity to or for destitute persons ; and

(*s*) paying for the maintenance and treatment of lunatics and lepers and persons affected by rabies, in case they are indigent and have been resident in the municipality for one year.

Municipalities may, at their discretion, provide out of their funds for the following among others :—

(*a*) laying out new public streets ;

(*b*) constructing, establishing or maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, lunatic asylums, halls, offices, *dharamshalas*, rest-houses, homes for the disabled and destitute persons and other public buildings ;

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.
MUNICIPALITIES.
District Municipalities.

(*c*) furthering educational objects;

(*d*) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for the carrying on of offensive trades;

(*e*) establishing and maintaining a farm or factory for the disposal of sewage;

(*f*) the construction, purchase, organisation, maintenance, extension and arrangement of mechanically propelled transport facilities for the public;

(*g*) promoting the well-being of municipal employees and their dependents;

(*h*) providing accommodation for municipal employees and their dependents;

(*i*) construction of sanitary dwellings for the poorer classes; and

(*j*) taking any measure likely to promote the public safety, health, convenience or education.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items:—

(*i*) a rate on buildings and lands;

(*ii*) a tax on all or any vehicles, boats, or animals used for riding, draught or burden;

(*iii*) a toll on vehicles (other than motor vehicles or trailers) and animals used as aforesaid;

(*iv*) an octroi on animals and goods;

(*v*) a tax on dogs;

(*vi*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by municipal agency;

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction and maintenance of public latrines, and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(*viii*) a general water-rate or a special water-rate or both;

(*ix*) a lighting tax;

(*x*) a tax on pilgrims; and

(*xi*) any other tax which the State legislature has power to impose.

Instead of (*i*), (*vii*), (*viii*) (general water-rate) and (*ix*), a consolidated tax assessed as a rate on buildings or lands may be imposed.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes in the case of district municipalities have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, Poona Division who has been given powers to subject the levy to such modifications not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions as to application of a part or whole of the proceeds of the tax to any purpose.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to it to be unfair in its incidence or obnoxious to the interest of the general public and suspend the levy of it until such time as the objections are removed. The State Government may require a municipality to impose taxes when it appears to it that the balance of the municipal fund is insufficient for meeting any cost incurred by any person acting under the directions of the Collector or of the Commissioner, Poona Division for the execution of any work or the performance of any duties which the municipality is under an obligation to execute or perform but which it has failed to execute or perform.

Many of these taxes are levied by municipalities, but the rates at which they are levied do not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes have to be supplemented by numerous grants made by Government, both recurring and non-recurring. For instance, grants are made by Government to municipalities towards maintenance of municipal dispensaries and hospitals, water-supply and drainage schemes, expenditure on epidemics, payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc. These grants add substantially to the municipal income.

Since the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), control of primary education has virtually been transferred from district municipalities (i.e. those working under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901) and the District Local Board to the Satara District School Board, and the financial liabilities of district municipalities have been limited.

The District School Board has control of primary education in their areas, but the municipalities concerned pay over to the District School Board five per cent. of the rateable value of the properties in their areas as a contribution towards meeting the expenses on primary education. Compulsory education has been introduced in all municipal areas

Control over the municipalities is exercised by the Collector, the Commissioner, Poona Division and the State Government. The Collector has powers of entry and inspection in regard to any immovable property occupied by a municipality or any work in progress under it. He may also call for extracts from the proceedings of a meeting of the municipality or for any books or documents in its possession or under its control. He may also require a municipality to take into consideration any objection he has to any of its acts or any action on its part. These powers can be delegated by the Collector to the Assistant or Deputy Collectors.

The Commissioner has powers to order a municipality to suspend or prohibit, pending the orders of the State Government, the execution of any of its order or resolution, if, in his opinion, it is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of the peace or is unlawful. In cases of emergency, the Commissioner may

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

MUNICIPALITIES. District Municipalities.

provide for the execution of any works or the doing of any act which a municipality is empowered to execute or do and the immediate execution or doing of which is necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality.

Subject to appeal to the State Government, the Commissioner is also empowered to require a municipality to reduce the number of persons employed by it and also the remuneration assigned to any member of the staff. On the recommendation of a district municipality he can remove any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties.

When satisfied that a municipality has made a default in performing any statutory duty imposed on it, the State Government may direct the Commissioner of the Division to fix a period for the performance of that duty, and if that duty is not performed within the period stipulated, the Commissioner may appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the municipality. If the State Government is of the view that any municipality is not competent to perform or persistently makes default in the performance of its duties or exceeds or abuses its powers, it may either dissolve the municipality or supersede it for a specific period. The president or vice-president of a municipality or municipal borough may be removed by the State Government for misconduct or for neglect or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties.

The audit of all Local Fund Accounts is provided for by the Bombay Local Fund Audit Act (XXV of 1930). The Commissioner of the Division on receipt of the Report of the Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made either to the District Court or to the State Government.

Borough Municipalities

The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act is applied in the Satara district to the Satara City Borough and Karad Borough municipalities. This Act, enacted in 1925, confers greater powers on a municipal borough than those conferred on municipalities governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901.

In the case of a borough municipality a standing committee is appointed instead of the managing committee as in the case of district municipalities. The powers of the standing committee are wider than those of the managing committee. The appointment of a chief officer is made compulsory and he has been given powers under the Act in respect of control of the subordinate staff. A chief officer has to be a graduate of a recognised university or a qualified engineer, and it is laid down by section 33 that no chief officer shall be removed from office, reduced or suspended unless by the votes of at least two-thirds of the total number of councillors.

Local Self-Government.
MUNICIPALITIES.
Borough Municipalities.

As regards taxation, a borough municipality is empowered to levy (*a*) a drainage tax and (*b*) a special education tax, in addition to the taxes leviable by municipalities governed by the District Municipal Act.

In the case of district municipalities the Commissioner of the Division has power to sanction the rules relating to the levy of taxes; to remove, on the recommendation of the municipality, any councillor guilty of misconduct in the discharge of his duties and to extend the term of a municipality from four to five years. In the case of borough municipalities similar powers are exercised by the State Government.

The municipal borough of Satara is an authorised municipality under the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), i.e., it is authorised to control all approved schools within its areas and manage primary education.

An account of the individual municipalities in the district will be found in chapter XIX.

DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD.

The District Local Board.—The administration of the Local Self-Government of the Satara district, excluding the municipal areas, is entrusted to the Satara District Local Board, which is constituted under the Bombay Local Boards Act (VI of 1923). The area administered by the Board is 3,835 sq. miles and according to the Census of 1951, it contained a population of 10,53,567. The Board is wholly elected and is composed of 53 members. Of these ten seats are reserved for women and scheduled castes. Its term of office is for four years, and is extensible by order of the Commissioner to a period not exceeding in the aggregate five years. If an election does not result in the return of the required number of qualified persons willing to take office, the Commissioner has to appoint the necessary number.

The President of the Board is elected by the Board from among its own members. His term of office is co-extensive with the life of the Board. His chief functions are : (*a*) to preside at the meetings of the Board; (*b*) to watch over the financial and executive administration of the Board; (*c*) to exercise supervision and control over the acts and proceedings of all officers and servants of the Board in matters of executive administration and in matters concerning the accounts and records of the Board; and (*d*) subject to certain limitations prescribed by Rules framed under the Act, to dispose of all questions relating to the service of the officers and servants and their pay, privileges and allowances. Without contravening any order of the Board, he may, in cases of emergency, direct the execution or stoppage of any work or the carrying out of any act which requires the sanction of the Board.

There is also a Vice-President of the Board who is elected in the same way as the President. He presides at the meetings of the Board in the absence of the President and exercises such of the

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.
DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD.

powers and performs such of the duties of the President as the President may delegate to him. Pending the election of a President or during the absence of the President on leave, he exercises the powers and performs the duties of the President.

Under the Act, it is compulsory on the Board to appoint a standing committee. The appointment of other committees is optional. However, the Board has appointed the following sub-committees in addition to the Standing Committee :—

(1) Works Committee.
(2) Budget Committee.
(3) Public Health Committee.
(4) District Boarding Committee.
(5) Village Improvement Committee.
(6) Appellate Committee.
(7) Pharmacy Committee.
(8) Law and Reference Committee.
(9) Village Panchayat Committee, which is discontinued since the transfer of village panchayats to Government i.e., from 1st July 1950.

The Standing Committee is to consist of not more than nine members and not less than five members as the Board may determine. The President of the Board is the *Ex-officio* Chairman of the Committee. Re-appropriations and estimates of works costing not more than Rs. 5,000 are sanctioned by it. It also considers subjects that generally do not come within the purview of the other committees.

The obligatory and optional functions of the Board are set out in section 50 of the Local Boards Act. The obligatory duties are :—

(1) The construction of roads and other means of communication and the maintenance and repairs of all roads and other means of communications vested in it;

(2) The construction and repairs of dispensaries, *dharamshalas* and other public buildings and inspection, management and maintenance of these institutions;

(3) The construction and repair of public tanks, wells and water works, the supply of water from them and from other sources; and the construction and maintenance of works for storing and preservation of water for drinking and cooking purposes and prevention of its pollution;

(4) Public vaccination, and sanitary works and measures necessary for the public health; and

(5) The planting and preservation of trees by the side or in the vicinity of roads vesting in the Board.

With the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947), and the rules framed under it, which came into force from 1st April 1949, the District Local Board, Satara, has no longer any

administrative or financial control over primary education. The only duty of the Board is to hold an election of the members of the District School Board as prescribed in the Act and to assign a revenue equal to 15 pies of the three anna cess on land revenue and water rate.

The main financial resources of the Board as set out in section 75 of the Bombay Local Boards Act are :—

(1) a cess on land revenue up to a maximum of three annas in the rupee ;

(2) a cess on water rate up to a maximum of three annas in the rupee ;

(3) all rents and profits accruing from property (including ferries) vested in the Board ; and

(4) grants from Government.

Under section 79 of the Act, the Board has to assign to every municipality two-thirds of the cesses on land revenue levied on lands within that municipality. The Board now levies the cesses on land revenue and water rate at the maximum of three annas in the rupee.

Under section 118-A of the Act, the State Government has to make every year a grant to every District Local Board equivalent in amount to 15 per cent. of the land revenue, including non-agricultural assessment, realised during the previous year from lands within the limits of the Board, excluding lands within municipal boroughs, municipal districts or village panchayats.

The controlling authorities in relation to the District Local Board, Satara, are the Collector; the Commissioner, Poona Division and the State Government. They exercise in the case of the District Local Board more or less the same powers that they have over the municipalities.

The following were the receipts and expenditure of the Satara District Local Board under the various heads in 1959-60, excluding primary education (which is now looked after entirely by the District School Board) and Deposits, Advances, Investments and Provident fund :—

	Receipts.	Rs.		Expenditure.	Rs.
1.	Land Revenue .	1,27,296	1.	Refunds and drawbacks	9,881
2.	Local Rates ..	6,36,478	2.	Administration ..	82,675
3.	Interest ..	4,964	3.	Law and Justice .	191
4.	Police ..	1 796	4.	Education ..	3,43,484
5.	Education ..	....	5.	Medical ..	2,02,741
6.	Medical ..	99,551	6.	Minor Departments ..	1,07,729
7.	Minor Departments	1,02,219	7.	Superannuation Allowance and Pension.	24,377
8.	Miscellaneous ..	90,041	8.	Civil works .	2,99,503
9.	Civil works	1,26,813	9.	Miscellaneous ..	31,841
		11,89,158			11,02,622

Under Deposits, Advances, Investments and Provident Fund, the receipts were Rs. 2,36,035 and the expenditure Rs. 57,652.

The Board has unrestricted power of appointment of its officers and of payment to them. At present the Board has appointed a Chief Officer and an Engineer both in the scale of Rs. 220–15–400–E.B.–20–500–E.B.–25–650.

On 31st March 1960, the Board had under its jurisdiction a total road mileage of 544·98. The maintenance of these roads is a responsibility of the Board. Of these 152·14 miles were metalled, 252·83 miles unmetalled and 149·99 miles cart tracks. The Board is required to frame a yearly programme of road improvements and to submit it to the Commissioner, Poona Division for sanction. Current repair works are generally provided from the local fund. During the five years ending 31st March 1960, the Board has improved a length of 171 miles of roads according to this programme.

Water Supply.—Government under its resolution, Health and Local Government Department, No. S-92, dated 24th April 1947, has sanctioned a scheme with a view to providing drinking water supply facilities to villages with a population of 200 and above and in backward areas in villages with a population of 100 and above, which lack an adequate supply of drinking water. In the Satara district, before the merger of the States, there were 1,152 inhabited villages as per 1951 census of which 974 had a population of 200 and more. From the beginning of the scheme, the Board has completed well-works in 165 villages, in Jaoli, Karad, Khatav, Koregaon, Man, Patan, Phaltan, Satara and Wai talukas and Khandala and Mahabaleshwar petas. After the merger of the States, 112 villages were added to the Local Board area.

During the year 1959-60, the Board had undertaken to sink new wells in the following talukas :—

		No. of Wells.
1.	Karad ..	1
2.	Patan ..	1
3.	Khandala Peta ..	1
4.	Khatav ..	2
5.	Koregaon ..	2

Health and Sanitation.—The District Health Officer appointed by the Government looks after the arrangement in connection with the control of epidemics. The Board appoints inoculators and supplies vaccine and other drugs for inoculation and disinfection of water supply on the advice of the District Health Officer. Preventive as well as curative measures are carried out by the District Health Officer through his own public health staff and the staff appointed by the Board. Similarly the vaccination staff appointed by the Board does the vaccination work under the control of the District Health Officer.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

DISTRICT LOCAL BOARD.

Hospitals and Dispensaries.—The Board maintains six allopathic dispensaries out of which four are grant-in-aid medical dispensaries and two are maintained by the Board from its own funds. The Board also maintains 17 ayurvedic dispensaries from its own funds. The expenditure in connection with the maintenance of allopathic dispensaries and ayurvedic dispensaries was Rs. 46,188 and Rs. 72,355 respectively during 1959-60, against which a grant-in-aid of Rs. 8,884 and Rs. 6,120 respectively was received by the Board from the Government.

There were 20 subsidised medical practitioners' centres in the district during 1959-60. The Board is required to pay one-fifth of the expenditure of these centres to the Government.

The Board maintained in 1959-60, ten veterinary dispensaries at the cost of Rs. 83,107 against which a grant-in-aid of Rs. 44,350 was received by the Board from the Government.

Other Amenities—(1) *District Local Board Pharmacy.*—The Board has started its own pharmacy in order to provide good medicines for its ayurvedic and allopathic dispensaries and village panchayats. It also maintains a dispensary under the Pharmacy Manager for its own employees.

(2) The Board has introduced a Village Improvement Scheme from 2nd October 1952 and has maintained five motor trucks and a special staff for the purpose. These trucks are given at a nominal rent to the villagers who volunteer to work for the improvement of roads in their villages. Technical guidance is also given. A number of villages are taking advantage of this scheme.

(3) *Boarding Houses.*—The Board has constructed nine boarding houses at different places in the district to provide residential facilities to the students in secondary schools coming from rural areas.

The District Health Supervisor appointed by the Board looks after the sanitation in rural areas, trains the village panchayat secretaries in public health and sanitation and in the technique of vaccination and inoculation.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

A village panchayat functions as a unit of Local Self-Government and of development activities in rural areas. Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958 (Bombay Act No. III of 1959), an independent village panchayat is to be established in a village having a population of 500 and above. So also under special circumstances an independent panchayat can be established in a village with a population of 250 and above, if sufficient reasons exist for the same. There are 1,167 villages excluding municipal towns in the district. Fifty-eight villages out of these will be submerged under the waters of the Koyna river on account of the Hydro-Electric Project at Koynanagar. There were 676 village panchayats in the Satara district on the 31st March 1960, covering all the villages in the district.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Gram Sabha.

In respect of every local area declared to be a village, all persons whose names are included in the list of voters referred to in section 12 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, are deemed to constitute a Gram Sabha for the village. The meetings of the Gram Sabha are ordinarily held in the Office of the panchayat or the village *chavadi* or at any convenient public place in the village as may be determined by the Sarpanch or in his absence by the Upa-Sarpanch. The first meeting of the Gram Sabha in every financial year is to be held within two months from the commencement of that year and the second meeting in November on such date and at such time as may be fixed by the Sarpanch, or in his absence by the Upa-Sarpanch. The Sarpanch may, at any time on his own motion, and shall, if so required by the Panchayat Mandal or the Collector, call an extra-ordinary meeting of the *Gram Sabha*. The Panchayat is to place before the first meeting of the Gram Sabha :—

(*i*) The annual statement of accounts ;

(*ii*) The report on the administration of the preceding financial year ;

(*iii*) The development and other programme of work proposed for the current financial year ;

(*iv*) The last audit note and replies, if any, made thereto ;

(*v*) Any other matter which the Panchayat Mandal or the Collector or any other officer authorised by the Collector requires to be placed before such meeting.

The Panchayat is to consider suggestions, if any, made by the *Gram Sabha*.

The maximum number of members for a panchayat is fifteen and the minimum number is seven. The members are to be elected on adult franchise.

In every panchayat two seats are to be reserved for women. The State Government has been given power to reserve seats for the representation of Scheduled Castes and Tribes, if found necessary, having regard to the population in the village of such castes and tribes, till the expiration of the total extended period of 12 years from the commencement of the constitution of India, i.e., till 1962.

The members of the panchayat hold office for a term of four years which may be extended by the Collector for a period not exceeding in the aggregate five years. Every panchayat is to be presided over by the Sarpanch to be elected from amongst its own members. The panchayat is also to elect one of its members to be Upa-Sarpanch.

Having regard to the extent and population of the village and the income of panchayat, there is appointed a Secretary for every panchayat or a group of panchayats. He is appointed by Government and is a full time Government Servant. His salary and allowances are not a charge on the village Fund.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

Sub-section (*1*) of section 45 of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, lays down that subject to the general control of the Panchayat Mandal, it shall be the duty of a panchayat, so far as the village fund at its disposal will allow, to make reasonable provision within the village in regard to all or any of the following matters, namely :—

I. In the sphere of sanitation and health—

(*a*) the supply of water for domestic use and for cattle;

(*b*) the cleansing of public roads, drains, bunds, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation) and other public places or works;

(*c*) sanitation, conservancy, the prevention and abatement of nuisance, and disposal of carcasses of dead animals;

(*d*) the preservation and improvement of the public health;

(*e*) the regulation by licencing or otherwise of tea, coffee and milk shops.

(*f*) provision, maintenance and regulation of burning and burial grounds;

(*g*) the lay out and maintenance of playgrounds and of public gardens;

(*h*) the disposal of unclaimed corpses and unclaimed cattle;

(*i*) the construction and maintenance of public latrines;

(*j*) the taking of measures to prevent the outbreak, spread or recurrence of any infectious disease;

(*k*) the reclaiming of unhealthy localities;

(*l*) the removal of rubbish heaps, jungle growth, prickly pear, the filling in of disused wells, insanitary ponds, pools, ditches, pits or hollows, the prevention of water-logging in irrigated areas and other improvement of sanitary conditions;

(*m*) maternity and child welfare;

(*n*) providing medical relief;

(*o*) the encouragement of human and animal vaccination.

II. In the sphere of public works—

(*a*) the removing of obstructions and projections in public streets or places and in sites, not being private property, which are open to the public, whether such sites are vested in the panchayat or belong to Government;

(*b*) the construction, maintenance and repair of public roads, drains, bunds and bridges :

Provided that if the roads, drains, bunds and bridges vest in any other public authority, such works shall not be undertaken without the consent of that authority;

(*c*) the maintenance and regulation of the use of public buildings, grazing lands, forest lands including lands assigned under section 28 of the Indian Forests Act, 1927, tanks and wells (other than tanks and wells used for irrigation), vesting in or under the control of the panchayat;

(*d*) the lighting of the village;

(*e*) the control of fairs, *bazars*, tonga stands and cart stands;

(*f*) the construction and maintenance or control of slaughter houses;

(*g*) the planting of trees along roads, in market places and other public places, and their maintenance and preservation;

(*h*) the destruction of stray dogs;

(*i*) the construction and maintenance of *dharmashalas*;

(*j*) the management and control of bathing or washing ghats which are not managed by any authority,

(*k*) the establishment and maintenance of markets;

(*l*) the construction and maintenance of houses for the conservancy staff of the *panchayat*;

(*m*) the provision and maintenance of camping grounds;

(*n*) the establishment, control and management of cattle pounds;

(*o*) the establishment and maintenance of works or the provision of employment in times of scarcity;

(*p*) the extension of village sites, and the regulation of buildings in accordance with such principles as may be prescribed;

(*q*) the establishment and maintenance of warehouses;

(*r*) excavation, cleansing and maintenance of ponds for the supply of water to animals.

III. In the sphere of education and culture—

(*a*) the spread of education;

(*b*) the establishment and maintenance of *akhadas*, clubs and other places for recreation;

(*c*) the establishment and maintenance of theatres for promotion of art and culture;

(*d*) the establishment and maintenance of libraries and reading rooms;

(*e*) the promotion of social and moral welfare of the village including the promotion of prohibition, the removal of untouchability, amelioration of the condition of backward classes, the eradication of corruption and the discouragement of gambling and useless litigation.

IV. In the sphere of self-defence and village defence—

(*a*) watch and ward of the village, and of the crops therein:

Provided that the cost of watch and ward shall be levied and recovered by the panchayat from such persons in the village, and in such manner, as may be prescribed;

(*b*) regulating, checking and abating of offensive or dangerous trades or practices;

(*c*) rendering assistance in extinguishing fires, and protecting life and property when fire occurs.

V. In the sphere of administration—

(*a*) the numbering of premises;

(*b*) the drawing up of programmes for increasing the output of agricultural and non-agricultural produce in the village;

(*c*) the preparation of the statement showing the requirement of supplies and finances needed for carrying out rural development schemes;

(*d*) acting as a channel through which assistance given by the Central or State Government for any purpose reaches the village;

(*e*) making surveys;

(*f*) the control of cattle stands, threshing floors, grazing grounds and community lands;

(*g*) the establishment, maintenance and regulation of fairs, pilgrimages and festivals;

(*h*) the preparation of statistics of unemployment;

(*i*) reporting to proper authorities, village complaints which are not removable by panchayat;

(*j*) the preparation, maintenance and upkeep of panchayat records;

(*k*) the registration of births, deaths and marriages in such manner, and in such form, as may be laid down by Government by general or special order in this behalf;

(*l*) the preparation of plans for the development of the village.

VI. In the sphere of welfare of the people—

(*a*) assistance in the implementation of land reform schemes;

(*b*) the relief of the crippled, destitute and the sick;

(*c*) assistance to the residents when any natural calamity occurs;

(*d*) making arrangements for co-operative management of lands and other resources in the village, and organisation of collective farming, credit societies and multi-purpose co-operative societies;

(*e*) the reclamation of waste land and bringing waste land under cultivation with the previous permission of the State Government;

CHAPTER 14. — *Local Self-Government.* VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

(*f*) organising voluntary labour for community works and works for the uplift of the village.

(*g*) *opening of fair price shops.*

VII. In the sphere of agriculture and preservation of forests—

(*a*) *the improvement of agriculture and establishment of model agricultural farms;*

(*b*) the establishment of granaries;

(*c*) bringing under cultivation waste and fallow lands vested by Government in the panchayat;

(*d*) securing minimum standards of cultivation in the village with a view to increasing agricultural production;

(*e*) ensuring conservation of manurial resources, preparing compost and sale of manure;

(*f*) the establishment and maintenance of nurseries for improved seeds and provision of implements and stores;

(*g*) the production and use of improved seeds;

(*h*) the promotion of co-operative farming;

(*i*) crop experiments and crop protection;

(*j*) minor irrigation;

(*k*) raising, preservation and improvement of village forests.

VIII. In the sphere of breeding and protecting cattle—

improvement of cattle and cattle breeding and the general care of livestock.

IX. In the sphere of village industries—

the promotion, improvement and encouragement of cottage and village industries.

X. In the sphere of the collection of land revenue—

(*a*) collection of land revenue when so empowered by the State Government under section 169; and

(*b*) maintenance of village records relating to land revenue in such manner and in such forms as may be prescribed from time to time by or under any law relating to land revenue.

Subject to such conditions as the State Government may impose, it is also competent to a panchayat to perform other administrative duties including the distribution of irrigation water that may be assigned to it by the State Government after consultation with the Panchayat Mandal.

Under section 124 (*i*) of the Act it is competent to a panchayat to levy all or any of the following taxes and fees at such rates as may be decided by it (but subject to the minimum and maximum rates

which may be fixed by Government) and manner and subject to such exemptions as may be prescribed, namely :—

(*i*) a tax on buildings (whether subject to payment of agricultural assessment or not) and lands (which are not subject to payment of agricultural assessment), within the limits of the village;

(*ii*) octroi;

(*iii*) a pilgrim tax;

(*iv*) a tax on fairs, festivals and other entertainments;

(*v*) a tax on bicycles and on vehicles drawn by animals;

(*vi*) subject to the provisions of article 276 of the Constitution, a tax on the following professions, trades, callings or employments, that is to say :—

(*a*) shop-keeping and hotel-keeping;

(*b*) any trade or calling (other than agriculture) which is carried on with the help of machinery run by steam, oil or electric power or by manual labour;

(*c*) the profession or calling of brokers in cattle markets;

(*vii*) a general sanitary cess for the construction or maintenance, or both the construction and maintenance, of public latrines and for the removal and disposal of refuse;

(*viii*) a general water rate which may be imposed in the form of a rate assesed on buildings and lands or in any other form as may be best adapted to the circumstances of any class of cases;

(*ix*) any other tax (not being a toll on motor vehicles or trailers, save as provided by section 14 of the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1935) which the State Legislature has under the Constitution, power to impose in the State and which has been sanctioned by the State Government,

(*x*) a fee on markets and weekly bazars;

(*xi*) a fee on cart-stands and tonga-stands;

(*xii*) a special water rate for water supplied by the panchayat through pipes, which may be imposed in any form including that of charges for such water supplied, fixed in such mode or modes as shall be best adapted to the circumstances of any class of cases;

(*xiii*) a fee for the supply of water from wells and tanks vesting in it, for purposes other than domestic use and for cattle;

(*xiv*) a fee for temporary erection on, or putting up projections over, or temporary occupation of, any public street or place;

(*xv*) a special sanitary cess upon private latrines, premises or compounds cleansed by the panchayat agency;

(*xvi*) a fee for cleansing a cess pool constructed on land whether belonging to a panchayat or not;

(*xvii*) a fee for grazing cattle on grazing lands vesting in a panchayat.

CHAPTER 14. — Local Self-Government. VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

The tax upon buildings or lands is not to be levied by a panchayat on all buildings and lands or any class of buildings or lands situated in an area predominently populated by members of the Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes.

In regard to the fact that a factory itself provides in the factory area all or any of the amenities which such a panchayat provides, a panchayat may arrive at an agreement with any factory to receive a lump-sum contribution in lieu of all or any of the taxes levied by the panchayat.

Section 128 of the Act gives the Panchayat Mandal power to compel a panchayat to levy or increase any of the taxes or fees specified if it appears to the Mandal that the regular income of the panchayat falls below what is necessary for the proper discharge of the obligatory duties of the panchayat.

Section 131 of the Act lays down that Government shall pay to every panchayat in each year an amount not less than 25 per cent. and not exceeding 30 per cent. of the ordinary land revenue collected in the revenue year immediately preceding, within the limits of village. For the purpose of the payment of the grant aforesaid, panchayats are, having regard to the factors prescribed by Government to be classified into such grades or categories and the percentage of the grant payable to the panchayats of each such category is to be such as may be determined by Government from time to time.

According to section 63 of the Act, there is to be a Nyaya Panchayat for the administration of civil and criminal justice in a group of contiguous villages not being less than five in number. It consists of one person elected by such panchayat which is to elect out of the members of the Gram Sabha of that village, one person for the purpose of constituting the Nyaya Panchayat. It is to sit, for the hearing of a suit or trial of a case, in the village where such suit or case has been instituted. It is to be presided over at each such place by one of its members The term of office of the members of the Nyaya Panchayat expires with the term of the panchayat which elected them. The State Government has power to remove any member of the Nyaya Panchayat for reasons of misconduct in the discharge of his duties or of any disgraceful conduct or neglect, refusal or incapacity in regard to the performance of his duties as a member of the Nyaya Panchayat. The Secretary of the panchayat of the village where the sitting of the Nyaya Panchayat is held acts as the judicial clerk of the Nyaya Panchayat.

The Nyaya Panchayats constituted as aforesaid may exercise all or any of the powers mentioned in sub-section (*1*) and (*2*) of sections 73 and 75, as Government may by general or special order specify. Government may also direct the Nyaya Panchayats to exercise all or any of the judicial powers mentioned in sub-section (*3*) of section 73 and section 79 of the Act.

Pleaders, *vakils*, etc., are not permitted to appear on behalf of any party to any suit or case.

Appeals are allowed to the District Court in civil suits and to the Sessions Court in criminal cases.

For the purposes of encouraging the establishment and fostering the development of panchayats and for the supervision and control of the administration thereof, Government has constituted for every district a District Village Panchayat Mandal with the Collector as its Chairman. The Panchayat Mandal has power to call for information and to compel the panchayat to take into consideration any objection which the Panchayat Mandal has to any acts of the panchayat, either of omission or of commission, or any information which necessitates the commission of any act by the Panchayat. The Panchayat Mandal can also compel the Panchayat to reduce the number of persons maintained by a panchayat as officers or servants or the remuneration given or proposed to be given to them. In addition, the Collector has powers of suspension and prohibition in respect of the execution of any order or resolution of a panchayat which, in his opinion, is likely to cause injury or annoyance to the public or to lead to a breach of the peace. In cases of emergency, the Collector may also provide for the execution of any work or the doing of any act which a panchayat is empowered to execute or do, and the immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the health or safety of the public, and may direct that the expenses shall be forthwith paid by the panchayat.

The audit of the accounts of a panchayat is carried out by Government in the prescribed manner and a copy of the audit note is forwarded to the panchayat and the panchayat mandal within one month of the completion of the audit. If it appears to the Panchayat Mandal that a panchayat has made default in the performance of its obligatory duties, it may order the duty to be performed within a specified period, and, if the duty is not performed within that period the Panchayat Mandal can appoint some person to perform it and direct that the expense be paid by the defaulting panchayat.

The State Government also is given power to carry out at the cost of the panchayat any of the panchayat's obligatory duties when it appears to it that the Panchayat Mandal has neglected to take action. The State Government has also powers, after consultation with the Panchayat Mandal to dissolve or supersede a panchayat, if, in its opinion, the panchayat had exceeded or abused its powers or made persistent default in the performance of its obligatory duties, or persistently disobeyed any of the orders of the Collector. If a panchayat is superseded, all the powers and duties of the panchayat will be exercised and performed by a person or persons appointed by the State Government.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

According to section 136 of the Act, Government has appointed a District Village Panchayats Officer in the Deputy Collector's grade for Satara district to discharge the functions prescribed under the Bombay Village Pnachayats Act, 1958. He is to Act as Personal Assistant to the Collector for Village Panchayat matters and to work as Secretary of the Panchayat Mandal. Several duties have also been placed on this officer, and he is expected to do everything that is possible to popularize village local self-Government and to make the working of Village Panchayats really effective. He has to exercise supervision over the affairs of panchayats already established in the district, tour round and explain to the panchayats the system of panchayat administration, watch the actual working of the panchayats and give them guidance if their working is not proper, and persuade women to take active interest in the affairs of panchayats. He is directed to hold annual gatherings of members of panchayats so that panchayats may become aware of the activities of one another. The programme for the collection of information relating to Village Panchayats at the taluka, district, divisional and State levels has been prescribed by Government. The procedure for the publication of the Annual reports on the working has also been laid down by Government. The information received from Taluka/Mahal/Block Officers has to be consolidated by the Collector. He writes his own descriptive report and forwards it to the Commissioner before the 31st of May every year. After the information has been submitted to the Commissioner the Collector has to publish his district report in the prescribed form in the regional language before the 15th of August.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

Organization

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

The Maharashtra State has an independent "Town Planning and Valuation Department" under the administrative control of the Urban Development and Public Health Department. This department came into existence in the year 1914, with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its Head. The department principally deals with two important subjects *viz.*, town planning and valuation of real property.

Town Planning.

The duties and functions of the department as stipulated by Government are as under :—

(1) Educating the municipalities regarding the advantages of town planning and preparation of development plans and town planning schemes under the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. (2) Advising the municipalities in the selection of suitable areas for preparation of town planning schemes. (3) Giving the required assistance to the municipalities in the preparation of development plans and town planning schemes in the shape of advice as well as loan of the services of technical assistants for the preparation of drafts of town planning schemes. (4) To perform the duties of the town planning officer when so appointed by Government, to scrutinise building permission cases, to tender advice to the Board of

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.
TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.
Town Planning.

Appeal and to draw up the final schemes. (5) To issue certificate of tenure and title to the owners of lands included in town planning schemes. (6) To advise Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation thereon. (7) To advise and prepare town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the Municipal Acts. (8) To prepare development schemes or layouts of lands—(i) belonging to Government and (ii) belonging to co operative housing societies and private bodies with the sanction of Government. (9) To advise Officers concerned in respect of village-planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc. (10) To advise Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation. (11) To prepare type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans. (12) To scrutinise miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and recommend suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned.

Valuation.

The Consulting Surveyor to Government is the chief expert adviser of Government on this subject and his duties under this head include: (1) Valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties in towns and villages belonging to Government and intended for the purpose of sale or lease. (2) Valuation of Government properties for the purpose of rating under the Municipal Acts. (3) Valuation for miscellaneous purposes such as cantonment leases, probate or stamp duty, etc. (4) Valuations for the purposes of fixing standard rates of non-agricultural assessment and prescribing values for zones in all villages and newly developing localities in the vicinity of important and growing towns. (5) Valuations for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments. (6) Scrutiny of awards of compensation (as received from Government). (7) Supplying trained technical assistants to do duty as the special land acquisition officers in important towns where land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature. (8) Giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in District Courts and the High Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act. (9) Undertaking valuation work on behalf of railways and other departments of the Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc. His other duties are: (1) To advise the various Heads of Departments of Government in the selection of sites required for public purposes. (2) To see that all town planning schemes or layout schemes sanctioned by Government have been properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed in schemes. (3) To advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act, or rules thereunder.

The department was started in the year 1914, with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head who was later on assisted by one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, one Deputy-Assistant

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government, TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT. Valuation.

Consulting Surveyor to Government and two senior assistants with the requisite staff. As the activities of this department increased, these assistants had to be posted at prominent places in the state to attend to the work of town and country planning very essentially required in and around the towns and cities. There has been a rapid expansion in the activities of this department in recent years with the consequential increase in the number of branch offices in the state. The head office of the department is at Poona and the other branch offices are at Bombay, Kolhapur, Kalyan, Nagpur, Amravati, and Aurangabad. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as land acquisition officers. There is thus a full time special land acquisition officer at Poona and one full-time Land Acquisition Officer at Bombay in addition to two part-time Land Acquisition Officers at Bombay and Poona.

The statutory powers regarding planning embodied in the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, have been replaced by the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. This Act generally incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915, and in addition makes obligatory on every local authority (barring village panchayats) to prepare the development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The development plan would aim at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of the town and would make proposals in respect of outlying open areas so as to guide the development on planned basis. The proposals of development plans can be implemented by the preparation of statutory town planning schemes. In preparing town planning schemes, planner can ignore to a great extent existing plot boundaries. In designing his layout, existing holdings can be reconstituted and made subservient to the plan, and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to owners of lands ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. The cost of a scheme can be recovered from the owner benefited, to the extent of 50 per cent. of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by the carrying out of the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft town planning scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned a Town Planning Officer is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or proposals and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft scheme proposals, if found necessary.

Most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare a development plan and it has been decided that this department should prepare the development plans on behalf of local authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly the scheme for preparation of development plans has been provided in the Second Five-Year Plan and additional staff has been sanctioned for this purpose. From the Satara district, the town of Satara has been selected so far for the preparation of a development plan under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. This department had prepared a master plan for Karad with the assistance of the additional staff sanctioned for the

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT.

Valuation.

purpose in the year 1947 and the same has been submitted by the local authority to Government for sanction as development plan under the provisions of Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. There is one town planning scheme at Karad *viz.*, Town Planning Scheme, Karad No. 1, which is in a draft stage. The same is on hand with the Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, Bombay as Arbitrator. There is no branch office of the department in Satara district and the development plan of Satara is being prepared by the branch office at Kolhapur. The other work from this district is being dealt with generally by the Kolhapur branch office.

In connection with the Koyna Project, about 80 villages will be either partly or completely submerged under the proposed reservoir. A special officer designated as Rehabilitation Officer has been appointed by the Public Works department to work under the Chief Engineer, Koyna. The work of preparing the layouts for the new *gaothans* is being carried out by this office. However, besides the sites which are available in the district for rehabilitating the said villages a number of sites from the district of Sangli, Poona and Kolaba have been selected and the work of preparing suitable layouts is in progress. The work was initially spread over three years and still continues.

CHAPTER 15—EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.
INTRODUCTION.

In 1954-55 THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION completed its hundred years of existence. The period witnessed tremendous changes in the field of education. "The number of educational institutions in the State increased from 2,875 in 1855-56 to 58,876 in 1954-55, the number of pupils from 1,06,040 in 1855-56 to 48,87,314 in 1954-55, the State grant for education from Rs. 2 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 1,493·4 lakhs in 1954-55 and the total educational expenditure from about Rs. 7 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 2,802·1 lakhs in 1954-55." *

"Qualitatively, the traditional system of higher edcuation which was narrow in concept and dominated exclusively by religious ideas has now been replaced by the modern system of Secondary and University Education, the limited scope of the indigenous elementary schools has been enlarged to include the concept of universal, compulsory and free primary education and revolutionary changes have been made in the status and education of women and the backward classes."*

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS.

The Educational standards in the district are in keeping with the general educational pattern in the country. The gradual increase in the number of literates from 33,161 (for the former Satara district comprising the present Satara and Sangli districts) in 1911 to 2,21,231 in 1951 is a sufficient testimony to the fact that in the recent past conscious effort was being made by the State Government and some voluntary organisations for the spread of literacy and education. The percentage of literates to the total population came to 20·60 in 1957-58. However, as compared to some other districts of the State, Satara district has a comparatively large number of educational institutions. There were in 1957-58 the following educational institutions in the district: seven for higher education; 64 for secondary education; 1,347 for primary education and 922 other educational institu-

* A Review of Education in Bombay State, 1855–1955, p. 46.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS.

tions. The following few figures give an idea of the level of literacy prevailing in the district according to the 1951 census :—

Total Literates	2,21,231
Middle School	14,156
Matriculation or S. L. C.	3,649
Intermediate in Arts or Science	251
Graduates.	441
Post-Graduates	67
Teaching	1,402
Engineering	109
Agriculture	53
Veterinary	6
Commerce	32
Legal	255
Medical	241
Others	62

In the post independence period the district has made a distinct progress[1] in the spread of literacy amongst the village population. In the year 1958-59 about 10,000 illiterate adults were turned literate, while during 1959-60 the number was almost doubled (i.e. rose upto 21,000). The success achieved in the field of social education was due to untiring efforts on the part of social workers, inspecting officers, local bodies and institutions; propaganda by means of pamphlets, speeches, bulletins, etc. and co-operation and enthusiasm of the villagers. In 1960 there were about 5,000 social education classes in the district with more than 1,00,000 adults on roll.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Primary and secondary education in the Satara district is under the control of the District Educational Inspector who is a class I officer of the Maharashtra Educational Service and is directly under the control of the Director of Education. The Educational Inspector is responsible in his district for: (1) The supervision of primary education; (2) The administrative control of all Government Primary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Training Institutions under the control of the Education Department; and (3) The control and inspection of all secondary schools including English-teaching schools, multi-purpose high schools, training institutions of primary teachers and such special schools as are under the control of the Education Department.

As regards girls' schools and institutions for women the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Poona (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class I) performs the functions and duties in respect of (a) the inspection of girls' secondary and special schools in the district; (b) visiting girls' primary schools in the district and making suggestions for improvement.

[1] The information has been supplied by the District Educational Inspector.

Education and Culture.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

In carrying out his duties of inspection and control, the Educational Inspector is assisted by an inspecting staff consisting of one Deputy Educational Inspector, Maharashtra Educational Service, Class II and 29 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors (Maharashtra Educational Service, Class III) who are directly responsible to him for the supervision and inspection of primary schools in the district. Out of these one is in charge of Urdu schools, another in charge of girls' schools and the third in charge of physical education for the whole district.

There are separate Inspectors having jurisdiction over the whole State for physical education, visual education, drawing and craft work and commercial schools who are responsible for organisation and inspection in their respective spheres. These inspectors are directly under the Director of Education.

Under the rules framed under the Bombay Primary Education Act, the Deputy Educational Inspector, Satara is the chief Government Inspecting Officer of the district so far as primary schools are concerned. He decides the question of recognition of private primary schools. He has to keep close watch on the working of primary schools maintained or approved by the School Board, adult education classes and village libraries. He has to report regarding the housing arrangement, equipment, staff, efficiency of instruction etc., of the primary schools so that the department may be in a position to determine whether the school board is conducting its schools satisfactorily. All aided schools are inspected by him or by the inspecting staff under him. He also assists the Educational Inspector in the inspection of secondary schools and reports on specific points about them whenever he is required to do so by the Educational Inspector.

Primary Education.

It is the declared policy of the Government that universal, free and compulsory primary education should be enforced by a definite programme of progressive expansion, and under Bombay Primary Education Act (LXI of 1947). the State Government has taken upon itself the duty of securing the development and expansion of primary education in the State. The object aimed at is to have a minimum course of seven years' education for every child. The agencies employed for attaining this objective are the district school boards and authorised municipalities. The Municipal Borough of Satara has been declared an authorised municipality in this district.

District Local Board.

"Approved schools"[1] within the area of all non-authorised municipalities and of the district local board are under the control of the Satara District School Board. This school board is composed of sixteen members out of whom two are nominated by Government, one

[1] "Approved school" means a primary school maintained by the State Government or by the school board or by an authorised municipality or which is for the time being recognised as such by a school board or by the State Government or by an officer authorised by it in this behalf (section 2 of the Bombay Primary Education Act, LXI of 1947).

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.
Primary Education.

is a Government official, two are elected by the non-authorised municipalities falling within the District School Board's jurisdiction and the rest are elected by the Satara District Local Board. Of the remaining eleven seats, one seat is reserved for the scheduled castes, one for women and three seats are reserved for prominent educationalists.

Working of Primary Education Act.

Under the Primary Education Act and the rules thereunder all the district school boards and authorised municipalities have to maintain an adequate number of primary schools in which instruction is given through the medium of the local, regional language.

For children whose mother tongue is other than the regional language of the area, school boards have been instructed to open schools in their language if the number of such children is not less than 40 in the first four standards and 20 in the upper standards. The teaching of the regional language of the area is also compulsory in such schools from standard III onwards. An authorised municipality has to make such provision in its budget as will enable approved schools in its area to receive grants at the rates authorised by Government. Responsibility is laid on the District School Board and the School Boards of the authorised municipalities to maintain a schedule of staff of assistant administrative officers or supervisors, primary teachers, clerks, Class IV servants and other staff, sanctioned by Government setting forth the designation, grades, pay and nature of appointment of the different members. The members of this staff are servants of the School Boards concerned and receive their pay, allowance etc., from the Primary Education Fund, maintained by the School Boards. No change or alteration can be made in the schedule of staff without the previous sanction of Government

The annual budgets of the School Boards have to be submitted to the Director of Education for sanction. A district school board derives its income mainly from Government grants which form nearly 96 per cent, of its total income. It also receives from the District Local Board a contribution equal to such portion of its income from the cess and land revenue and water rates as may be fixed by Government from time to time, and from authorised municipalities whose schools are under its control such proportion of the ratable value of properties in the area of the respective municipalities as may be fixed by Government from time to time. The District Local Board, Satara has, under the present rules to contribute 15 pies of the three anna cess on land revenue and water rates that it is allowed to levy The amount to be paid by non-authorised municipalities has been fixed by Government at 5 per cent. of the ratable value of properties in their respective areas. The Primary Education Fund of the Municipal Borough of Satara, is composed partly of the grant payable to it by the State Government on account of primary education. This grant is regulated by rules passed by the Government under the Primary Education Act. In actual effect the Government grant amounts to a little less than 50 per cent. of the expenditure on primary education incurred by the municipal borough.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

Working of Primary Education Act.

The chief executive officer of the Satara District School Board is its administrative officer. This officer is appointed and paid by the State Government. The administrative officer of an authorised municipality is generally the officer appointed by the municipality. Under this administrative officer are assistant administrative officers or supervisors, primary school teachers, clerks and inferior servants and other staff under the employ of the District School Board or the School Board of authorised municipalities, as the case may be. The administrative officer is responsible for the general administration of all primary schools maintained by the School Board. He is responsible for carrying out the suggestions made from time to time by Government officers. It is his duty to advise the school board on all matters connected with primary education. He is also a member and secretary of the staff selection and transfer committee. The staff selection committee is a committee composed besides himself, of the chairman of the school board and the Educational Inspector of the district. Its duty is to select candidates for appointment as assistant administrative officers, as supervisors and as teachers. The committee also selects the teachers to be deputed for training. The staff selection committee has been authorised to transfer primary teachers on joint consultation among its members. The district school board or the school boards of authorised municipalities, or their administrative officers have to make appointments of candidates in accordance with the directions given by the committee. The selection of candidates and teachers is made in accordance with the instructions issued by the Government. The administrative officer has power, subject to the general instructions issued by the Director of Education to promote and take all disciplinary action, including removal or dismissal, against the staff. His orders, however, are subject to appeal to a tribunal consisting of the chairman of the school board and the Educational Inspector of the district. A primary school teacher who was a guaranteed teacher on the date the Primary Education Act came into force has however, a right of further appeal to the State Government against any order of his removal or dismissal.

Statistics (1957-58).

There were 1,347 primary schools (both lower primary i.e., teaching standards I-IV and upper primary i.e., teaching standards V-VII) of which 43 were exclusively for girls. The distribution of the schools by management was as follows :—

Government and Government-aided		..	4
District School Board	..	..	1,159
Municipal School Boards	..	..	17
Schools aided by—			
District School Board	..	..	150
Municipal School Boards	..	..	1
Schools unaided	..	..	16
Total		..	1,347

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

Statistics (1957-58).

There were 92,512 boys and 51,876 girls in the lower primary stage (i.e. standards I-IV) and 21,468 boys and 3,617 girls in the upper primary stage (i.e., standard V-VII) or a total of 1,69,473 pupils in all primary schools. The percentage of school-going children to the population was 62·6.

The number of teachers in primary schools was 4,325 of whom 3,874 were men and 451 women. This works out roughly at 39 pupils per teacher. Two thousand nine hundred and forty of the men teachers and 383 of the women teachers were trained.

There were seven training institutions, five for men (1 Government and 4 non-Government) and two for women (both non-Government) training 558 men and 160 women or a total of 718 teachers during the year.

There was one practising school for Marathi speaking boys and girls directly under the control of Government.

Expenditure.

The total expenditure on primary schools was Rs. 48,68,744 and it was met from the following sources :--

	Rs.	Percentage to Total.
1. Government	40,73,905	83·8
2. District Local Board and Municipal Fund.	2,96,450	6·1
3. Fees	1,24,468	2·5
4. Other sources.	3,73,921	7·6

The average cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 26·2 per annum of which Government's contribution was Rs. 24·8.

There were in 1957-58, 17 municipal primary schools and one private school within the municipal limits of the Satara City Municipality. The total number of pupils was 5,663 (4,940 in municipal schools and 723 in private schools). The expenditure of the school board of the municipality was Rs. 1,67,863 out of which Rs. 63 000 were contributed by the Satara Municipality and grants to private schools amounted to Rs. 12,601.

The District School Board, Satara introduced compulsion for the first time from 1947. This was, however, applicable only to children between 6 and 11 years of age in the areas of the non-authorised municipalities. Under the post-war reconstruction plan, the board introduced compulsion both for boys and girls from 1947 beginning with the age groups of 7-8 in the first year throughout the district local board area. With this, children of the age range between 7 and 11 were under compulsion during 1957-58. The population of

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Primary Education.

the area (in September 1951), was 5,72,967 males and 6,02,342 females. The total number of children of the age groups under compulsion was 1,48,567 and the total number actually attending schools was 1,06,580 or 71·06 per cent.

Compulsion was introduced in the municipal boroughs of Satara district during 1921 only for boys of the age group of 6-11. The population according to the 1951 census was composed of 19,631 males and 18,890 females (38,521 total). The number of children of school-going age in the municipal boroughs was 6,694 (3,910 boys and 2,784 girls) or 92·9 per cent.

Medium of Instruction.

According to the medium of instruction, in 1957-58, the schools were distributed as follows :—

Medium of instruction	Public	Private.	Total.
Urdu	6	....	6
Marathi	1,159	163	1,322
Total ..	1,165	163	1,328

In 1957-58 out of 2,211 buildings in which district school board's schools were housed, 329 were owned by the board, 397 were rented and the remaining were housed in temples, *dharmashalas* and other places.

Basic and Craft Schools.

A new ideology has influenced the educational activities of the staff since 1937-38. It has come to be recognised that education must centre round some form of manual productive work. In 1957-58 there was one compact area for basic education in this district viz. Khandala, with six basic schools. There were in all 169 craft schools of which 66 had spinning, 67 agriculture and 36 carpentry as crafts.

Secondary Education.

Secondary education is now under the general regulation of Government which exercises control by means of conditions for receipt of grant-in-aid. At the end of the high school course an examination is conducted by the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, and the students who pass are awarded the Secondary School Certificate. The office of the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board is located at Poona. The first examination was held in 1949. The examination provides optional courses for pupils with varied interests and aptitudes. Each University, however, lays down the subjects which candidates must take for entrance to its courses.

Statistics (1957-58)

In 1957-58 there were 64 secondary schools in the district with a total of 12,855 pupils (10,422 boys and 2,433 girls) of which five schools were exclusively for girls. The number of girls in the

CHAPTER 15. Education and Culture. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION. Secondary Education.

schools exclusively meant for girls was 1,357 while 1,076 girls were in mixed schools. There was one multi-purpose Government high school for boys. In addition, there was a technical high school under the control of Director of Technical Education.

The following statement shows the number of schools under different managements and the number of pupils in them.

	Number of Schools.	Number of pupils.
Government ..	1	361
Local authorities ..	1	44
Aided private ..	54	11,524
Unaided ..	5	926
Total ..	61*	12,855

Secondary education was imparted mainly by private agencies aided by Government grants.

There were 559 teachers in secondary schools, of whom 472 were men and 87 women.

The total expenditure on secondary education was 5,31,727·54.

Drawing Examinations.

Government hold drawing examinations, elementary and intermediate. In 1957-58 in Satara district 942 candidates appeared for the elementary, of whom 478 passed; for the Intermediate, 367 candidates appeared and 210 passed.

Special Schools.

In 1957-58 there were 17 special schools in the district having 1,038 pupils as per details given below :—

Kind of Institution.	Number of Institutions	No. of pupils.
Nursery ..	9	541
Medicine ..	..	..
Commerce ..	..	..
Agriculture ..	..	..
Gymnasia ..	4	413
Arts and Crafts ..	..	..
Music and Dancing ..	2	63
Hindi S.S. ..	2	21
Oriental Studies ..	..	..
Other (Certified Schools, Reformatory, etc.).	..	..
Total ..	17	1,038

* The figure does not include the three Anglo-Indian Schools under the control of the Education Inspector, Greater Bombay.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Physical Education.

One trained assistant deputy educational inspector looks after the physical activities in the district. He visits secondary, full primary and training institutions and offers suggestions and guidance to further the cause of physical education. He also inspects the *vyayam shalas* run by private bodies and recommends grants. He often conducts short-term courses for primary teachers for training in physical education.

Boy Scouts, Girl Guides and Junior National Cadet Corps.

In 1957-58 there were 20 troops for boys and seven for girls in which 480 boy-scouts and 168 girl-guides participated. The high schools had 39 auxiliary cadet corps with 1,897 cadets.

Medical Inspection.

There is arrangement for medical inspection of high school and training college students.

SCHOOL BOARD BROADCAST AND VISUAL EDUCATION.

Most of the well established schools in the district have radio sets. Some schools own 16 mm. and 35 mm. projectors in order to cater to the needs of visual education.

Special Features.

For primary schools, the whole district has been divided into talukas as per revenue division. Each taluka is in charge of a taluka head. The taluka head is usually a semi or basic trained graduate. He is assisted by an assistant deputy educational inspector. Every month, *Shibirs* (Camps) are held where current topics in education are discussed. The idea of community life is fully brought home through them.

Sports, elocution competitions and dramatics are arranged. These competitions have created healthy atmosphere in all talukas.

Successful attempts have been made to secure lands for the conversion of primary schools into agricultural basic schools.

For secondary schools, the district has been divided into zones. Each zone consists of two talukas. Zonal meetings for the purpose of improving teaching methods in different subjects are arranged in each zone. Deliberations are circulated to all secondary schools. These meetings are of great use for improving the efficiency of instruction.

The Scouts movement is progressing well in this district both in primary and secondary schools.

SAINIKI SCHOOL, SATARA.

The Sainiki School at Satara is a well-known military training centre in the State.

AFFILIATED COLLEGES.

The following colleges in the district are affiliated to the Poona University for the degree courses shown against them (the date of establishment is given in brackets against each college) :—

1. Chhatrapati Shivaji College, Satara (1947) : B.A. (General) in English, Marathi, Sanskrit, Ardhamagadhi, Philosophy, History, Economics, Politics, Geography and Statistics.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

AFFILIATED COLLEGES.

B.A. (Special) in English, Marathi, Ardhamagadhi, History, Politics and Economics.

Three Years B.Sc. (Teaching First Year only from June, 1959).

2. Azad College of Education, Satara (1955) : B.T.

3. Shri Gadge Maharaj College, Karad (1954) : B.A.(General) in English, Marathi, Sanskrit, Ardhamagadhi, History, Economics, Politics and Philosophy.

B.A. (Special) in Marathi and Economics.

4. Science College, Karad (1958) : Three Years B.Sc. (Teaching First Year only from June 1959).

5. Mudhoji College, Phaltan (1957) : B.A. (General) in English, Sanskrit, Marathi, Hindi, Economics, History, Politics, Psychology and Ethics.

Three Years B.Sc. (Teaching First Year only from June, 1959).

TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

All technical and industrial institutions and courses leading up to the diploma standard (non-university grade), excluding courses falling under the control of the University, are controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Bombay. Government have set up the State Council of Technical Education to advise them and make recommendations regarding :—

(1) the courses and standard of instruction in technical institutions ;

(2) arrangements for the periodical inspection and examination of those institutions as regards their staff, accommodation, equipment, courses of study, methods of work and actual work done .

(3) the requirements of the State in technical and industrial education ;

(4) opening of new techincal institutions ;

(5) conditions of recognition of new institutions ;

(6) payment of grants-in-aid to institutions ;

(7) appointment of boards of studies for the various branches of engineering and technology ;

(8) arrangements for examinations ;

(9) award of certificates and diplomas ;

(10) Preparation of text-books on technical subjects in Hindi and the regional languages.

The Chairman of the Council is elected by the Council and the Inspector of Technical Education (Chemical Engineering) is the Secretary to the Council.

CHAPTER 15

Education and Culture.

TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

The Director of Technical Education, conducts the annual examination in the courses approved by the State Council of Technical Education, Bombay, and awards certificates or diplomas to the successful candidates.

The School of Industry, Satara was established by a private body in 1858. This school was taken over by the Government. Under the Post-war Reconstruction Scheme, a Technical High School Section was added to the school from 1949-50. This school draws one division of Standards VIII-XI each, from three local secondary schools for instruction in the following technical subjects which the students ultimately offer for the S.S.C. Examination :—

(*i*) Geometrical and machine shop drawing.

(*ii*) Workshop technology (Grade 1).

(*iii*) Elements of Mechanical and electrical engineering.

Instruction in the technical subjects is given free of charge while the tuition in non-technical subjects is given by the participating school concerned.

INSTITUTIONS AND COLLEGES FOR TRAINING.

There are three institutions in the district which prepare students for Secondary Teachers' Certificate Examination. These institutes had 73 students on roll in 1960 and the expenditure incurred during the same year was Rs. 8,229. There is a Pre-primary Training College for women with 40 female students on roll in the year 1959-60. In 1960, the College incurred an expenditure of Rs. 7,938 and received a Government grant of Rs. 500. There are also nine Primary Teachers Training Colleges in the district (six for men and three for women) with 952 students on the roll in 1959-60. In 1959-60 these colleges incurred an expenditure of Rs. 2,45,717 and received Government grants totalling Rs. 1,95,489.

INSTITUTIONS FOR FINE ARTS.

In the district there are no separate institutions for the cultivation of fine arts, music, drawing, painting etc. The subjects like music and drawing have been introduced in Kanya Shala, Satara, since 1960. Lessons are given in classical, vocal and instrumental music in the Kanya Shala.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS.

Prajna Pathashala Mandal, Wai, imparts teaching in Sanskrit and Vedas to students of all castes and communities and provides free residence, food and guidance. The Institution aims at maintaining the traditional proficiency in *Dharmashastras* and Sanskrit language. For research in the culture of ancient India the Mandal has a special research branch *viz.* *Dharmakosha Mandal*. The *Dharmakosha Mandal* has taken up the work of editing and publishing of the *Dharmakosha* and *Mimamsa Kosha*. The *Dharmakosha Mandal* received a Government grant of Rs. 94,371 in 1959-60.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

VILLAGE LIBRARIES.

There were in 1960, 654 village libraries in the district with 1,09,683 books and journals. In 1960, 19,568 persons took advantage of these libraries. In all Rs. 14,340 were spent during 1960 on the purchase of books and Rs. 10,909·39 were received by way of grant from Government.

LITERARY AND CULTURAL NEWS PAPERS, MUSEUMS AND LIBRARIES.

Of the cultural and literary periodicals, the *Navabharat*, a cultural monthly periodical conducted by the *Pradnya Path Shala*, Wai; the *Sajjangad* (Satara); the *Aikya* (Satara); the *Gramoddhara* (Satara); and the *Janaseva* (Phaltan) are worth mentioning. The Aundh Museum and the Rao Bahadur Parasnis Museum have a very good collection *viz*., paintings, statues, books, etc. The Nagar Wachan Mandir, Satara and the Sarvajanik Nagar Wachanalaya, Karad are libraries with a good collection. Besides, there are a number of libraries in the district which provide reading facilities for the public.

VOLUNTARY INSTITUTIONS.

In educational field the Rayat Shikshan Sanstha of Karmaveer Bhaurao Patil founded in the year 1919 aims at educating the downcast people of rural areas so as to liberate them from the bonds of caste and creed and inculcate in them the spirit of self-help and industriousness. The *Sanstha* has a number of schools, training colleges for men and women and hostels. There are also a number of other voluntary institutions doing good work in the educational field among which the Satara Education Society deserves a mention.

THE DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

DIRECTORATE OF PUBLICITY.

Regional Publicity Officer.

One of the four Regional Publicity Officers of the Directorate of Publicity, Maharashtra, is stationed at Poona. The Jurisdiction of the Regional Publicity Officer, Poona, comprises the districts of Ahmadnagar, Sholapur, Poona, Satara, Sangli and Kolhapur.

The Regional Publicity Officer acts as a link between the Government Officers and the Press in the districts. He keeps himself in touch with the Officers of various departments in the districts and issues to the Press news items, write-ups, etc., disseminating factual information on schemes and activities of the Government in the region. He also arranges Press visits and Press conferences to provide an opportunity to the Press to get first-hand knowledge of the subjects to be covered. The reports and comments in the Press are carefully examined by him and misrepresentation against the Government is counteracted with the minimum delay. He also replies to the queries in the Press which seek information on subjects of general or public interest. He arranges to get talks on various nation-building subjects by Government Officers and others broadcast from All-India Radio, Bombay and Poona. In short, he attends to the publicity needs of all Government departments in his region.

The Regional Publicity officer acts as a correspondent of the Directorate of Publicity, Maharashtra, and covers Government schemes and activities, ministerial tours, Press conferences, etc. He

keeps the Director Of Publicity, Maharashtra State, Bombay, acquainted with trends in the local Press and public opinion. He helps the Film Section of the Directorate of Publicity in producing documentaries, news-reels, etc., on subjects pertaining to the region.

District Publicity Officer.

As in every district of the State, a mobile publicity van is stationed at Satara in charge of District Publicity Officer. The van is equipped with a 16 mm. projector and it moves throughout the district. Free film shows and talks are arranged on various nation-building subjects, including agriculture, cattle improvement, village industries, education, prohibition, untouchability, small savings, Five-Year Plan, etc. The films for exhibition are mostly produced by the Directorate of Publicity, while some of them are borrowed from the Films Division of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India or other film producing agencies. The films are both instructive and entertaining. The District Publicity Officer also delivers talks explaining Government policies and programmes and keeps the rural folk informed of the concessions and facilities offered to them through the various national development schemes.

Exhibitions of the visual aid publicity material such as posters. pamphlets, leaflets, photographs, etc., which is produced by the Directorate of Publicity and Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, are also organised by the District Publicity Officer on the occasions of agricultural shows, religious fairs and cattle exhibitions in rural areas. Recreational programmes such as *powadas, bhajans,* etc., based on the nation-building subjects are also arranged in the rural areas.

The All-India Radio stations of Poona, Nagpur and Bombay broadcast special programmes daily in Marathi for the rural listeners. To enable rural folk to listen to these programmes, the Government of Maharashtra has installed community receiving sets in the villages of the district.

District Information Centre.

A District Information Centre under this office has been started at Satara and is equipped with all visual aid publicity material, periodicals and photographs. It acquaints the general public with the various schemes sponsored by the Government.

The Regional Publicity Officer, Poona, supervises the work of the District Publicity Office and the working of rural radio sets.

Public Sub-Committee of District Development Board.

The District Publicity Officer is under the administrative control of the Director of Publicity. The Collector of the district and the Publicity Sub-Committee of District Development Board also assist and advise him in his work. Some of the members of the Publicity Sub-Committee including its chairman, who is the Vice-chairman of the District Development Board, accompany the van and deliver talks in the villages on nation-building subjects.

CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

The District Publicity Officer also organises the district journalists' tours in and outside the district to enable them to see the progress of the various development activities in rural areas and the project developments in the Community Blocks.

RURAL BROADCASTING.

In 1960, 115 villages in the district were provided with radio receiving sets, under the Contributory Scheme of Community Listening. Under this Scheme, villages desirous of having radio sets are required to pay Rs. 175·00 as installation contribution and Rs. 60·00 per year as maintenance contribution. The response to the scheme has been very encouraging and an increasing number of villages are coming forward with contributions for installation of radio sets.

The installation and maintenance of radio sets is carried out from the rural broadcasting district headquarters at Satara. A Supervisor, in-charge of the head quarters, is fully equipped with radio servicing and testing equipment necessary for carrying out repairs to radio sets and for charging the batteries. A motor van is also provided for the transport of radio sets, allied accessories and staff to and from the villages in connection with the installation and the maintenance of the sets.

The community receivers installed in the villages are specially designed and the majority of these receivers are battery operated. The receivers are regularly maintained and the used batteries are replaced by new ones. Servicing of sets is done at the Headquarters at Satara. However, to avoid interruption in service, replacement sets are given whenever defective sets are removed to Satara for repairs The radio sets are installed in public places such as the village panchayat office, the village *chawdi*, the village library etc.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH. Organisation.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH OF SATARA DISTRICT is looked after by three agencies, viz. the Public Health Department of the State, local bodies and village panchayats.

At the Head of the Public Health Department is the Director of Public Health, who has his headquarters at Poona. Satara district comes under the Poona Division and the District Health Officer is directly under the control of the Deputy Director of Public Health Services, Poona Division, Poona. The Poona Division comprises six districts *viz.*, Kolhapur, Sangli, Satara, Sholapur, Poona and Ahmadnagar. The District Health Officers in all the districts organise measures of public health, sanitation and hygiene in fairs, investigate the causes, origin and spread of both epidemics and endemics, and adopt preventive measures to control diseases such as cholera, small-pox, plague, guinea-worm, malaria, poliomyelitis etc.; inspect and advise municipalities, village panchayats and village authorities about health, sanitation, drainage and water-supply; inspect child welfare and maternity work done by primary health centres and subsidised medical practitioners, look to industrial and school hygiene; recommend to the licensing authority the issue of licences for cinema theatres and other places of public amusements; inspect sites of school buildings, burial grounds, village extensions etc. and give opinion regarding their suitability from the public health point of view; and inspect factories in the capacity of ex-officio factory inspectors. They also carry out public health propaganda with the help of subordinate staff. The Satara District Health Officer also does all these things according to requirements.

Satara district comprises nine talukas and two petas, having a population of 1,175,309 and an area of 4,034 sq. miles.

The following health staff worked in Satara district in the year 1959 :—

Health Officer 1, Epidemic Medical Officers 2, Medical Officers in-charge, primary health centres 3, Sanitary Inspectors 8, Sanitary Sub-Inspectors 6, Compounders 3, Vaccinators 20, Health Visitors 5, Mid-wives 14, Social Worker (Family Planning Centre) 1.

CHAPTER 18. Medical and Public Health Services. PUBLIC HEALTH. Organisation.

Field Worker (Family Planning Centre) 1, Subsidised Medical Practitioner (Public Health Unit) 1, and other subordinate staff of 75 persons.

The following staff of primary health centres in Community Development Blocks, Patan and Wai is working under the administrative control of Block Authorities and will be taken over by this department, as soon as the Block period is over :—

Medical Officers in-charge, Public Health Centres 3, Health Visitors 2, Mid-wives 11 and other subordinate staff of 1 persons.

Satara district is an hypo-endemic for malaria i.e. it is non malarious and hence D.D.T. spraying work was not undertaken so far. But now under National Malaria Eradication Programme, the following staff has been sanctioned for Satara district :—

Malaria Medical Officer 1, Assistant Unit Officer 1, Malaria Supervisors 4, Malaria Inspectors 4, other subordinate staff of 35 and temporary staff engaged during some months of the year.

Functions of Public Health Officers. *Epidemic Medical Officers.*

The main duty of the Epidemic Medical Officers is to control epidemics and in non-epidemic period to adopt measures for prevention of epidemics and also to render medical relief in rural areas. A Mobile Hygiene Unit in charge of a Sanitary Inspector is provided with a truck (Mobile Van) and necessary materials for the purpose. On the first report of an out-break of an epidemic, they rush to the place to carry out mass inoculation or vaccination and disinfection and protection of water supply and domiciliary treatment.

Sanitary Inspectors.

The district is divided into five divisions and five Divisional Sanitary Inspectors are in charge of them. One Sanitary Inspector is in charge of the Mobile Hygiene Unit and two Sanitary Inspectors are working under the Medical Officers in charge of Public Health Centres. The Sanitary Inspector is responsible for all public health matters in his charge including control of epidemics, public health propaganda, sanitation etc. He conducts regular inspection with the intention of improving the standard of vaccination and sanitation in rural areas. Government have appointed persons with suitable qualifications as Sanitary Sub-Inspectors. There are six such Sanitary Sub-Inspectors; one of them is under Primary Health Unit, Wathar-Kiroli and one under Primary Health Centre, Nagthane.

Vaccinators.

The main duty of Vaccinators is to carry on vaccinations in the area under their respective charges. Some of these Vaccinators and the Sanitary Sub-Inspectors under whom the Sanitary Squads are working, assist in carrying out anti-epidemic measures and sanitary works in the villages. The main duty of these Sanitary Squads is to improve sanitation in villages which have no Panchayats. They construct soakage pits, manure pits, trench latrines and drains and fill pits and also clean the surroundings of schools, wells etc.

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Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

Primary Health Centres. *Organisation and Functions.*

Six Primary Health Centres, have been established in the district at Vadgaon and Indoli in Karad, Nagthane in Satara, Patan and Dhebewadi in Patan and Kavathe in Wai. First three of these centres, are under Public Health Department and the remaining three will be taken over as soon as the block periods are over. Every Primary Health Centre is a unit providing medical care both curative and preventive to the areas covering a population of about 66,000.

Each Primary Health Centre has been staffed with a Medical Officer, a Health Visitor, four Mid-wives and other subordinate staff.

A Health Visitor and a mid-wife are attached to the Headquarter place of the Centre while the three mid-wives are attached to three sub-centres working under the administrative control of the Medical Officer.

Medical Officer.

The Medical Officer is responsible for both curative and preventive work in his centre's area. He attends dispensary in the morning and visits centres and a number of villages in the afternoon for rendering medical aid. He carries out health survey of the village and arranges for collection and maintenance of vital statistics and other record for his jurisdiction. He supervises and guides the Health Visitors and Mid-wives under him. He is also responsible for submitting all returns and information to the Health Officer. In times of epidemics, he has to adopt preventive measures and help the Public Health staff to control the epidemics. The Medical Officer is also responsible for development of school health programme and medical examination of school children.

(Lady Doctor). *Health Visitor.*

The Health Visitor is responsible for the development of maternal and child health services in the area. She conducts ante-natal clinics at the main centre and at sub-centres of the Primary Health Service and arranges to give health talks to expectant mothers. She has also to carry out home visits. She visits once a week on fixed day each of the Sub-Centres and advises people on family planning. She supervises the work of mid-wives and *dais*. She maintains necessary records, helps in training of indigenous *dais*; assists the Medical Officer in development of school health programme and medical examination of school children. She is responsible for giving report of the work done in the field of maternal and child health in the area.

Mid-Wife.

The mid-wife works under the supervision of the Health Visitor. She takes particular care in the training of indigenous *dais* and attends labour cases in houses. During home visits she contacts the expectant mothers and encourages them to come to the Centre. She helps the Health Visitor in conducting the clinics and keeps the necessary record.

Sanitary Inspector.

The Sanitary Inspector works under the general supervision of the Medical Officer. He assists the Medical Officer in carrying out the health survey of the villages and is responsible for execution of the plan chalked out by the Medical Officer on the basis of the survey. He collects and consolidates vital statistics. He is in charge of environmental sanitation programme. He helps in the supervision

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

Primary Health Centres.

Sanitary Inspector.

and construction of wells, rural latrines, urinals, *magan chullas*, soakage pits etc. and visits schools for environmental sanitation. He carries out public health propaganda in the area of Primary Health Centre, in schools etc. and takes preventive measures to control epidemics *viz.* control measures against fly and mosquito nuisance, health education, formation of village committees etc. He is also responsible for maintenance of stock registers concerning his section.

The Primary Health Unit, Wathar-Kiroli in Koregaon taluka under Subsidised Medical Practitioner, and having staff of one Health Visitor, one mid-wife, one Sanitarian and one Sanitary squad, serves a population of 20,000. Their duties are same as those undertaken by the Primary Health Centre.

Maternity And Child Health Centre.

In 1959, there were two Maternity and Child Health Centres, one at Aundh and the other at Patan. The staff of the Maternity and Child Health Centre, Patan, is attached to the Public Health Centre, Patan. The staff of Maternity and Child Health Centre, Aundh, *viz.* two Nurses-*cum*-Mid-wives do maternity and child health work. The Nurse-Mid-wives are allotted a population of 5,000 for maternity and child health work, wherein they visit villages on specific days and give advice to expectant mothers and carry on maternity and child health work.

Family Planning Centres.

Two Family Planning Centres, one at Public Health Centre, Nagthana and the other at Public Health Centre, Indoli have been started. One Field Worker and one Social Worker have been appointed at each of the Centres, who work under the Medical Officer, in charge of the Public Health Centres, popularise the modern methods of family planning, emphasize the importance and need of family planning and organise vasectomy camps.

Obligatory Duties of Local Bodies.

Public vaccination and execution of measures necessary for the public health are the obligatory duties of the municipalities in urban area and the District Local Board in rural areas. The District Health Officer advises them in respect of public health and sanitary problems.

Municipalities.

There are in all nine municipalities in Satara district of which two are borough municipalities and the rest are district municipalities. The borough municipalities of Satara and Karad have not yet appointed Medical Officers of Health (July 1959). There are two Sanitary Inspectors with each of these municipalities. The other municipalities have one Sanitary Inspector each. The municipalities receive grant-in-aid towards payment of the Sanitary Inspectors. The Sanitary Inspectors bring to the notice of the Chief Officer defects noticed by them during the rounds and the Chief Officer takes action according to the powers vested in him under the by laws. There is one Government Vaccinator for Satara. Government recovers fixed contribution and the cost of pay and allowances of peon to the vaccinator from the municipality. The municipalities where Government Vaccinators perform vaccination pay contribution annually to Government. The municipalities in whose areas District Local Board Vaccinators perform vaccination pay fixed contribution to the District Local Board, Satara.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH. District Local Boards.

There is no Health Officer or Sanitary Inspector in the employ of District Local Board, Satara but there are 17 Vaccinators. The District Local Board receives fixed grant-in-aid from Government. Besides these there are two more vaccinators for Phaltan Taluka (formerly a State) absorbed in Government Service. The District Local Board pays fixed contribution of Rs. 1,770 and salaries of peons to the vaccinators. In villages having *Panchayats*, sanitation is looked after by them and they appoint conservancy staff under the supervision of the District Local Board. The Sanitary arrangements made by village panchayats are inspected by the officers of the Public Health Department and defects are brought to the notice of the President, District Local Board, Satara. The village panchayats are empowered to levy taxes to enable them to meet the expenses towards sanitation, improvement of the villages, purchase of medicines, disinfectants, lighting, water supply etc. In the area where there are no village panchayats, the District Local Board deals with the complaints directly.

The District Local Board has to meet all expenses regarding appointment of extra staff and purchase of medicines during epidemics.

Chief Diseases.

The following table gives the number of deaths due to chief diseases in Satara district from 1954 to 1958 :–

The chief diseases in the district are leprosy, malaria, tuberculosis and epidemic diseases like cholera and small-pox.

Leprosy.

From enquiries made through the Sanitary Inspectors and other agencies, it is seen that more than 2,000 persons suffer from this disease. Recently a Leprosy Subsidiary Centre has been established at Karad.

The Non-Medical Assistants at the Centre are doing survey work and treatment of patients in selected areas in Karad taluka covering a population of 60,000. Leprosy Subsidiary Centre is provided with a jeep.

One Leprosy Clinic is also conducted at Satara. A Medical Officer and a dresser from Medical Department and Non-Medical Assistant conduct the clinic on fixed days every week. The Non-Medical Assistant, Satara has also to do survey work for detection of leprosy cases and direct them to the Clinic at Satara. The American Maratha Mission is also working in the district in this connection and receives grant-in-aid from Government.

Malaria.

In the year 1959, a new Malaria unit with its Head-quarters at Satara, was started for Satara district under the National Malaria Eradication Programme. The district has been divided into four sub-units and for each sub-unit one Malaria Supervisor and one Malaria Inspector is appointed to conduct day-to-day spraying operations. The district consists of 11 talukas out of which four talukas *viz.* Javli, Phaltan, Khandala and Man will get two rounds of D.D.T. spray in a year. The remaining seven talukas being hypoendemic will get only one round of spray every year.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

Chief Diseases.

Tuberculosis.

During 1958, in all 1,015 cases were treated in the dispensaries in this district. Few talukas in the district are taken for B.C.G. Vaccination every year.

Guineaworm.

The disease is prevalent in some talukas as the water supply is from step wells and tanks and infected persons due to ignorance freely contaminate the water. Steps are being taken to convert the step wells into draw wells. Arrangements to disinfect the water supply through the sanitary squads are made every year.

Epidemics.

In urban areas it is the statutory duty of the municipalities to provide special medical aid, accommodation for sick and to meet all expenses during epidemic time and take such measures as may be necessary to prevent out-break or to supress and prevent the recurrence of an epidemic. In rural areas the primary responsibility of fighting epidemics rests with the District Local Board, Satara. As per Government orders the District Local Board, has to set apart annually a lump sum equal to average of amounts spent during the preceding three years. During epidemics this grant is placed at the disposal of the Health Authorities for emergency measures. The Collector of the District is empowered to take action in consultation with the District Health Officer, the Deputy Director of Public Health Services, and the Director of Public Health, Poona, if he finds that the measures taken by the Board are inadequate. Similarly powers have also been conferred on the Collector in respect of the urban areas. The control measures in times of epidemics are organised by health department and the services of all the Medical Officers, and Subsidised Medical Practitioners are also utilised.

Cholera.

The main season for the out-break of cholera is rainy season, but occasionally it crops up in summer also, when there is scarcity of water. The spread of infection takes place through rivers, and water sources. As a routine, the Health Department staff is directed to take up disinfection of water supplies and anti-cholera inoculations in their respective areas. The Epidemic Medical Officers and the Mobile Hygiene Unit Staff are directed to take preventive measures. Segregation and treatment of cases is also undertaken by the Epidemic Medical Officers with the help of dispensary Medical Officers. Temporary Hospitals for cholera patients are also opened wherever the epidemic is prevalent.

Small-pox.

Small-pox prevails sometimes in mild form and the disease is fought mainly by means of vaccination.

Plague.

The disease has been completely absent in this district since 1950. As Satara district was endemic for plague in the past and also as plague infection has a tendency to remain dormant for a number of years in an area rather than disappear from that area, the plague organisation of Maharashtra State has been temporarily stationed at Satara and it is carrying out systematic investigation to locate the possible focus of lingering plague infection in this area.

CHAPTER 16. — Medical and Public Health Services. PUBLIC HEALTH. *Fairs.*

In respect of the fairs managed by Government, the District Health Officer, Satara undertakes to organise (with the help of Revenue Authorities and District Local Board) the sanitary arrangements in the fairs. Pilgrim tax is collected by the Revenue Department and the amount collected is credited to Public Health Department. With regard to the fairs managed by the local bodies, the sanitary arrangements are organised by the respective village panchayats or the municipalities under the supervision of the Public Health Department. Pilgrim tax is levied to meet the expenses in connection with sanitary arrangements. In all fairs, anti-cholera inoculations are made compulsory. If there is small-pox epidemic, mass vaccination is also made compulsory.

Propaganda.

Public health propaganda is done by the Sanitary Inspectors, Staff of the Primary Health Centres and Sanitary Sub-Inspectors through magic lanterns, lectures, health talks on all subjects of public health importance such as cholera, small-pox, nutritious food, prevention of blindness, school and personal hygiene, antenatal and postnatal care, smokeless *chullas,* latrines, hirakhat urinals, family planning etc. At fairs, exhibitions are arranged where posters and models on public health subjects are exhibited.

Medical Inspection of School Children.

The Epidemic Medical Officers and the Medical Officers in charge, Primary Health Centres carry on medical examination of school children during course of their tour and distribute drugs for minor ailments and vitamin tablets to children suffering from deficiency diseases.

Vital Statistics.

The compilation of statistics of births and deaths for Satara district, is done in the office of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Vital Statistics and Epidemiology, Poona. In the municipal areas, the municipalities concerned maintain registers of births and deaths and forward monthly extracts to the Assistant Director of Public Health, Vital Statistics and Epidemiology, Poona. In rural areas the register is maintained by the village officer, and monthly extracts are sent by the village officers to the Taluka Officers for onward transmission to the Assistant Director of Public Health, Vital Statistics and Epidemiology, Poona. The Public Health Staff during course of their tour inspect the birth and death registers and omissions noted are brought to the notice of the mamlatdars of the talukas concerned.

Water Supply.

There are only four towns in Satara district which have piped water supply *viz.,* Satara, Karad, Phaltan and Satara Suburban. Piped water supply scheme for Nagathana village has been undertaken from Block funds. In other areas the main source of drinking water is wells, rivers and nallas. Schemes for sinking new wells are in progress.

THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT. Organisation

The medical organisation of the State, as distinct from its public health organisation, is essentially a hospital organisation designed to render curative medical relief to the general population with ancillary specialist sections providing medical relief, medical teaching, training

CHAPTER 16. — Medical and Public Health Services. MEDICAL.

of nurses and mid-wives, X-ray and laboratory technicians and research etc.

Civil Hospital, Satara.

In Satara district, the Civil Hospital, Satara is the main Government Hospital at the headquarters. It is owned, staffed, financed and controlled by Government. There are also three other Government medical institutions in this district each at Mahabaleshwar, Phaltan and Aundh. Besides, there are also a number of Government-aided dispensaries which are scattered throughout the district. The aided dispensaries are mostly owned and managed by municipalities and the District Local Board, Satara. Government have prescribed that the municipalities and the District Local Board must devote at least 4 per cent. and 10 per cent. respectively of their annual income to medical activities to entitle them to receive grant-in-aid from Government.

Medical Officers.

The medical officers in charge of the municipal and the District Local Board dispensaries are for the most part, Government servants, who draw their salaries direct from Government. The local bodies pay contribution to Government at the rate of Rs. 2,355 per year for Allopathic doctors and Rs. 1,827·75 for Ayurvedic doctors, on account of pay of the medical officers lent to them and the Government pays equal amount as grant-in-aid to the municipalities and the District Local Board for maintenance of their dispensaries. The municipal and District Local Board dispensaries are governed by the Rules for the Regulation of Government-aided Charitable Dispensaries 1928, whereby among other things, the medical officers are required to perform the medico-legal and post-mortem work. The institutions are under the management of respective local bodies and the affairs of the institutions are supervised by a Dispensary Committee appointed by the respective local body. Grant-in-aid is also given to private charitable hospitals and dispensaries equal to the ½ of their approved expenditure or the amount equal to their deficit whichever is less in case of deserving cases.

Administration.

The Civil Surgeon, Satara, is the administrative head of the medical organisation in the district and is directly sub-ordinate to the Deputy Director of Medical Services, Poona Division, Poona. He is in charge of the medical arrangements of Civil Hospital, Satara, and exercises complete control over the medical officers in the district. He is also the head of Government medical officers in the district, and is responsible for the proper performance of duties on their part. He is in addition the inspecting officer of all Government and Grant-in-aid Hospitals and Dispensaries and that of Subsidised Medical Practitioner Centres in the district. As regards sanitary administration and public health matters the Civil Surgeon also takes active part in them in collaboration with the District Health Officer. He has under him inclusive of the institutions in the District, a medical staff of five salaried graduates, nine salaried licentiates, two honorary graduates and two honorary licentiates.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

MEDICAL.

Administration.

The Civil Hospital, Satara, is situated on the main road on the eastern side of the town. It is an old type structure with an accommodation for 75 beds. It is well-equipped. There is an X-ray plant with screening arrangement of 100 milli ampere. There is a fairly well-equipped Laboratory conducted by a qualified and trained laboratory technician. There is an Out Patient Department with separate blocks for male and female patients, and a dispensary. There is also a maternity ward with eight beds and separate wards for lunatics and tetanus patients. The patients with the infectious diseases are kept separately in the segregation ward outside the hospital compound at a distance of about 100 yards. There is also a T.B. Ward for accommodating 10 patients. T.B. clinic is held twice a week for pneumetherapy to out-door patients. The total number of indoor patients treated in 1958 was 3,417 and out-door patients 16,156 and daily average was 9·9 and 44·2 respectively. The expenditure in 1957-58 was Rs. 1,16,225.

There is an advisory committee attached to the Civil Hospital consisting of the Civil Surgeon as Chairman and six other members. The functions of this committee are to help the management of the hospital by keeping the authorities informed as to the needs of the hospital as viewed by the public for the welfare of the patients. The departmental rules provide for the election of members of the committee, of representatives from the District Local Board, municipalities and from prominent citizens and two ladies.

The present staff (1960) of the hospital consists of the Civil Surgeon (M. M. S., Class-I), the Sub-Charge (M. M. S., Class-II) and three M. M. S., Class-III Officers including one lady doctor. The Honorary staff consists of four medical officers. There are 14 staff nurses and one mid-wife.

In addition to the Civil Hospital there are three Government hospitals and dispensaries in this district, *viz.*, (1) Morarji Gokuldas General Hospital, Mahabaleshwar, (2) State Dispensary, Phaltan and (3) State Dispensary, Aundh. The latter two institutions were taken over from the former princely States. There is one private Government aided ayurvedic hospital in Satara open to the public. The Satara Borough Municipality also runs a maternity home in the town for the public.

Besides the above, there are eight dispensaries either maintained by the District Local Board or by respective Municipalities and the services of medical officers are lent to them by Government. The dispensaries are at Panchgani, Wai, Rahimatpur, Mhaswad, Pusesavali, Dahiwadi, Patan and Medha. Of these the dispensary at Medha is ayurvedic. The Karad municipality maintains its own dispensary. The Civil Surgeon is the inspecting authority of the dispensary and as the medical officer in charge of the dispensary he is allowed to do post-mortem and medico-legal work for which he is paid Rs. 4 per case.

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

MEDICAL.

Subsidised Medical Practitioner Centres.

There are 22 Subsidised medical practitioner centres in the district located at 21 places *viz.*, Kudal, Helwak, Parli, Kaledhon, Kiwal, Bahule, Pusegaon, Pimpode Bk., Kukudwad, Dhom, Undale, Limb, Chinchner-Vandan, Vaduj, Mhopre, Chaphal, Uchat, Rethare Bk., Girvi, Jawle and Kinhai.

This scheme was introduced in 1936 with an intention to encourage qualified medical practitioners to settle in rural areas and to provide medical aid to the public in remote areas. Under this scheme, the practitioner gets a monthly subsidy of Rs. 150 if he is an allopathic practitioner, Rs. 120 if he is an ayurvedic practitioner and Rs. 80 in case of an unqualified registered medical practitioner – plus fixed travelling allowance of Rs. 37·50 and petty contingencies of Rs. 7 per month. Grants of Rs. 500 and Rs. 300 per annum are sanctioned to the allopathic and the ayurvedic centre, respectively. The expenditure of the above Subsidised medical practitioner centres excepting one at Kinhai is borne by Government and District Local Board in the proportion of 4 : 1 respectively. The expenditure of subsidised medical practitioner centre at Kinhai is borne by Government alone. During the year 1957-58 the expenditure incurred by Government on the subsidised medical practitioner centres was Rs. 47,005·18.

CHAPTER 17—OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

LABOUR Organisation.

LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS fall within the administrative control of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. He has now under him three Deputy Commissioners of Labour (two at Bombay and one at Nagpur), 16 Assistant Commissioners of Labour (12 at Bombay, 2 at Nagpur, 1 at Poona and 1 at Aurangabad), Chief Inspector of Factories, Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances and Government Labour Officer, Bombay. He supervises and co-ordinates the working of the above mentioned offices under his control.

Office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Administration) which was hitherto a separate office was amalgamated with the office of the Commissioner of Labour with effect from 16th August, 1958. The Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, administers the statutory functions entrusted to him under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, the Industrial Disputes Act, the Minimum Wages Act and the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act. In addition, the office performs the following functions :—

(1) Compilation and publication of the Consumer Price Index Numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded.

(2) Conducting of Socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour.

(3) Compiling and disseminating information on labour matters generally and statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mill production, trade unions, etc. particularly.

(4) Collection of statistics under the Collection of Statistics Act, 1953.

(5) Publication of two monthlies *viz.* :

(*i*) The Labour Gazette, and

(*ii*) The Industrial Court Reporter.

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. LABOUR Organisation.

Under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 the Central Government is the appropriate authority to deal with industrial disputes concerning any industry carried on by or under the authority of the Central Government or by a railway company or concerning any such controlled industry as may be specified in this behalf by the Central Government or in respect of banking companies having branches in more than one State including the State Bank of India and the Reserve Bank of India, the Life Insurance Corporation or insurance companies having branches in more than one State or a mine, an oil-field or a major port. Conciliation work in other labour disputes arising in the Satara district is done by the Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Poona, who has been notified as Conciliator and Conciliation Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and the Industrial Disputes Act respectively.

One of the Assistant Commissioners of Labour, Bombay, has been appointed as Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 and has jurisdiction over the entire State. He has one Assistant Registrar under him. The Registrar's work is of a quasi-judicial nature and falls under the following heads, *viz.* (a) recognition of undertakings and occupations; (b) registration of unions, (c) maintenance of approved lists of unions; (d) registration of agreements, settlements, submissions and awards, and (e) maintenance of a list of joint committees constituted under section 48 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Labour Unions.

In Satara district there were two unions registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946 *viz.* (i) Satara Reshim Kamgar Union, Satara City, Satara, with a membership of about 53 in the silk textile industry and (ii) Phaltan Taluka Sakhar Kamgar Union, Sakharwadi, with a membership of about 2,357 in the sugar industry. Both the unions were entered in the approved list of unions. A joint committee constituted in the Phaltan Sugar Works Ltd., Sakharwadi, Satara, was registered under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946.

Undertakings.

There were 26 undertakings in the banking industry, two in the sugar industry and one each in the cotton textile and silk textile industry, recognised under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. There was no other concern recognised in any of the other industries covered by the Act, in the district.

One of the Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay has been notified as the Registrar of Trade Unions for the State of Maharashtra under section 3 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 in addition to his duties as Deputy Commissioner of Labour. He is assisted in his work by the Assistant Registrar, Bombay (in addition to the duties of Assistant Registrar under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act).

The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes the registration of trade unions under the Act, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the unions and preparation of the annual report on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by registered trade unions under section 28 of the Act.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.
LABOUR
Wages and Earnings.

On 31st December 1957 in Satara district there were twenty-three unions registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. Of these, eight unions were from the "Services" group, seven from the "Manufacturing" group, three from the "Miscellaneous" group, two each from the "Agriculture and Allied Activities" and the "Commerce" groups and the remaining one union was from the "Construction" group.

The Industrial Court has fixed the rate of minimum wage for an unskilled worker at Rs. 23·15 for a month of 26 working days in the case of the Phaltan Sugar Works Limited, Sakharwadi, while in the case of Shri Sitaram Silk Mills, Satara the minimum rate fixed is Rs. 24 for those getting wages between Rs. 15 and Rs. 20, Rs. 26 for those getting Rs. 21 to Rs. 25 and Rs. 35 for those getting wages over Rs. 26. The rate of dearness allowance awarded in the former case is Rs. 45 per month or Rs. 1·69 per day, while in the latter case the rate of dearness allowance is Rs. 22 per month.

The Government of Maharashtra has fixed the rates of minimum wages for different categories of workers (skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled) in respect of employments, in any (i) rice mill, flour mill or *dal* mill, (ii) tobacco (including Bidi making) manufactory, (iii) oil mill, (iv) under any local authority, (v) on the construction or maintenance of roads or building operations, (vi) the stone breaking or stone crushing, (vii) public motor transport, (viii) tanneries and leather manufactory, (ix) industry in which process of printing by letter press, lithography, photo gravure or other similar work or work incidental to such process or book binding is carried on, (x) cotton ginning and cotton pressing manufactory, specified in Schedule I to the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, and the rates fixed have been published in the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 and the Bombay Minimum Wages Rules, 1951, pages 44-103 of 1956 edition.

The Bombay Shops and Establishments Act (LXXIX of 1948) has been applied in the district to the municipal areas of Satara, Patan and Karad.

Employees' State Insurance Act.

"The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and the Employees Provident Funds Act, 1952 are applicable to the Satara district. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 has not, however, been extended to the district.

Labour Officers.

A Labour Officer has been posted at Kolhapur to be in-charge of Kolhapur, Satara and Sangli districts. He is a Class II Gazetted Officer and belongs to the General State Service. The office of the Labour Officer, Kolhapur, was opened in the year 1950 consequent upon the merger of the former princely States of Kolhapur and others in Southern Maratha countries in the then Bombay State. He works under the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, the Government Labour Officer, Bombay, and the Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Poona who is an officer-in-charge of the division. The Labour Officer is appointed primarily to implement the provisions of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, which is a State Act and is also notified as an Inspector under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 and also under

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. LABOUR Labour Officers.

the Payment of Wages Act. In addition, he has been appointed as an Additional Inspector of Factories in respect of certain sections pertaining to the welfare provisions under the Factories Act. The powers conferred and the duties imposed on a Labour Officer under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act are not restricted to any particular section under that Act; but are scattered throughout the whole Act. However, the powers and the duties of the Labour Officer are mainly given in Chapter VI and section 34 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act. For the purpose of exercising his powers and performing his duties, a Labour Officer may enter any place used for any industry, any place used as the office of any union and any premises, provided by an employer for the residence of his employees and he is entitled to call for and inspect all relevant documents which he may deem necessary for the due discharge of his duties and powers under this Act. He has also the power of convening a meeting of employees for any of the purposes of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, in the premises where the employees are employed and he may require the employer to affix a written notice of the meeting at such conspicuous place he may order. A Labour Officer is charged with duties of watching the interest of employees and promoting harmonious relations between the employers and the employees, of investigating the grievances of employees who are not members of the approved union and of members of an approved union on the request of such a union, of representing to the employers such grievances and of making recommendations to them in respect of the same and of reporting to the State Government the existence of any industrial dispute of which no notice of change has been given together with the names of the parties thereto. A Labour Officer, in certain contingencies, acts as a representative of the employees if so authorised by them and where a representative union does not exist and he is not authorised also by the employees to act as their representative and where the employees themselves do not elect their own representatives from amongst them, then he becomes their representative *suo motu*. In short, a Labour Officer has to work as a sort of residual representative of the employees. He has also to help a representative and an approved union. He has always to be in touch with the changes in the labour situation in the undertakings in the various industries covered by the Bombay Industrial Relations Act and to report major and important incidents to his superior officers and Government. He intervenes whenever there is a stoppage of work or strike and gives correct legal guidance and advice to the employees involved in such incidents and he does likewise in respect of employers in connection with the closures and lock-outs which may not be legal. In short, he explains the correct position under the law to the parties concerned with a view to seeing that any illegal action on their part is rectified by them without any delay. A Labour Officer is probably the only executive officer envisaged under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act by virtue of powers conferred on him under section 82 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act under which except the persons affected by any offence under the Act, who can make a complaint to the Labour Court, the Labour Court constituted

Labour Officers.

under the said Act cannot take cognisance of any offence except on a report in writing by the Labour Officer of facts constituting such offence. In addition to the above, a Labour Officer can also start proceedings in a Labour Court under section 79 read with section 78 of the said Act. In short, a Labour Officer has been given very heavy, onerous and heterogeneous duties and responsibilities. He also informally advises the trade unions whenever they ask his advice on the labour matters. For the purpose of certification of standing orders under the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, a Labour Officer helps the Commissioner of Labour who is the Certifying Officer under that Act in holding elections of the workmen concerned for the purpose of getting the names of their representatives who are to be associated with the discussions when the draft standing orders are to be certified. In addition he investigates individual complaints in his capacity as Labour Officer.

Minimum Wages Act.

So far as the enforcement of the provisions of the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, in Satara district is concerned, the establishments in the scheduled employments are looked after by the Minimum Wages Inspector stationed at Poona, except the work under the Act of District Head Quarters and Sub-Divisional Head Quarters pertaining to the employment under Local Authorities which is looked after by District Labour Officer, Kolhapur.

Industrial Arbitration.

The Court of Industrial Arbitration (or the Industrial Court as it is commonly referred to), Bombay, as constituted under section 10 of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, has jurisdiction over the State except Vidarbha region where the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, is functioning under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act. The duties and powers of the Industrial Court are detailed in Chapter XIII of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, as a court of arbitration in Industrial disputes referred to it by the Government, the representative unions, and jointly by the parties to a dispute. In its appellate jurisdiction it decides appeals, preferred to it from the decisions of the Labour Courts, the Wage Boards, the Registrar appointed under Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, and the Commissioner of Labour. References on points of Law can be made to it by the Conciliator, Commissioner of Labour, Labour Courts, Wage Boards and by Government. The Government may also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lock-out, closure or stoppage would be illegal. It also hears appeals in criminal cases, pertaining to offences under the Act, from the decisions of the Labour Courts.

There are two Labour Courts in the State and both are at Bombay. The Labour Courts, Bombay, exercise jurisdiction over Satara district. These Courts are presided over by the Labour Court Judges. The Labour Court decides disputes regarding orders passed by an employer under the standing orders governing the relations between employee and employer, changes made in industrial matters, and special disputes referred to it under the Act. It has also powers to decide upon the legality or otherwise of a strike, lock-out, closure,

CHAPTER 17.

—

Other Social Services.

LABOUR

stoppage or change. The Labour Court has also jurisdiction to try persons for offences punishable under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Wage Boards.

There are three Wage Boards appointed for the whole State, one for cotton textile industry, second for silk textile industry and third for sugar industry. A separate Wage Board has also been constituted for Vidarbha region. The Wage Boards are to decide such disputes as are referred to them by the State Government under section 86-C, and 86-KK, of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act.

Factory Department.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control of the technical side of the work of the department over the whole State. The department is responsible mainly for the administration of the Factories Act (LXIII of 1948), but the administration of the following Acts has also been assigned to it:—

(1) The Payment of Wages Act (IV of 1936).

(2) The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925), section 9, regarding approval of plans of new ginning factories.

(3) The Employment of Children Act (XXXVI of 1938).

(4) The Bombay Maternity Benefit Act (VII of 1929).

(5) The Minimum Wages Act (XI of 1948).

(6) The Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act (XL of 1953).

The department has a sub-office at Poona in-charge of the Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, an officer belonging to the General State Service. The jurisdiction of this office extends over the districts of Poona, Ahmadnagar, Satara, Sholapur, Sangli, Kolhapur, Ratnagiri, Bhir, Nanded, Osmanabad, Parbhani, and Aurangabad. The main function of the Inspector is to ensure that provisions of the Factories Act are observed by the management of the factories to which the Act is applicable. He is also responsible for the enforcement of the other enactments with the administration of which the Factories Department has been entrusted. His activities extend to securing labour welfare amenities such as education, recreation and sports, co-operative societies and housing. Under section 8 (4) of the Factories Act, the District Magistrate of Satara is also an Inspector of the district. In addition, all sub-Divisional Magistrates, Mamlatdars, Mahalkaris and the officers of the Public Health Department have been appointed as additional Inspectors for certain provisions of the Act. Under rules made in accordance with section 9, the full-time Inspector (but not as Additional Inspector) has power to prosecute, conduct or defend before a court any complaint or other proceeding arising under the Act or in discharge of his duties as Inspector.

Workmen's Compensation Act.

Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has been given exclusive jurisdiction over the Greater Bombay District. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relat-

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. LABOUR Workmen's Compensation Act.

ing to the Western and Central Railways and the hydro-electric companies under the management of Messrs. Tata Hydro-Electric Agencies Ltd., arising in the State irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State. The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Satara, is the *ex-officio* Commissioner for Satara district.

The main aim in giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle the cases with insurance companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay City. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under section 20 (*2*) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex-officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised :—

(*a*) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (*1*) and (*2*) of section 8 ;

(*b*) to issue notices to, and to receive applications from, dependents in cases of deposits under these sub-sections ; and

(*c*) to receive agreements for registration under section 28, wherever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex-officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8 (*1*) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of Act should be made to the *ex-officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to employers under section 10-A requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the districts are issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioners and reports of fatal accidents made under section 10-B are also received by them. After notice has been issued by the *ex-officio* Commissioner under section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for review or commutation of half-monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex-officio* Commissioners concerned.

Payment of Wages Act, 1936.

In the Satara district the Civil Judge has been appointed authority for the areas within his jurisdiction.

Minimum Wages Act.

The Civil Judges who have been appointed authorities under the Payment of Wages Act, have been appointed authorities under the Minimum Wages Act to hear and decide claims arising out of payment of less than the minimum rates of wages to employees employed or paid in their respective jurisdictions.

Steam Boiler and Smoke Nuisances Department.

The function of this department is to carry out yearly inspection of steam boilers after they are registered in this State or after recording their transfer from other States and to grant working certificates

CHAPTER 17.

—

Other Social Services.

LABOUR

Steam Boiler and Smoke Nuisances Department.

thereof to ensure their safe working and also to prevent emission of smoke from furnaces and chimneys in excess of legal limits and to prevent any new furnaces being erected before plans are approved by this department. The Bombay Smoke Nuisances Act, 1912 is in operation so far in the city of Sholapur in addition to the Greater Bombay area. The department also conducts examinations for certificates of competency as boiler attendants and of proficiency as Engineers.

There are about 35 working boilers located in Satara district. Inspection of these boilers for renewal of boiler certificates is carried out by an Inspector with his head-quarters in Bombay. For this purpose the Inspector visits Satara district thrice a year. This Inspector also inspects boilers in other districts comprised in the Southern Division, *viz.* Poona, Sangli and Kolhapur. The office of the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Maharashtra State, who is the head of the office is also situated at Bombay.

Persons desirous of qualifying themselves as boiler attendants and as proficiency engineers (Mechanical) from this district are required to go to Bombay where these examinations are held under the auspices of the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

SINCE THE INTRODUCTION OF COMPLETE PROHIBITION in the former areas of the State of Bombay from 1st April 1950, the former Department of Excise has come to be designated as the Department of Prohibition and Excise. The Officer-in-charge of the administration of this department in Satara district is the Collector of the district. In relation to this department, he is responsible to the Director of Prohibition and Excise, Maharashtra State. He is invested with various powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949) and also exercises powers under the Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930), the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of 1936) and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act, 1952, the Spirituous Preparations (Inter-State Trade and Commerce) Control Act, 1955, Medicinal and Toilet Preparations (Excise Duties) Act, 1955. Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibition and restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licences, permits and passes under the Act.

The District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Satara, assists the Collector and is in actual charge of the work of the department in the district. He has under him one sub-inspector stationed at Karad, who is in-charge of Karad, Patan, Man, Koregaon, Khatav and Phaltan talukas. The District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise and sub-inspectors have also been invested with certain powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act and the Bombay Drugs (Control) Act.

Medical Boards.

In each taluka a medical board has been constituted consisting of the medical officer in-charge of the Government dispensary, Local Board or municipal dispensary and one private independent medical practitioner nominated by Government. The functions of the board are to examine medically any person who applies for a permit to possess opium, *ganja* or *bhang* for personal consumption and who is directed by the Collector or an Officer authorised to grant such permit, for medical examination and, on examination, to issue a medical certificate specifying the disease the applicant is suffering from, the drug recommended for personal consumption as a medical necessity and the quantity of the drug which may be permitted per month for personal consumption. Medical examination of applicants for permits for foreign liquor on grounds of health is done by the Government Medical Officers at the Government hospitals or dispensaries in the district. So far as the town of Satara is concerned the certificates of such examination are issued by the Civil Surgeon himself and at other places they are issued by the Government Medical Officers and countersigned by the Civil Surgeon, Satara.

Enforcement Work.

The Police Department is entrusted with the work of prevention, detection, investigation and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act and the other allied Acts. Officers of the Prohibition and Excise department of and above the rank of Inspector have been invested with powers to investigate offences. The Prohibition and Excise officers pass on any information received by them in connection with Prohibition offences to the Police Department and if any prohibition cases are detected by them they are handed over to the police for investigation. The Home Guards organisation also assists the police in this work.

Under section 134 of the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949, all village officers or servants useful to Government and all officers of other departments of the State Government, and officers and servants of local authorities are bound not only to give information to the police of breaches of the provisions of the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 which may come to their knowledge, but also to prevent the commission of breaches of the said Act about which they may have knowledge. Under section 135, occupants of land or buildings, landlords of estates and owners of vessels or vehicles are in the absence of reasonable excuse, bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or unlawful manufacture of any liquor or intoxicating drugs taking place on or in such land, building, estate, vessel or vehicle as the case may be, to a magistrate, prohibition officer or police officer as soon as it comes to their knowledge.

All magistrates and all revenue officers of and above the rank of Mamlatdar or Mahalkari and all Officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of sub-inspector have been authorised under section 123 of the Prohibition Act, within the limits of their respective jurisdiction to arrest without warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the said Act, and to seize and detain any article which they have reason to believe to be liable to confiscation or forfeiture under the

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

said Act. The officers when they so arrest any person or seize and detain any such article have to forward such person or article without unnecessary delay to the Officer in-charge of the nearest police station.

Effects of Prohibition.

As prohibition was introduced in the district in gradual stages from 1947-48 a comparison is given of the consumption of liquor and intoxicating drugs in 1945-46, 1950-51 (the year in which complete prohibition was in force) and 1952-53 :—

	1946-47	1950-51	1952-53
Country liquor (in proof gallons).	17,190	Nil	Nil
Toddy (in gallons) ..	27,950	Nil	Nil
Beer (in Imperial gallons).	425	Nil	Nil
Wines (in Imperial gallons).	265	Nil	Nil
Ganja (in seers) ..	4,769	42	14
Bhang (in seers) ..	129	2	3
Opium (in seers) ..	13	16	8
Spirits (superior, imported units).	827	Nil	Nil
Spirits (cheap, Indian units).	1,995	19	20

The total excise revenue which was Rs. 19,72,661 in 1945-46 was only Rs. 47,786 in 1950-51 and Rs. 9,190 in 1952-53.

Kinds of Permits.

Permits of the following kinds are granted for the possession, use and consumption of foreign liquor.

Emergency.

Emergency permit is granted for the use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for his own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his household for medicinal use on emergent occasions. The permit is granted for a period not beyond 31st March next following the date of the commencement of the permit and for a quantity not exceeding 6 2/3 fluid ounces of brandy or rum or 13 1/3 fluid ounces of champagne per six months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at any one time. The term 'household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as members of one domestic unit.

Health.

The health permit is granted for use or consumption of foreign liquor for a quantity up to the maximum of two units* a month to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. This permit may be granted for a quantity exceeding two units but not more than three units a month if the applicant at the time of making an application is more than 55 years of age provided—

(a) the applicant has made such application within three months of the expiry of the health permit held by him authorising him to consume more than two units; and

* One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle (of 26 2/3 ozs.) of spirit or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent. of alcohol by volume.

(*b*) the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, recommends to such applicant a quantity in excess of two units.

This permit is usually granted for a period not exceeding that recommended by the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board as the case may be, but such period shall not exceed six months in any case,

Provided that the permit may be granted for a period not exceeding 12 months in the case of persons over 60 years of age.

Temporary Resident's.

A Temporary Resident's permit is issued to persons born and brought up or domiciled in any foreign country, where liquor is generally used or consumed. No permit is granted for a period beyond 31st March next following the date of its commencement. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity not exceeding four units as the Collector may fix in each case.

Visitor's.

Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor has to apply to the Collector. The permit is granted for a period not exceeding one week. The Collector may extend the period of such permit but in no case shall such period be extended to a total period exceeding one month. No permit is granted for a quantity exceeding one unit per week.

Interim

Any person who is eligible for a permit under Rule 63, 64 or 68 of the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953 and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor may apply to the Collector or any other officer authorised in this behalf for an interim permit while applying for a regular permit under any of the said rules. No such permit is granted for a period exceeding two months. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity of foreign liquor as the Collector may fix; provided that such quantity shall not in any case exceed two units of foreign liquor per month if the permit holder is not eligible for permit under rule 63 or 68 or four units of foreign liquor per month in other cases, except with the sanction of the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

Tourist's.

This permit is issued free to a foreign tourist holding a tourist introduction card or tourist visa. The quantity of foreign liquor granted under this permit is four units per month and the maximum period for which it is granted is one month.

Special Permits for Privileged Persons.

This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are the nationals of a foreign State. It is also granted to their consorts and relatives.

The permit is granted for any quantity of foreign liquor if the permit holder is a Sovereign or Head of Foreign State or his consort. If the permit-holder is any other person, the permit is granted for a quantity of foreign liquor not exceeding that which may be fixed by the State Government.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc. of toddy is totally prohibited.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited except under permit. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit upto a maximum quantity of two bottles per month is granted for domestic purposes. The possession and use of denatured spirit for medical, industrial, scientific or such similar purpose is also regulated by permit system.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Authorisation for the use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to persons of certain communities viz. Parsees, Jews and Christians.

Ganja, Bhang and Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of opium, *ganja* or *bhang* is granted only on the production of a medical certificate from the medical board constituted by Government for the purpose. The maximum quantity which may be allowed per month under such permit is 15 *tolas* in the case of *ganja* and *bhang* and 7½ tolas in the case of opium. A permit can be granted for only one of these drugs.

Use for Industrial Purposes, etc.

The possession, use, transport, sale, etc. of dangerous drugs are permitted under rules made in this behalf. Similarly possession, use, sale, etc. of mhowra flowers, molasses, rectified spirit and absolute alcohol are also permitted for industrial, medical and similar purposes under rules made under the Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949.

Neera and Palm Products.

The working of the neera and palm products scheme in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay is entrusted to the Bombay Village Industries Board. Tho Board is doing the neera and plam gur work either itself or through co-operative societies or suitable institutions of constructive social workers such as (1) *Gandhi Smarak Nidhi*, (2) *Sarvodaya* Centres, and (3) *Ashrams*. The tapping of palm trees, drawing of neera and sale and supply of neera are regulated under licences granted by the Collector under the Bombay Neera Rules, 1951.

Prohibition Sub-Committee of the District Development Board.

With a view to amalgamating the activities of Government at district level, Government has set up a District Development Board in each district for advising and helping Government in respect of prohibition, rural development, labour-welfare, irrigation, publicity, etc. With the setting up of the District Development Board for the Satara district, the former District Prohibition Committee has been replaced by a Prohibition Sub-Committee of the District Development Board consisting of ten members. The Chairman of the Sub-Committee is non-official, and the District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Satara is its Secretary. The Sub-Committee consists of eight non-officials and two officials.

Taluka Prohibition Drive Committee.

To make the enforcement of prohibition more effective, Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees in areas other than Community Project and National Extension Service Areas and Community Development Blocks under the auspices of the District Development Board, Satara have been formed. There is such a committee for each taluka/mahal in the district. The mamlatdar/mahalkari of the respective taluka/mahal is the Chairman of the committee. The Police Sub-Inspector at the taluka/mahal/headquarters is the Secretary of the committee. A representative of the taluka/mahal Home Guards organisation is

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE. Taluka Prohibition Drive Committee.

also a member of the committee. The main functions of the Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees are: (1) to collect information relating to prohibition offences and to pass it on to the Police Sub-Inspector in-charge of the Prohibition Squad; (2) to assist the Police to muster good *panchas* whenever necessary, (3) to organise the programmes for Prohibition Drive, (4) to study the social and economic conditions of persons engaged in anti-prohibition activities and to suggest to its Chairman ameliorative measures for their families so that they may give up their illegal activities and take to alternative employment, etc. and (5) to prepare and maintain the following lists :--

(*a*) list of the villages involved in illicit distillation, transport, possession and sale of liquor;

(*b*) village-wise list of persons or families involved in illicit distillation, transport, possession and sale of liquor;

(*c*) list of persons habituated to drink;

(*d*) list of persons or licensees doing tincture business or selling spirit, french polish, etc. in the areas for misuse as intoxicants.

Special Committees.

To carry out prohibition propaganda in the Project and National Extension Service Areas, special committees called the sub-committees of the Block Advisory Committees have been constituted. The Social Education Officer of the area is the Secretary of such committee. These committees have also to deal with the work relating to the enforcement of prohibition as is done by the Taluka Prohibition Drive Committees, in addition to the Prohibition propaganda work.

Sub-Committees of Village Panchayats.

With a view to securing assistance from the village panchayats in prohibition propaganda work they have been directed to form sub-committees. These committees are to be guided in this regard by the Social Education Officers if the villages are in Project or National Extension Service areas and by the District Publicity Officers and the Prohibition and Excise staff in other areas. Local Officers such as Patils and Talathis have to assist and advise these sub-committees in this regard.

Sanskar Kendras.

In Satara district, there are three subsidised *sanskar kendras*. One is run by a co-operative society and two are run by gram panchayats. The names of the co-operative society and the gram panchayats are Karad Co-operative Purchase and Sale Union Ltd. Karad; Village Panchayat, Arvi; and Gram Panchayat, Ural.

Objectives of Prohibition Laws.

Objectives of prohibition laws are to prohibit the production, manufacture, possession, export, import, transportation, purchase, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants except as permitted by any rules, regulations or orders, with a view to promoting, enforcing and carrying into effect the policy of prohibition in the State of Maharashtra.

Difficulties encountered in the enforcement of Prohibition.— With the change in the aspect of the law from the old fiscal to the new social and moral, offences under the Prohibition Act came to be regarded as offences against society and involving moral turpitude.

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Prohibition offences were, therefore, made cognizable. With the introduction of total prohibition all the powers in connection with investigation, prevention, detection, prosecution, etc. in regard to prohibition offences were vested in the police. The police, however, are handicapped by numerous difficulties in the enforcement of prohibition and prevention and detection of prohibition offences.

Number of prohibition offences during recent years.—The number of prohibition offences detected in Satara district during the last three years is as given below :—

1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
659	857	1,267

Degree of success achieved.—The objective in implementing the prohibition policy has been achieved to a considerable extent. Prohibition has helped in improving the lot of the poor who have now taken to more healthy habits. This coupled with the social and economic reforms envisaged by the Government is bound to make prohibition policy a remarkable success.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT

SOCIAL WELFARE

AT THE MINISTERIAL LEVEL, THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE was constituted immediately on reorganisation of States i.e. since 1st November 1956. It however, took shape at the Directorate level since 15th September 1957. The backward class welfare work done previously by the Backward Class Department is now done by the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department. The other wing of the Social Welfare Department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare is now changed to Director of Social Welfare who is the head of the Social Welfare Department of the Maharashtra State. He is assisted by a Joint Director of Social Welfare, an I.A.S. Officer of senior grade who looks after the backward class work. The post of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions is re-designated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing) and this officer assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. A third post of Deputy Director, has been created under the Social Welfare department to look after the work other than backward class welfare and correctional wing. These two posts are Class I posts. The Backward Class wing of the Social Welfare department aims at ameliorating the conditions of backward classes so that they reach the standards of other privileged sections of society as quickly as possible.

Organisation.

The divisional set-up of the Social Welfare Department was sanctioned in December 1960. There will be four divisions of the Social Welfare department, the divisions being same as the revenue divisions. The Divisional Office will be headed by a Class I Officer who will supervise with the help of his subordinate staff the activities of both the Backward Class Wing and the Correctional administration wing of the department. The Satara district comes under the Poona Division. At the district level, the Department has district

SOCIAL WELFARE

officers now called Social Welfare Officers who are of the status of second grade Mamlatdars. They execute the schemes implemented by the Social Welfare Department and co-ordinate the work of backward class welfare in the district in respect of backward class welfare schemes implemented by the various departments of the State.

Backward Classes.

The classification of Backward classes is made into three broad categories, *viz.* (1) The Scheduled Castes or *Harijans,* (2) The Scheduled Tribes or *Adivasis,* and (3) The other Backward Classes, who, socially, economically and educationally are as backward as the other two categories. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President, for each of the States in the Indian Union. The communities coming under other backward classes were recognised by the State Government as per Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. OBC. 1759-E, dated 18th May 1959. The class of other backward classes based previously on the basis of the communities has now been abolished and a new category of other backward classes based on income, i.e. those having an annual income of less than Rs. 900 has been created.

It is the policy of Government to ameliorate the conditions of backward classes so as to bring them in line with other sections of population. A number of privileges have been granted to backward classes by the Constitution of India and special grants are also being paid every year by Government of India, under article 275 (i), for ameliorating the condition of backward classes. Besides normal concessions made available to them from time to time, special schemes have been framed for them by the State Government under the Five-Year Plans and these are being implemented vigorously.

Various Measures of Uplift.

The disabilities of the backward classes are threefold; educational, economic and social. The Government has, therefore, launched a three-pronged attack with the object of eliminating these disabilities within the shortest possible time.

Education.

This is encouraged by instituting a large number of scholarships, general concession of free studentships to backward class students, grant of lump sum scholarships for purchase of books and stationery, etc. and payment of examination fees, provision for hostel facilities, etc. for backward class students studying at all stages of education—primary, secondary and collegiate. Special *Ashram* schools for scheduled tribes, *Sanskar Kendras* and *Balwadis* are also opened for the spread of education among backward classes.

Economic Rehabilitation.

This is mainly effected by (i) grant of cultivable waste lands and other facilities for rehabilitating backward classes in agriculture, (ii) establishing training centres for imparting training in hereditary crafts and providing financial help for their rehabilitation in various cottage industries, (iii) introducing the co-operative movement in their day-to-day life, providing them all facilities provided by the State under co-operative activity with special additional concessions and safeguards for backward classes, (iv) introducing special measures

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. SOCIAL WELFARE Social Welfare.

for housing, (v) reserving certain percentage of vacancies for them in services under State Government and local bodies and under semi-Government organisations.

The activity under this head is designed to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of Scheduled Castes, assimilation of Scheduled Tribes in the general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of ex-criminal tribes and nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes from among the category of other backward classes. Legislation as well as propaganda through voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this object.

Measures have been taken to ensure the social uplift of the backward classes especially *Harijans*. The Bombay *Harijan* (Removal of Social Disabilities) Act (X of 1946), the Bombay *Harijan* Temple Entry Act (XXXV of 1947), as amended in 1948 and the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Central Government have been enacted with a view to bringing about the complete removal of untouchability as far as public and civic rights are concerned. The Bombay *Devadasis* Protection Act (X of 1934) has declared unlawful the performances of any ceremony having the effect of dedicating girls as *devadasis*. These unfortunate girls were usually members of the backward classes.

With the liberal assistance of the Central Government under Article 275 (i) of the Constitution of India, amounting to 50 per cent. of the expenditure by State Government, various measures are undertaken by the State Government, for the uplift of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, *vimukta jatis* and other backward classes under the Second Five-Year Plan. These measures are framed after taking into consideration the needs of backward classes and with a view to achieving their economic uplift, settlement and removal of their social disabilities. The Second Five-Year Plan provided for a programme of backward class welfare for which a total outlay of Rs. 4·50 crores was made. Besides this, the Government of India has also sponsored on cent. per cent. basis a special programme amounting to Rs. 166·03 lakhs for the welfare of backward classes in Maharashtra State, which includes the opening of four multipurpose projects in scheduled areas of the State, along with other measures for the welfare of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and *vimukta jatis*.

For the implementation of these backward class welfare measures, advice and co-operation is also sought from eminent social workers and voluntary organisations through the State Board for *Harijan* Welfare, the State Tribes Advisory Council and the District Backward Class Sub-Committee of the District Development Board in each district.

Several institutions are established in the district for the welfare of backward classes.

There are hostels run by voluntary agencies (14); pre-plan period co-operative housing societies (3); co-operative housing societies under First Five-Year Plan (8); and co-operative housing societies

under the Second Five-Year Plan (6). In addition there are industrial co-operative societies (5); tanners' co-operative societies (5); leather *charmakars'* co-operative societies (3); *lokar vinkar* co-operative societies (9); *machhimari* societies (4); farming societies (7); labour contract societies (3); forest labourers' societies (2); *sanskar kendras* (2); *balwadis* (2) and a tailoring class for women of the nomadic tribes. The number of institutions is given in the bracket.

The Charity Commissioner

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.
Bombay Public Trusts Act.

PRIOR TO 1950, THE RELIGIOUS AND CHARITABLE TRUSTS in the State were governed by various enactments, Central as well as Provincial based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX of 1950), was passed, which could be made applicable to all public trusts without distinction of religion. This Act defines 'public trust' as "an express or constructive trust for either a public religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or a charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1869)."

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts and on such application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act has been made applicable to the following classes of public trusts with effect from 21st January 1952:—

(1) temples;

(2) *maths*;

(3) *wakfs*;

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2), and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof:

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860;

(6) *dharmadas*, i.e. any amounts which, according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction are charged to any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose; and

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act has not been made applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

The Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay has been appointed to administer the Act. The first Charity Commissioner was appointed on 14th August 1950. An Assistant Charity Commissioner has been appointed for the Kolhapur region which consists of the

CHAPTER 17.
Other Social Services.
CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

districts of Kolhapur, Satara, Sangli and Ratnagiri. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposes a duty on the trustee of a public trust to which the Act has been applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act, which include—(*a*) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (*b*) the gross average annual income of the trust property, and (*c*) the amount of the average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed by special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Acts are deemed to be registered under this Act.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to the public trusts from Satara district registered at the public Trusts Registration Office, Kolhapur region, Kolhapur, till 30th June 1958.

PUBLIC TRUSTS REGISTERED IN SATARA DISTRICT

Property, Income and Expenditure

Section.	Total Number of trusts registered.	Value of property Moveable.	Value of property Immoveable.	Gross average annual income.	Average annual Expenditure.
'A' (Trusts for benefit of Hindus).	1,187	1,00,41,150	2,77,528	1,02,115	48,263
'B' (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims).	138	57,585	1,541	5,267	2,300
'C' (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees).	2	2,04,002	2,35,500	7,850	7,850
'D' (Trusts for the benefit of other communities).	2	....	....	231	116
'E' Trusts for the benefit of any particular community).	66	4,08,168	68,188	2,48,360	1,41,065
'F' (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860).	27	....	1,387	750	360
Total	1,422	1,07,10,905	5,84,144	3,64,575	1,99,954

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of 2 per cent. of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenues of the State. Public trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 300 or

less are exempted from the payment of contribution. Deductions from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

CHAPTER 17.
—
Other Social Services.
CHARITY COMMISSIONER.
Duties of Trustees.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but other persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points such as whether accounts are maintained according to law and regularly, whether an inventory has been maintained of the moveables of the public trust, whether any property or funds of the trust have been applied on an object or purpose not authorised by the trust, whether the funds of the trust have been invested or immoveable property alienated contrary to the provisions of the Act, etc.

The public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 500 or less have, however, been exempted from the provisions of audit on condition that the trustees should prepare and furnish to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of the region concerned a full and true statement of income and expenditure in the forms or Schedules IX-A and IX-B of the Bombay Public Trusts Rules, 1961, duly signed and verified by all the trustees.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of an officer authorised under section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person has been guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner who, after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to a public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other form, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of Funds by *cy pres*.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose if it is not in the public interest expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out, wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created, an application can be made to the District Court or City Court, Bombay as the case may be, for application *cy pres* of the property, or income of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

Suits for Reliefs.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or a direction required for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons having an interest in the trust, or the Charity Commissioner, can file a suit in the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Maharashtra Revenue Tribunal. The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

The Charity Commissioner may with his consent, be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of a trust provided his appointment is made as Sole Trustee. The Court is, however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In such cases, the Charity Commissioner may levy administration charges on these trusts as prescribed in the rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trust registered under the previous Acts, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the *Official Gazette*, every three years. District-wise lists of assessors have already been prepared and published in the *Bombay Government Gazette*.

Charity Commissioner and Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State of Maharashtra appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890.

Punishment.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fines ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for launching prosecutions in the case of such contraventions.

Administration of Managed Estates

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES.

On many occasions Government takes over the administration of estates of minors, lunatics and persons incapable of managing their own property. There are two pieces of legislation in operation in the district which govern such administration. One is a Bombay Act, the Court of Wards Act (I of 1905), and the other a Central Act, the Guardians and Wards Act (VIII of 1890). The idea in Government administering the estates of minors and lunatics is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. In case of persons incapable of managing their own property, assumption of superintendence of the estate is undertaken only when the estate is encumbered with debt or mismanaged or there is no one capable of taking proper care of it and Government is of opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family and the property is of such value that economical management by the Government agency is practicable.

Court of Wards Act.

Under the Court of Wards Act, the Collector of Satara is the Court of Wards for the district. The Court of Wards can with the previous sanction of Government assume the superintendence of the property of (a) minors, (b) females declared by the Court as unfit to manage their own property; (c) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing their property, and(d) persons declared by the Civil Court to be of unsound mind. The Court of Wards cannot assume the superintendence of the property of any family which is undivided according to Hindu Law, except where all the co-sharers are disqualified under sub section (*1*) of section 5 of the Act or where all the co-sharers other than those who are disqualified under sub-section (*1*) of section 5 agree to the Court of Wards assuming such superintendence. The idea in assuming the superintendence of the property is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned.

In 1957-58, there were five estates under the management of the Collector of Satara, as the Court of Wards. The permanent establishment of the Court of Wards in the district consists of one Manager in the grade of *Aval Karkun*. The establishment expenditure inclusive of pay, pension, leave, salary and dearness allowance etc. payable to the staff is recovered from the funds of the estates proportionately.

In 1957-58, the total income from all the estates was Rs. 33,289 as against the total expenditure of Rs. 43,140. In 1959, there were only two estates under the management of the Court of Wards.

Guardians and Wards Act.

Under the Guardians and Wards Act, 1890, the District Court appoints the Collector as the guardian of the minors' estates. It is a benevolent provision for safeguarding the interest of minors. As provided in G. R., R. D., No. 2521/49, dated 4th September 1953, the minors' estates, previously managed by the Deputy Nazir, District Court, Satara, were transferred for management to the Collector of Satara, on September 6, 1954. There were 29 estates under the management at the end of the year 1956-57 in the district. All the

CHAPTER 17. — Other Social Services. ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES.

estates are of small sizes yielding an annual income of less than Rs. 10,000.

The staff employed for the work of the management of the minors' estates in the district consists of one *Aval Karkun* and one clerk.

In 1957-58, the total income from all minors' estates was Rs. 22,329; the total expenditure was Rs. 24,781 and the cost of the management was Rs. 1,297. In 1959, there were only 16 such estates in the district.

Community Development Projects and National Extension Service

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE. Origin.

In the First Five-Year Plan (1951-56), the Planning Commission proposed organisation of "Community Development Projects" and "National Extension Service" to initiate a process of improvement of social and economic life in the villages. These are being co-operatively implemented by the Union and the State Governments. The principal aim is to mobilise local dormant man-power for a concerted and co-ordinated effort at raising the level of rural life as a whole. Both the "National Extension Service" and the "Community Development" programmes envisage development in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, public health, social education, co-operation, communications etc. in selected areas. The activities under the Community Development Programme were more intensive than those carried out in National Extension Service Programme.

Plan.

Each block, whether of the Community Development or National Extension Service category, covered a population of approximately 66,000. The budget provided for a Community Development Block of 1955 series was Rs. 15 lakhs per block for a period of three years. For Community Development Blocks 1956 series and onwards the budget provision was Rs. 12 lakhs per block for three years. The budget provision for the National Extension Service Blocks was Rs. 4 lakhs for three years. From April 1, 1958 the distinction between National Extension Service and Community Development Blocks has been abolished All the blocks since then are classified in two categories i.e. Stage I and Stage II blocks with a budget provision of Rs. 12 lakhs and Rs. 5 lakhs respectively for a period of five years.

Administrative Machinery

Special administrative machinery has been set up at the headquarters of the State Governments and at lower levels to avoid delay in departmental routine. In Maharashtra State the Development Commissioner, who is also the Secretary to Government, Co-operation and Rural Development department, has been made responsible for the control and supervision of the programme. The Development Commissioner is assisted by a Deputy Development Commissioner. A Committee known as the State Development Committee, consisting of the Chief Minister (as Chairman) and Ministers in-charge of Finance, Agriculture and Forest, Irrigation and Power and Co-operation and Rural Development as members has also been set-up. The Chief Secretary and Secretaries, Finance, Agriculture and Forest, Co-operation and Rural Development and Irrigation and Power departments are also members of this committee.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.

Administrative Machinery.

The Prant Officer or Assistant Collector in whose charge the block area falls is in supervisory charge of the block.

At the district level, committee known as 'District Development Committee/National Extension Service Advisory Committee' has been set up and at Block level, Committees known as Block Development Committees have been set up to look after and tender advice in connection with the working of the programme. The committees consist of both officials connected with the programme as also non-officials. To aid and advise the Block Development Officers in the task of all round development, subject-matter specialists like Agricultural Officers, Assistant District Co-operative Officers, Social Education Organisers, Deputy Engineers, Overseers, etc. have been appointed. Considerable delegation of powers has been made to Collectors, Prant Officers, etc. by way of decentralisation of powers, which necessarily avoids departmental routine and delay in the execution of the programme.

Gram Sevaks.

The lowest but the most important link in the chain of the administrative machinery devised for the development programme, is the *Gram Sevak* who works in close contact with the villagers. At the inception of the scheme a new cadre of *Gram Sevaks* (Village Level Workers) was formed by posting the existing personnel of Revenue, Co-operative, and Agricultural departments working at the level of group of villages in the block area. On appointment, these *Gram Sevaks* used to perform revenue as well as extension duties. The Talathis in-charge of villages were originally designated as Assistant *Gram Sevaks*. From 1st November 1958 revenue work has been bifurcated from development work and the *Gram Sevaks* are no longer required to perform revenue work. Similarly Talathis no longer continue to be designated as Assistant *Gram Sevaks*. Fresh recruits after completion of their training in the Extension Training Centres are now appointed as *Gram Sevaks*. The separation of revenue work from development has given an impetus to development work. The *Gram Sevak* has to understand rural problems and the psychology of the farmer and offer solutions to his various difficulties. He is supposed to know about the felt needs of the people and work out the solutions in close co-operation with them. His success depends on the extent to which he gains the confidence of the farmers.

The various administrative departments and heads of departments have been directed to assign very high priority to matters relating to development works. In the district, the Collector is also expected to bring about proper co-ordination in the work of the various development departments functioning in the Block area.

Association of People.

The aim of the programme is community development and it can only take place when people themselves evince a keen interest in the programme. To this end people are sought to be associated as much as is possible with the planning of development schemes and their execution. While schemes involving large expenditure and requiring a high degree of technical skill are to be executed departmentally, other schemes are to be executed with as much co-operation

CHAPTER 17.
—
Other Social Services.
COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.
Public Contributions.

as is possible from local agencies such as the District Local Boards, village panchayats, etc., or, in the last resort, by *ad hoc* committees formed of representatives of the villages.

To ensure people's participation in the development programme it has been laid down that various schemes or works are to be taken up on the basis of public contribution. The Collectors and Project Officers approve schemes only when minimum popular contributions are forthcoming. There is no limit to the maximum popular contribution which can even be cent. per cent. The scales of minimum popular contributions vary according to the nature of the schemes. Contributions may be in cash or labour or materials.

The rates of minimum popular contribution in respect of certain broad items of development as fixed by Government are as follows :—

Item.	Rate of Popular Contribution fixed.
(1) Drinking water wells ..	25 per cent.
(2) Roads	For D. L. B. roads :— 50 per cent. For other roads :— 33 per cent.
(3) School buildings	40 per cent.
(4) Dispensary or Hospital buildings.	33 per cent.
(5) Community Recreation Centres and library buildings.	50 per cent.

For certain reasons, mainly administrative, it was not considered desirable to have in this State separate and scattered units covering a population of 66,000 persons each and to style such units as National Extension Service Blocks. It was considered that National Extension blocks should be made co-extensive with the limits of talukas and that such talukas, depending on their population, be considered as comprising one or more blocks for purposes of financial allotment.

Work in Satara District.

In Satara, the National Extension Service Scheme was first introduced in Karad, Satara and Patan talukas from 21st October 1954. It was further applied to Wai taluka and thereafter to Khandala mahal from 2nd October 1955.

The National Extension Service Blocks, Karad and Satara were converted into Community Development Blocks from 1st June 1955 and 1st May 1956 respectively. Likewise the National Extension Service Blocks, Patan and Wai, were converted into Community Development Blocks from 1st November 1956. From 1st April 1958 the distinction between National Extension Service and Community Development blocks was abolished and all the blocks were classified in two broad categories i.e. Stage I and Stage II blocks, except the Community Development blocks formed before 1st April 1958 which had to complete their three years' period. In accordance with these orders, Karad block was termed as Stage II block and Khandala block as Stage I block. From 1st January 1959 two pre-extension blocks *viz.* Jaoli and Koregaon were also started in this district.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS AND NATIONAL EXTENSION SERVICE.

Work in Satara District.

Regarding administrative machinery in the blocks, originally the Mamlatdars were Block Development Officers. Similarly, in respect of Community Development blocks, Karad and Patan, separate Prant-*cum*-Project Officers were appointed. The Satara Community Development block was in-charge of the Collector. Separate Block Development Officers have now been appointed for each block. For some time the Block Development Officers in-charge of some Community Development blocks used to be termed as Assistant Project Officers. Now all Officers in executive charge of the blocks are called as Block Development Officers. The Prant Officers under whose jurisdiction the respective development blocks fall are in supervisory charge of the blocks. The Collector is expected to take personal interest in the implementation of the scheme and is ultimately responsible for its success. Since 1958, separate posts of District Project Officers in the Deputy Collector's grade have been created at district level to help the Collector in the implementation of the programme.

The expenditure incurred up to 31st March 1959 in the various Development Blocks under various heads of expenditure was as under as against the total budget provision for them.

Name of the Development Block.	Total Budget Grant.	Total Expenditure incurred.
	Rs.	Rs.
Satara	24,00,000	21,71,481
Patan	24,00,000	19,80,401
Wai	12,00,000	8,89,418
Khandala.. ..	9,00,000	5,73,723
Karad	37,50,000	31,37,744

Training.

Government have made arrangements for the training of personnel employed for Community Development/National Extension Service work.

Basic Agricultural Schools have been opened in the State for the training of *Gram Sevaks* at Sindevahi, Parbhani and Amravati.

Similarly, Home Science Wings have been started at Sindevahi, Amravati and Manjri for the training of *Gram Sevikas*.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND DIRECTION.

BEING THE HEADQUARTERS OF THE DESCENDANTS OF SHIVAJI including Shahu Chhatrapati and the last of the dynasty, Pratapsinha, Satara City had always special political importance. As a centre of constitutional political action, since the days of consolidation of British power in western India, it is noteworthy because it was the well-known Rango Bapuji Gupte who went to England on behalf of Pratapsinha, wrote in the English Press, addressed public meetings and members of the then British Parliament in order that justice might be done to the last Maratha Prince and descendant of Shivaji.

In later years Satara, next only to Poona, was in advance of other districts in voicing popular grievances, starting public institutions and throwing up public men before and after the Indian National Congress was inaugurated. Political and Social Conferences were held there and men of all India status in public life spoke to Satara audiences. The District has some newspapers which can boast of many decades of useful existence. It is one of the educationally and industrially advanced districts. Men like Rao Bahadur Pathak, R. P. Karandikar, Rao Bahadur Kale, Sardar Mutalik, Bhaurao Patil, and Khan Bahadur Cooper were notable public men several of whom represented the district in the local and all India legislative bodies with distinction during the British regime.

NEWSPAPERS.

At present there are eleven weekly journals in the district which purvey district news and educate public opinion from different points of view. A daily newspaper used to be published from Karad for some time but it has found a more congenial home in Sangli now. Most of these journals generally follow the Congress policy and accept it as serving the best interests of the country. Some are devoted to specific causes like *Bhoodan* and *Sarvodaya*, while two have leanings towards the Hindu Sabha. Wai, which is a centre of ancient learning and was the home of the late Swami Kevalananda *alias* Narayan Shastri Marathe has always prominently figured on the academic map of Maharashtra. *Navabharat*, a cultural monthly

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND REPRESENTATION IN STATE AND UNION LEGISLATURES.

periodical conducted by the *Pradnya Pathashala* deserves special mention in this connection.*

Congress and Jana Sangh appear to be the only political parties which count in electioneering. Satara is at present represented in Lok Sabha by two members and by 12 members in the Maharashtra Legislative Assembly. Some persons hailing from this district have found seats in the Legislative Council by indirect election but none in Rajya Sabha. The Socialists and Communists, under these or similar banners have pockets here and there but not so big as to influence any election. Satara has been and is a politically live district and its public life has been of an assertive and militant character.

Influence of Two Princely States.

An important factor which made for progressive public and political life of Satara was the existence of two princely States, Aundh and Phaltan. Besides encouraging the establishment of industries, they introduced responsible government and control over administration by people's elected representatives. This has made for a greater popular awakening about civil rights and human dignity and a general democratic spirit and atmosphere in the district.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Arunodaya Vachanalaya, Oglewadi.

Arunodaya Vachanalaya, Oglewadi, was established in 1953 with the object of spreading knowledge among people by establishing libraries, reading rooms and by arranging lectures by eminent scholars and various other activities of this type.

In 1958 the total membership of the Vachanalaya was 40 and included patrons, life members, and ordinary members. The members constitute the general body of the Vachanalaya. The body meets at least once in a year and elects the president of the general body, and the members of the executive council. The council looks after the management of the Vachanalaya.

The annual income of the Vachanalaya which includes the government grant, the admission fees, donations, etc. was Rs. 913·83 in 1958. The annual expenditure in the same year amounted to Rs. 912·32.

Aundh Shikshan Mandal, Aundh.

The Aundh Shikshan Mandal, Aundh, was established in 1949 with the object of imparting intellectual, physical and vocational training to the residents of Aundh, and to conduct schools, hostels, agricultural classes and other educational institutions to realise the same.

The administration of the Mandal is looked after by a general body, a council, a governing body, trustees and a body of volunteers. The general body consists of all the members. The membership of the Mandal includes patrons, vice-patrons, benefactors, ordinary members and volunteers. In 1958 the number of members was 32. The general body elects the council, sanctions the utilisation of

* The names of the various newspapers and periodicals are: **Aikya**, Satara **Gramoddhara**, Satara; **Janakranti**, Satara; **Sajjangad**, Satara; **Samartha**, Satara; **Sarvatma**, Satara; **Shri Shahu**, Satara; **Dhruva**, Satara; **Janaseva**, Phaltan; **Navabharat**, Wai; **Adesha**, Phaltan; **Navasandesh**, a daily, used to be published from Karad but has now transferred itself to Sangli. Newspapers, chiefly dailies and the Kesari of Poona come in large numbers from Bombay, Poona and Kolhapur and circulate in the district.

permanent funds and sale and purchase of the immoveable property and revises the decisions of the council if and when necessary.

In its statutory triennial meeting the general body elects a president, one or more vice-presidents and ten members from amongst non-volunteer members. All amendments and changes in the constitution are considered in a meeting specially convened for the purpose. The council consists of the volunteers and an equal number of non-volunteer members elected by the general body and is responsible for the administration of the Mandal and its institutions. It elects a chairman, a vice-chairman in its first meeting of the year. The governing body consists of nine members, and supervises the daily routine of the institution.

The permanent fund and the immoveable property of the Mandal are vested in trustees two or more in number appointed by the general body. The board of volunteers considers all the business transactions which are to be undertaken by the council.

The Aundh Shikshan Mandal has so far established and is conducting, the following institutions :—(1) The S. S. High School, Aundh; (2) The Primary Teachers Training College, Aundh; (3) The Bal Vikas Mandir, Aundh; (4) Shri Siddheshwar Vidyalaya (High school), Kuroli; and (5) The Bhawanrao B. C. Hostel, Aundh. The total strength in all the institutions was 750 in 1958. The Mandal also has examination centres for Drawing, Hindi, Marathi, Sanskrit etc. It organises sport-meets every year, and also conducts picnics, social service camps, and arts and crafts exhibitions etc.

In 1958 the assets and property of the Mandal consisted of land and buildings worth Rs. 1,09,000·00 and furniture and other equipment worth Rs. 29,581·00. In 1958 the annual income of the Mandal was Rs. 82,386·02 and included the income from fees, Government grants of all the institutions of the Mandal, donations and rent. The annual expenditure of the Mandal in 1958 was Rs. 90,702·65.

Ayurved Prasarak Mandal, Satara.

The Ayurved Prasarak Maudal, Satara, was established in 1931 with the object of imparting modern education in medicine according to the Ayurvedic as well as other modern systems of medicine and of undertaking such other activities as would encourage and facilitate the growth of the Ayurvedic system of medicine. The general administration of the *mandal* is entrusted to a general body consisting of a life member, a retired life member, patron, fellow, honorary fellow, ordinary member, depositor and representative of a helping institution. Membership of the general body is subject to the confirmation by the working committee. The general body meets in the month of May every three years and transacts the following business : (1) election of office bearers, *viz.* a president and two vice-presidents, two trustees, a treasurer and three members for the council; (2) appointment of an auditor; and (3) any other relevant business brought forthwith the consent of the president. Besides the triennial meetings the general body meets on the following occasions : (1) once every year in the month of December to transact ordinary business; (2) special general meeting; and

(3) requisitioned general meeting and emergency general meeting The President is to preside over all meetings of the general body and decide and guide the *Mandal*, in all matters. All residuary and descretionary powers are vested in the president who is to exercise them in consonance with the spirit of the constitution.

For the management of all other affairs of the *mandal*, the following bodies are constituted: (1) the council; (2) the working committee; (3) the board of life members; and (4) the trustees. The council consists of ten members and is to meet twice at least every year. The term of office of the council is three years. The council is to forward to the general body the annual report of the *Mandal* and the audited annual statement of accounts for the previous year prepared by the working committee after due consideration. Being a superior body to the working committee it accepts or rejects, partially or wholly the business transacted and forwarded to it by the working committee. The working committee consists of the principal, the vice-principal, all the heads of the departments in the hospital run by the *Mandal*, the secretaries and two persons elected by the board of life members and the retired life members. It is to continue in office for three years and is to exercise such executive authority vested in it, subject to the supervision and control of the council. The board of life members consists of all life members of the *Mandal* and is in-charge of the day to day administration of the various departments of the *Mandal* subject to the control and supervision of the working committee. The trustees have the charge of permanent funds of the *Mandal* and of such other properties and sums of the *Mandal* as will be made over to them by the council.

The fund, property and assets of the *Mandal* consist of (1) permanent funds which include all money grants made by the public, the Government and other local bodies, donations, revenue fund, buildings and dead stock and (2) current funds consisting of yearly subscriptions, grants-in-aid, proceeds of fees and fines and profits accruing from various productive departments of the *Mandal*. The balance sheet for the year 1955-56 represents an amount of Rs. 6,53,251·29 as the value of property and assets of the *Mandal*. The income and the expenditure account of the *Mandal* for the year 1955-56 was as under:—income Rs. 1,88,960·97 and expenditure Rs. 1,88,960·97. The item-wise distribution of income was: by interest Rs. 660·22, by donation Rs. 54,977·41 and deficit for the year carried to balance sheet Rs. 44,144·97. The itemwise distribution of expenditure extends in respect of properties to Rs. 3,582·64, to audit fees Rs. 150, to interest paid Rs. 3,308·09, to transfer to specific fund Rs. 53,417·23, to expenditure on objects of trusts Rs. 425, to Mahavidyalaya, charitable hospital and maternity home expenditure Rs. 1,03,451·84, to miscellaneous expenditure Rs. 4,040 and to depreciation on assets Rs. 20,557·97. In 1956, there were 86 students receiving instructions in the various departments run by the *Mandal*. Nearly 11 students passed out their final examinations in that year.

CHAPTER 18.
—
Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.
Ayurved Prasarak Mandal, Satara.

In conformity with the aim of the *Mandal*, the Ayurved Prasarak Mandal has so far established the following institutions, dispensaries and hospitals for practical education of students during its life span of nearly 46 years. (1) The Maharashtreeya Aryangla Vaidyak School in 1913 with three years degree course later changed in 1925 to a four years integrated course. (2) Charitable dispensary, 1917. (3) Dissection hall, 1931. (4) Residency, 1935. (5) Clinical Laboratory, 1957. (6) Hospital and hostel building, 1938. (7) Dr. M. N. Agashe Charitable Hospital. (8) X-Ray department, and (9) family planning centre. This fervent activity on the construction side was accompanied by an extension in the educational facilities already provided by the *Mandal*. In 1938 the *Mandal* started the course of training for the D. A. S. F. Diploma of the Faculty of Indian System of Medicine, Bombay. In 1952, a course of training for the G. F. A. M. degree of the Faculty of Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbi System of medicine, Bombay, was instituted. In Dr. M. N. Agashe Hospital run by the *Mandal* as many as 664 operations were performed in 1956. In the same year 6,275 patients were treated in the R. D. Kale Memorial Dispensary. In the clinical laboratory maintained by the Mandal 1,901 different samples were examined. Nearly 459 patients were admitted in the maternity ward specially instituted in the city by the Ayurved Prasarak *Mandal*. The X-Ray department screened and X-Rayed 528 and 632 patients respectively. The medical facilities are not only made available to the residents of Satara City but also to those residing outside the city limits. As many as 2,890 outpatients were treated in the year 1956. Very poor patients are treated free. In 1956, out of the total number of 6,275 patients treated 2,494 were treated free.

Balvikas Mandal, Karad.

Balvikas *Mandal* was established in 1956 with the object of establishing primary and pre-primary schools and adult classes, running hostel and library for the students so as to afford educational facilities to poor and backward class people. The membership of the *mandal* in 1958 was nine.

The *mandal* runs a pre-primary and a primary school named 'Balmohan Vidyalaya' In 1957-58 the annual income of the *mandal* which includes Government grants and donations, and expenditure, both amounted to Rs. 18,248·38.

Dravid High School, Wai.

The Dravid High School, Wai was established in 1947, with the object of inculcating the dignity of labour in younger generation, enhancing the spirit of co-operative working and social uplift.

The management is vested in the Head Master The number of members is 35.

Activities like road construction, preparing play-grounds and ring tennis courts for the students, maintaining social contacts with villagers through activities of the same kind, celebrations of *vanmahotsava* and various other festivals, entertainment programmes on various occasions, clearing of drainage, gutters and public places, are undertaken by the management of the Dravid High School.

CHAPTER 18.
—
Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.
VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.
Mahatma Gandhi Vachanalaya, Khatav.

Mahatma Gandhi Vachanalaya, Khatav, was established on February 22, 1944, with the aim of creating a liking for reading. The total membership of the Vachanalaya was about 60 in 1958. The annual income and expenditure of the vachanalaya was about Rs. 933 in 1958. The assets and the property of the vachanalaya consist of a building worth Rs. 4,000, which was built with the help of the villagers, books worth Rs. 1,568 and furniture worth Rs. 104.

Nagar Vachanalaya, Satara.

The Nagar Vachanalaya, Satara was established in 1849 with the object of promoting reading habit by providing books and periodicals to the people and conducting lectures and talks by eminent persons.

The membership of the Vachanalaya includes patrons, life members and ordinary members. In 1958, the total membership was 736. The working of the Vachanalaya is looked after by a general body and an executive council. The general body consists of all the members of Vachanalaya, and meets at least once in a year. One president and one or more vice-presidents are elected at the annual general body meeting. It also discusses the budget for the next year, annual audit and accounts reports, and annual report on the work done by the Vachanalaya. The members of the executive council are also elected at the same meeting. The council elects its own chairman, and consists of six to nine members. It meets at least once in a month. All the routine business transactions are done by the council.

A centre of the extra-mural studies of the Poona University is conducted by the Vachanalaya.

The assets of the Vachanalaya in 1958 were worth Rs. 90,545. The annual income and expenditure in the same year amounted to Rs. 9,560·12 and Rs. 7,741·91 respectively.

New Balvikas Mandal, Karad.

New Balvikas *Mandal* was established in 1955, to impart primary education by opening Primary Schools at Karad and other places.

The membership of the *mandal* includes life workers, ordinary members, and well wishers. They constitute the general body of the *mandal*. The body elects the president, the vice-president and the managing council at its annual meeting. The administration of the *mandal* is conducted by a general body and the managing council. The managing council consists of from 9 to 15 members and is elected triennially. It convenes the meetings of the general body, prepares and publishes the annual audit and accounts statements, prepares the budget for the new year and sanctions the same and also looks after the income and the property of the *mandal*. The number of members of the *mandal* in 1958 was 70. The *mandal* runs three schools.

The assets of the *mandal* were worth Rs. 200 (on loan) in 1958 and in the same year the income and the expenditure stood at Rs. 700 and Rs. 900 respectively.

New English School, Satara.

The Deccan Education Society's New English School, Satara, was founded in 1889, with the object of facilitating intellectual and physical education.

The school is housed in a stone building and has got 31 class rooms, a laboratory, a gymnasium, a drawing hall, a stage for presenting dramatic performances and an assembly hall. Two play-grounds adjoin the school building. Other facilities for the students, include a carpentry for practical training. An auditorium at a cost of about Rs. 60,000 is being built in the school premises. Provision for the technical courses is made in the school with the help of Government. A good library with 16,000 books is an asset of the institution. Various social and cultural activities are also conducted. The number of students in 1959 was 1,421.

New Era High School, Panchgani.

The New Era High School Committee, Panchgani, was founded in 1945 with the object of running the New Era High School at Panchgani.

The management of the New Era High School rests with the school committee which consists of the nine nominees of the national spiritual assembly nominated annually. The school committee has a chairman, a manager-*cum*-secretary and an accountant-*cum*-cashier. They are elected by the New Era High School Committee. The committee is empowered to consider all matters relating to management, and financing of the high school.

The number of students in the high school was 142 in 1958. The students, are also prepared for the Rashtra Bhasha Examination and elementary and intermediate drawing examinations of Government of Maharashtra. A training class for adults was recently started in the school by the Education department.

The property and the assets of the society consist of five buildings and over 28 acres of open land. The annual income which was Rs. 1,13,777·00 in 1958 included the school and other fees, donations form the national spiritual assembly and Bahai communities. The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 1,19,517.

Rahimatpur Panchakroshi Shikshan Mandal, Rahimatpur.

Rahimatpur Panchakroshi Shikshan *Mandal*, Rahimatpur was established in 1942, with the object of facilitating intellectual, physical, vocational and moral education to the boys and girls residing in Rahimatpur and the surrounding villages.

The *Mandal* is administered by a general body, a council and a governing body, the trustees and the body of volunteers. The general body consists of the patrons, vice-patrons, benefactors, ordinary members and volunteers which in all number 57. The body elects the president and the members of the council and sanctions the utilisation of the permanent funds and the sale and purchase of immoveable property. The council is responsible for the internal administration of the *Mandal* and its institutions and for correspondence with the Government and public institutions and also for taking all legal measures if and when required in the interest of the *Mandal*. The governing body consists of nine members. It supervises the daily routine of the institution and maintains discipline in all the institutions of the *Mandal*. The trustees, two or more in number, are appointed by the general body and look after the

CHAPTER 18. — Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS. Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara.

permanent funds and the immoveable property. The body of volunteers considers all business that is to be transacted in the council and governing body meetings.

The *Mandal* conducts a high school known as *Praudha Vidyalaya* which has 227 students and nine teachers, one basic training college for men with 80 students and nine lecturers and one primary (practising) school with 156 students and four teachers. The *Mandal* also runs a middle school at Wathar.

The total annual income of the institution amounted to Rs. 61,156·00 in 1957-58, and the total expenditure in the same year was Rs. 57,775·00.

Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara came into existence, in the year 1909. It was founded and promoted by the late Bhaurao Patil who came to be known as Karmaveer. It aims at imparting a liberal and efficient primary, secondary and college education by training suitable persons to realise these objectives, and also at training village workers for the work of village uplift and advancement of rural industries. This is to be achieved by opening of free libraries, reading rooms, boarding houses, residential and ordinary schools.

The Rayat Shikshan Sanstha is administered by a general body, the managing council, the board of life members, and the trustees of the Sanstha. The general body of the Sanstha consists of all life members, all members, all fellows, all patrons and all benefactors. The general body elects the president of the Sanstha. It also elects such number of vice-presidents as the general body may see fit. The trustees, the secretary and the members of the managing council are also elected by the general body. For this purpose, the general body meets in the month of May, every third year. The body considers the proposals put forward by the council such as amendments to the constitution, etc. It consists of 73 members.

The managing council is composed of twelve members. It is elected triennially. Its functions include the preparing and publishing the annual reports and the audit statements of the accounts of the various institutions conducted by the Sanstha, preparing the annual statements of the income and expenditure for the previous year; and the budget estimates for the succeeding year and sanctioning the same and preparing scheme for expansion of the academic and industrial activities of the institutions of the Sanstha. The managing council meets at least four times a year, oftener if necessary. It also looks after the legal side of the administration of the Sanstha. The board of life members consists of all life members engaged in all the institutions of the Sanstha. It looks after the day-to-day administration of the institutions of the Sanstha subject to the control and supervision of the managing council. The trustees of the Sanstha are in-charge of the immoveable properties and investments of the Sanstha.

The Rayat Shikshan Sanstha has so far established a number of institutions at Satara, Kolhapur, Ahmadnagar, Poona, Sholapur, Ratnagiri and Belgaum *viz.* two arts colleges, one B. T. College,

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Rayat Shikshan Sanstha, Satara.

27 full fledged high schools (ten in Satara), ten high schools teaching upto tenth standard (two in Satara), forty-eight A. V. High Schools (14 in Satara), five training colleges for men (3 in Satara), a training college for women, a practising school and a *balak mandir* in Satara, 30 voluntary schools (18 in Satara), 35 hostels (21 in Satara), and eight sanskar kendras (2 in Satara). The number of students in various educational institutions of the Sanstha in the year 1957-58, was as under—higher education 759, secondary education 7,891, training colleges 599, primary education 4,471, others 48, totalling to 13,768. The teaching staff in various institutions of the Sanstha was 30 professors, 301 teachers in secondary schools, 35 lecturers in training colleges, 126 teachers in primary schools, and other employees numbered 136, which gives a total of 628.

The Sanstha also runs few other institutions like the sheep breeding farm and research sub-station, one agricultural farm, one co-operative credit society, one co-operative stores society and a students' co-operative patpedhi in Satara district. In 1940, the Sanstha started at Satara a free residential high school in memory of the late Maharaja of Baroda.

The funds of the Sanstha consist of permanent funds which include Government grants and donations made by the public, and current funds consisting of yearly subscriptions, proceeds of fees etc. The balance sheet for the year 1957-58 represents an amount of Rs. 14,26,136·11 as the value of property and assets of the Sanstha. The figures of funds according to the same balance sheet are Rs. 14,26,136·11. Both the income and expenditure of the Sanstha for the year 1957-58 were Rs. 7,69,139·80 each. The income included the amounts collected through Government grants, fees, fines, boarding charges and other sources like donations, crafts, agricultural and miscellaneous receipts.

A distinctive feature of the Rayat Shikshan Sanstha's activities is the self help (manual labour) scheme. Under this scheme, the students are made to do the manual labour in their leisure hours, and in return are given wages and some other facilities. This scheme is designed to inculcate dignity of labour, and the spirit of self-help, self-reliance, and self-knowledge among the students. For this some agricultural lands donated by the public or by the Government are used. The Sanstha is also making efforts towards the eradication of untouchability among the students. The distinction of class, caste and creed are ignored in the hostels and boarding houses of the Sanstha. All students in these hostels work, eat and live together like members of one family.

Jijamata Sanstha, Karad.

Jijamata *sanstha* was established in 1953, with the object of providing pre-primary and primary education to the poor and backward communities. The *sanstha* had seven members in 1958.

Various activities like clearing of residential quarters belonging to backward class people and participation in various games and competitions and conducting picnics and excursions, are undertaken by the *sanstha*.

CHAPTER 18. — Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

The assets of the sanstha in 1958 were worth Rs. 1,500. The annual income and expenditure of the institution comes to about Rs. 6,000.

Sanjeevan Vidyalaya, Panchgani.

Sanjeevan Vidyalaya is a co-educational residential school run on the lines of the Public Schools of England with suitable modifications in consonance with Indian culture and conditions. Originally founded in 1922, the *Vidyalaya* is doing yeoman service in the field of education. Till 1948 the institution was known as Hindu High School. Since 1948 the institution is known by its present name. The aim is to bring together children from different places and belonging to different families to live a community life so as to develop in them a national outlook and good citizenship. The curriculum is so arranged as to give maximum scope to the development of the physical and mental abilities of each individual student. The school provides primary and secondary education upto the S. S. C. examination level and also instructions in vocational training. The media of instruction are English, Marathi and Gujarati.

The management of the school rests with a Board of Trustees who numbered six in 1959. In 1959-60 the income and the expenditure of the institution amounted to Rs. 3,71,700 and Rs. 3,78,500 respectively. Grants are received from the State Government as also from the District Local Board. Till 1959, the grant from the State Government amounted to 30 per cent. of the admissible expenditure on the teaching side plus 50 per cent of the Dearness allowance. Since 1959, 50 per cent. of the admissible expenditure on the teaching side is borne by the State Government. A grant of Rs. 250 per annum is given by the Satara District School Board towards the primary section of the institution. In 1960, the State Government have given a grant of Rs. 50,000 towards the construction of a new building, and an equal amount is being contributed by the Trust.

Sarvajanik Nagar Vachanalaya, Karad.

Sarvajanik Nagar Vachanalaya, Karad, was established in 1857, with the object of developing reading habit among the people. Since 1952, the Karad Municipality has taken over the management of the Vachanalaya and has entrusted it to a body of twelve members. The Vachanalaya is running a free reading room, and books can be taken home on payment of deposit. Series of lectures by eminent men are conducted by the Vachanalaya every year during the *Navratra* festivals. The Karad Municipality bears the expenditure of the Vachanalaya since 1953. The Vachanalaya receives Rs. 450 as grant from Government, every year. The annual expenditure is about Rs. 2,500.

Sarvajanik Vidyarthi Vachanalaya, Panchgani.

The Sarvajanik Vidyarthi Vachanalaya was started in November 1944 and was registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act in 1950. The management vests in a managing committee, which consisted of nine members in 1959-60. Grants are obtained from the State Government as also from the municipality. They amounted in 1959-60 to Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 151 respectively. Besides these, the income of the institution includes the entrance and monthly fees and deposits received from the members. The number of members in 1959-60 was 35. In 1958-59 the income and expenditure of the

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Satara Education Society, Satara.

institution was Rs. 1,383 and Rs. 1,239 respectively. In 1960, the *Vachanalaya* had a collection of 1,853 books (1,450 Marathi, 190 English, 150 Hindi and 63 Gujarati).

The Satara Education Society was established in 1935 with the object of imparting primary and secondary education to the young generation by establishing educational institutions.

The management of the society is entrusted to a general body, a governing body, a board and a body of life teachers. The general body consists of all patrons, all fellows, all members, and all life teachers. It meets triennially to elect the president of the society and such number of vice-presidents as the general body may think fit.

The general body considers and sanctions amendments to the constitution, on the proposals made by the governing body. The governing body, which remains in office for a period of three years, consists of eleven members, and elects its own chairman. It prepares and submits annual reports of various institutions to the general body for sanction, prepares schemes for expansion of academic and industrial activities of the society, frames amendments to the constitution and recommends them to the general body, looks after the legal administration of the society, and administers in consultation with the Board of life teachers, the funds and the property of the society.

The board of life teachers consists of seven members. It arranges for the collection of funds for the benefit of the society and its institutions. The body of life teachers elects its own chairman and meets at least twice a year. It considers the budgets prepared by the board of life teachers and the annual report of the institutions of the society.

The society runs three schools, two at Satara *viz*., Popular English School and the Satara Education Society's Primary School, and one at Khatav *viz*., Shri Laxmi Narayan English School.

The Popular English School is a full fledged high school imparting education in academic subjects and also in technical and commercial subjects. The strength of all the three schools, was 1,575 in 1959 and a staff of 45.

The assets of the institution on 31st March 1959 stood at Rs. 1,15,128·21 and the income and the expenditure on the same date were Rs. 1,05,894·54 and Rs. 1,04,038·52 respectively. The number of the members of the society was 97 in September 1959.

Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Pusesavli.

The Shikshan Prasarak Mandal was established in 1948 with the object of imparting education to the boys and girls of Pusesavli area and its neighbouring villages through conducting educational institutions and running libraries and reading rooms.

The members of the institution consist of patrons, donors, benefactors and ordinary members. They constitute the general body of the institution. In 1958, the number of the members was 85. The Chairman, vice-chairman, trustees and a secretary represent

CHAPTER 18. — Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

the administration of the *Mandal*. The chairman and a vice-chairman are elected from amongst the managing committee. The trustees are in-charge of the moveable and immoveable property of the *Mandal*.

The meeting of the general body is held once in a year in the month of May. It elects the managing committee which remains in office for a period of three years. It can amend the constitution, and appoint the trustees. The managing committee consists of 17 members. It meets at least four times a year. It prepares and submits the annual report and the budget for the year to the *Mandal* and looks after the legal and other sides of the administration. The secretary of the *mandal* convenes the meetings of the managing committee and the *mandal*.

The *Mandal* runs educational institutions such as Mahatma Gandhi Vidyalaya and maintains libraries and reading rooms.

The assets of the *mandal* in 1957-58 were Rs. 28,046. In the same year, the income and the expenditure stood at Rs. 21,805 and Rs. 21,805 (including the expenses of the school) respectively.

Sri Mudhaidevi Shikshan Sanstha, Deur.

Sri Mudhaidevi Shikshan Sanstha, Deur, was established in 1956 with the object of encouraging pre-primary and seconadry education in surrounding areas of Deur town.

The membership of the Sanstha consists of patrons, life members, donors, ordinary members, well wishers and life workers. The management of the Sanstha is looked after by a general body and an executive council. The general body consists of all the members, (they were 26 in 1958) and meets at least once in a year to elect the President of the Sanstha, the Chairman, the members of the executive council, the secretary, and also to pass the new year's budget. The Sanstha conducts Sri Mudhaidevi Vidya Mandir at Deur. The annual income of the Sanstha was Rs. 2,000 in 1958.

Shri Nagojirao Patankar Smarak Vachanalaya, Patan.

Shri Nagojirao Patankar Smarak Vachanalaya was established on 1st July, 1944 with the object of providing news-papers and books to the people. It is recognised by the Government, and is managed by the working body elected by the subscribing members of the library from amongst themselves. The membership was 50 in 1958. Its assets in the year 1958 consisted of 1,500 books worth approximately Rs. 3,500 and furniture worth about Rs. 1,500. The annual income in 1958-59 was Rs. 900 consisting of the Government grant, subscription and money received on selling of old papers. The annual expenditure was roughly the same. Other activities included arranging of lectures by eminent persons on educational and cultural subjects.

Shri Shivaji Education Society, Karad.

Shri Shivaji Education Society, Karad, was established in 1945 with the object of promoting education among people, by establishing educational institutions and conducting reading rooms, libraries, hostels, etc.

The membership of the society was 115 in 1958. The management of the society is entrusted to a council, a board for higher education and to a board for primary and secondary education, which remain in office for three years.

The society is at present conducting three high schools, one middle school and one primary school. In 1958, there were about one thousand and five hundred students in these schools. The society spent over Rs. 1,00,000 over the construction of Shivaji Vidyalaya, Karad, Since 1958 the society is running a Science College at Karad.

The assets and the annual income of the society in 1958 were worth Rs. 2,75,000 and about Rs. 12,000 (excluding the donations) respectively.

Shri Siddheshwar Shikshan Sanstha, Kuroli.

Shri Siddheshwar Shikshan Sanstha, Kuroli, was established in 1958 with the object of facilitating education, by opening schools and libraries and conducting hostels for the students.

The total membership of the *sanstha*, which was 75 in 1959, consists of life members and ordinary members. They constitute the general body of the *sanstha*. The body meets once in a year to elect the executive council consisting of 15 members. These two bodies conduct the management of the *sanstha*. The *sanstha* runs Shri Siddheshwar Vidyalaya at Kuroli.

The assets and the property of the institution include three acres of land, furniture and books and scientific instruments worth Rs. 2,909·41. The annual income and the expenditure of the *sanstha* on 8th September 1959 was Rs. 4,839·09 and Rs. 4,393·29 respectively.

Shri Mahatma Gandhi Vachan Mandir, Umbraj.

Shri Mahatma Gandhi Vachan Mandir was established in 1942 with the object of removing illiteracy, eradicating untouchability, popularising the national language, implementing schemes of village uplift and improving the status of women in the society.

The total membership was 44 in 1958, and included the patrons, benefactors, donors, well wishers, life members and ordinary members. All the members constitute the general body which is supreme in all matters regarding the management.

The managing body has 15 members including the chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, joint secretary and eleven members. The functions of the general body include the passing of the new year's budget, making amendments if any, in the rules of the Mandir, and such other matters which arise from time to time. The managing body looks after the day to day administration of the institutions. It meets at least once in a month and spends the amount sanctioned for purchasing books for the library and for various periodicals and magazines. It executes the plans laid down in the general body and special general body meetings. The trustees are in-charge of the immoveable property of the institution.

The Mandir has established a high-school in Umbraj town, started classes for Hindi since 1942, has established a women's association

and has been organising a series of lectures, especially during the *navratra* festivals, all with a view to realise the laid down objectives.

The funds of the institution consist of subscription fees, donations, grants and miscellaneous receipts. The education department gives a grant of Rs. 75 to the institution. The annual income and the expenditure of the institution is roughly Rs. 500.

Victoria Diamond Jubilee Library, Phaltan.

The Victoria Diamond Jubilee Library, Phaltan was established in 1870, with the object of developing among the people a taste for reading by making available books, magazines and daily newspapers in various languages.

The total membership which was 250 in 1958 included besides ordinary members, life members, donors and sympathisers. The library has at its head the President and the Vice-President elected by the general body at its annual meeting. The managing body consisting of seven members is also elected. The Chairman and the Secretary are elected out of these seven members. The Secretary under the supervision and guidance of the managing body looks after the administration of the library. The managing body meets at least once in a month. Among other activities of the library could be mentioned a *Lok Shikshanmala* and a university extension lectures series.

The institution receives a Government grant of Rs. 450. The property, assets and income of the library consist of a building worth about Rs. 40,000, books 4,000 in number and an annual income of Rs. 1,000 including the Government grant. The annual expenditure comes to Rs. 1,114 approximately.

Dhanjibhai Nemichand Shah Trust, Mhasvad.

Dhanjibhai Nemichand Shah Trust of Mhasvad was established in 1933, with the object of carrying on *dharmakarya* of the temple at Mhasvad and other religious activities.

The number of members was three in 1958. The assets of the institution consist of a *manstambha* valued at Rs. 15,533. The annual income and expenditure of the Trust was worth about Rs. 500 in 1958.

Samartha Seva Mandal, Sajjangad.

The Samarth Seva Mandal was established in 1950 at Sajjangad, with the object of propagating the philosophy of Samartha Ramdas, through *Kirtans*, discourses, periodicals and pamphlets, carrying out repairs and improvements to the place of historical and religious importance and connected with Samarth Ramdas, looking to comforts and convenience of the visiting pilgrims and tourists, spreading the Teachings contained in the writings of Ramdas and other saints by opening libraries and reading rooms.

All the business transactions and management of the *Mandal* are conducted by a general body and a managing committee. The general body consists of all the members and advisers. It elects the managing committee. The President of the managing committee is also the President of the General body. The general body prepares and sanctions the budget for the incoming year, passes rules and regulations adopted by the managing committee, authorises the

CHAPTER 18.

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Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

managing committee to take necessary decision when carrying out its duties. The managing committee consists of eleven members. It elects a President, vice-president, manager, treasurer and secretary. Under extraordinary circumstances the Secretary with the assent of the managing committee can call a special general meeting. The committee meets every two months and oftener if necessary. The managing committee submits reports of the business transacted and of the accounts to the general body. It executes all the policies laid down by the general body.

The institution is maintained with the help of funds received from donations, sale of books, income from estates, interest on Government bonds, etc. During the first five years of its existence, the *Mandal* has built roads, started bus services and mail services from Satara to Parli, made arrangements for the water supply at Sajjangad and published various periodicals like "Sajjangad" and pamphlets giving the information about the life of Ramdas, his philosophy and other information about *Samartha Sampradaya* (Ramdas cult.).

Shri Sitaramchandra Vedic Dharma Prasarak Mandal, Satara.

Shri Sitaramchandra Vedic Dharma Prasarak Mandal, Satara, was established on the tenth of November in the year 1932, with the aim of teaching *Advaita, Vedanta, Puranas, Gita* and *Upanishadas* to the younger generation. The *Mandal* is managed by a body of trustees, numbering seven. During last 30 years nearly 50 students have received their education in *Mandal* and nearly 20 students have passed various examinations in this field, conducted by *Veda Shastrottejak Sanstha* of Poona and *Kavyateertha* examinations held at Baroda and Poona. Three selected students are given free residential quarters and Rs. 10 per month as scholarship. Religious seminars or meetings are arranged occasionally, for the benefit of the people.

The property and the funds of the *Mandal* consist of Government securities worth Rs. 55,000, two houses and one open plot. Its annual income consists of the interest on the Government Securities, which roughly comes to Rs. 1.700 and the income from the rented portion of the buildings, which comes to Rs. 400 per year. The annual expenditure comes to about Rs. 2,100. The number of persons employed including the teaching staff is five.

Srimadadya Shankaracharya Mandir Va Bharati Bhavan Math, Satara.

Srimadadya Shankaracharya Mandir va Bharati Bhavan Math, Satara, was established in Shaka 1862 (1940), with the object of encouraging the studies of *Vaidik* literature and the *shastras*, and of maintaining the Shankaracharya *Mandir*.

The administration of the institution is managed by a body consisting of five members, a President, vice-president and three members. The institution has permitted the *Shankaracharya Pathshala* authorities to use its *mandir's* premises for running the school. The property of the institution consists of a building only. The annual income and expenditure of the institution both amounted to Rs. 650 in 1958.

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Ayurvedic Dharmarth Jain Davakhana, Phaltan.

The *Ayurvedic Dharmarth Jain Davakhana* was established in the year 1920. The management of the *Davakhana* rests with a Board of Trustees, who numbered five in 1960. The object is to afford free medical facilities to poor people and to promote the use of Indian drugs. Use of meat, liquor and honey is strictly avoided in the treatment as per the Jain religious teachings. The assets of the institution amounted to Rs. 10,000 in 1960. The annual income and expenditure both amount to Rs. 700. The patients are charged a nominal fee of two annas per head.

Civil Hospital, North Satara, Hospital Fund, and Poor Fund.

The hospital fund and poor fund were established in 1952 with the object of providing hospital amenities in general. The annual income and the expenditure under the hospital fund are approximately Rs. 300 and Rs. 50 respectively. The annual income and the expenditure under the poor fund are approximately Rs. 750 and Rs. 250, respectively.

Abhinava Kala Mandir, Satara.

The Abhinava Kala Mandir was established in 1944 with the object of advancing cultural and recreational activities by conducting dramatic competitions, building theatres or auditoriums etc.

The management of the *Mandir* is entrusted with the general body and a managing committee. The former consists of all the members of the *Mandir*, who were 357 in 1958. It is the supreme authority in all the matters concerning the *Mandir*, and meets once a year to elect the President, the members of the managing committee, the general secretary and two joint secretaries. The managing committee consists of the President (ex-officio chairman), one general secretary, two joint secretaries, twelve members, and one additional member nominated by Government. The tenure of office is three years. The committee meets at least once a month. Its functions include the financial and executive administration of the *Mandir*.

The institution conducts dramatic competitions every year, takes part in the *Maharashtra Rajya Natya Mahotsava*, gives donations to other public institutions and individual artists, from tax moneys realised through dramatic performances at several places and maintains a small library containing books on dramatic art.

The assets and the liabilities of the *Mandir* both stood at Rs. 8,171·38 in 1957-58. The annual income and the expenditure in the same year was about Rs. 11,667·35. The income included the membership subscription, *natya mahotsava* contribution and donations.

District Probation and After Care Association, Satara.

The District Probation and After Care Association, Satara, was established in 1941, with the following objects (a) to maintain a Remand Home in Satara district for boys and girls placed before the juvenile court, (b) to supervise boys and girls who have been released on license from certified schools, (c) to carry out probation work especially among children under the Bombay Children Act, (d) to supervise young offenders released on licence from the Borstal school, Dharwar, (e) to organise the work under the Probation of Offender's Act and to supervise the probationers and (f) to educate public opinion in all questions relating to the proper

protection of children and treatment of young offenders. The total membership in 1958 was 88 including 72 ordinary and 16 life members.

To keep the inmates gainfully employed, the association has arranged to impart training in spinning, weaving, book binding, card board file making, crape flower and toy making (for girls), tailoring and few other crafts.

The income of the association in 1956-57 was Rs. 22,612·72, which included the remand grant from the office of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, Poona, donations and the amount collected through the sale of the craft products. The expenditure in 1956-57 amounted to the same.

Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Satara.

Gandharva Mahavidyalaya, Satara, was established in 1941 with the object of advancement of music as a fine art.

The membership of the Mahavidyalaya includes patrons, life members, well-wishers and ordinary members. They constitute the general body of the Mahavidyalaya. In 1958 their number was seven. The general body with the executive council looks after the business and administration of the institution. It meets at least once a year and considers the annual report, annual audit and accounts statements and such other matters arising from time to time. The executive council consists of the president, the vice-president, the secretary and four members and meets at least once in three months. It looks after the routine administration of the organisation.

The assets of the institution consists of musical instruments worth Rs. 540 and books worth Rs. 90. The annual income and expenditure in 1958 was Rs. 576·31 nP. and Rs. 1,126, respectively.

Hindu Mission, Karad.

Hindu Mission, Karad, was established in 1926. It helps the destitute and fallen women, restores the persons forcibly converted to other religions and helps the spread of education among the backward classes and tribal people. It also runs a small library.

Kasambhai Boarding Trust, Karad.

Kasambhai Boarding Trust was established in 1938 with the object of providing free lodging accommodation to students.

In 1958 there was only one trustee. The assets of the trust in 1958 were a building valued at Rs. 25,000 and furniture worth Rs. 1,400. The average annual income and expenditure are about Rs. 500 and Rs. 578, respectively. A number of students have so far been provided with lodging facilities by the trust. The building has also a hall which is rented out for public functions.

Khillar Gopalak va Gosanvardhak Sangh, Satara. (Khillar breeders Association, Satara).

Khillar Gopalak va Gosanvardhak Sangh, Satara, was established with the object of encouraging, the breeding of *khillar* bulls.

All the members of the Sangh constitute the general body (The membership is roughly between 100 to 125). The body meets once in a year to elect the managing committee of the institution, and to appoint the secretary. It also considers the future schemes for breeding of *khillar* bulls. The President of the general body is elected at the annual meeting. The managing committee consists of from five to ten members, including a chairman, vice-chairman, honorary

CHAPTER 18. — Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations. VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

secretary, and a secretary, and looks after the routine administration of the Sangh.

The Sangh conducts cattle exhibitions, supplies ammonium sulphate to the farmers and takes preventive measures against the out-break of epidemic among cattles in the district.

The annual income of the Sangh which includes the Government grant, the membership fees and donations from members and public is about Rs. 2,025 and the expenditure approximately comes to the same.

Lokseva Sangh, Satara.

The Lokseva Sangh, Satara, was established in 1937, with the object of rendering service to the people in various fields, such as educational, industrial, social and political. The trust deed was completed in 1941, fixing the number of the trustees between three and five.

The *Sangh* is making efforts towards building of the character of students by inculcating in them the spirit of selflessness and inspiring in their minds the love and loyalty to the nation. The funds of the *Sangh* in 1958 were approximately Rs. 15,000.

Mahatma Gandhi Kreeda Mandal, Satara.

Mahatma Gandhi Kreeda Mandal was started in 1922 with a view to popularise gymnastics and Indian games among the younger generation. In 1960, the institution had a membership of 90. The management of the *Mandal* rests with the managing committee consisting of seven members elected from amongst the life members who numbered 45 in 1960. The managing committee is composed of the President, the vice-president, the secretary and four other members. The yearly income and expenditure respectively of the *Mandal* amount to about Rs. 2,000. The income includes fees and Rs. 500 received from the municipality by way of grant. The *Mandal* proposes to construct a building to house a gymnasium and a library for children.

Taluka Development Board, Patan, Satara.

The Taluka Development Board was established in 1927 with the object of training the cultivators in the use of improved methods of agriculture and supplying them implements, fertilisers, seeds, insecticides, etc.

All the members of the Board (numbering 390 in 1958) constitute the general body which with the managing council conducts the administration of the Board. The general body meets once in a year to elect the president and passes the new year's budget. It also elects the president, vice-president and honorary secretary of the managing council and considers such problems as arise from time to time. The managing council is in charge of the routine administration of the Board.

The Board has so far supplied improved seeds, insecticides, improved agricultural implements to the farmers. Preventive measures against cattle diseases are being taken up by the Board.

The assets of the Board in 1958 were Rs. 26,212·12.

Vyayam Mandal, Satara.

Vyayam Mandal, Satara, was established with a view to developing among the educated a liking for gymnastics, physical training

CHAPTER 18.

Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

and Indian games. A number of its members have successfully participated in the gymnastics and other sports organised in the State.

Originally there were two separate institutions, *viz.*, the *Gajanan Vyayam Shala* and the *Arya Kreeda Mandal* both established in the year 1920. The two institutions were later amalgamated and now form the *Vyayam Mandal*, Satara. The reason for the amalgamation was the similarity of aims and objectives of both the institutions. The *Mandal* has started in 1957 the *Kranti Smriti Sharirik Shikshan Vidyalaya* to commemorate the centenary celebrations of the 1857 revolt, where training for C. P. Ed. (Certificate Course in Physical Education) is given. The *Mandal* proposes to build a *Vidyarthi Vasatigraha* to provide lodging facilities to the students coming from outside and to make available to them educational facilities in various fields, e.g., agricultural, technical, medical etc.

The assets of the *Mandal* amounted to Rs. 50,000 in 1959-60. The income and expenditure of the *Mandal* in 1959-60 both came to about Rs. 22,816·82. The income of the *Mandal* comprises annual grants from the State Government and the municipality, donations and fees.

Wai Vyayam Shala, Wai.

The Wai Vyayam Shala was established in 1923 with the object of developing gymnastic habits among the people by imparting physical training and opening of gymnasiums and health leagues at various places.

The membership of the Vyayam Shala includes patrons, donors, life members, ordinary members and well wishers. The meeting of the general body of Wai Vyayam Shala is held in May every year. The body in its annual meeting elects the managing committee and considers the annual expenditure reports. It elects the president and the vice-president. The managing committee consists of a chairman, a secretary, a treasurer and six other members. The committee meets at least once in a month. The committee can convene the general body meeting under extraordinary circumstances. The total membership in 1958 was sixty. The Vyayam Shala instructs the members in various exercises such as double bar, horizontal and vertical bar, Indian games and foreign games.

The assets of the Vyayam Shala are valued at Rs. 5,165·50 approximately. The average annual income which is roughly Rs. 2,500 consists of private donations, and government grants to the institutions. The annual expenditure comes to about Rs. 3,000

CHAPTER 19—PLACES OF INTEREST.*

Places.
Aundh.

Aundh (Khaṭāv T; 17° 30′ N, 74° 20′ E; RS Rahimatpūr 13 m. NW; p. 4,652) village was the residence of the Pant Pratinidhi and formed part of his estate or *jāgir*. It is surrounded on all sides by territory forming part of the Khaṭāv taluka and lies nine miles south-west of Vaḍūj, the head-quarters of the Khaṭāv taluka and about twenty-six miles south-east of Sātārā. At the top of the pass by which the Sātārā-Tāsgāṅv road connects the Khaṭāv and Koregāṅv talukas a cross road branches due east to Aundh which lies in a basin of small hills entirely sheltered from the north and east. The Pant's mansion or *vāḍā* is the chief building in the village and consists of a two-storeyed *vāḍā* in the Marāṭhā style with a quadrangle in the centre. In front is a court-yard flanked with buildings out of which a narrow approach leads at right angles into the main street The whole building covers a space of about two acres. Next to it in the north of the town is a temple of Yamunā Devī, the patron goddess of the Pant Pratinidhi's family. In front of the temple on the east is a very fine lamp-pillar or *dīpmāḷ* about sixty feet high and not more than fifteen feet in diameter at the base. It is studded in eight alternate lines, within each line twenty-two projecting stones for mounting by and twenty-two brackets for lamps making a total of 176 lamps and as many steps. To break the monotony of the structure the steps are fixed in a position intermediate between the brackets and *vice versa*. The moulding of both brackets and steps is plain but graceful and the stone work on the whole finely cut and well put together. The *dipmāḷ* is lighted during the Kārtiḳ fair. The uncommon height and slender tapering of this *dīpmāḷ* makes it unusually elegant. Auraṅgzeb came to the village, it is said, with the intention of breaking open the idol, but he spared the *dīpmāḷ*. About two miles south of the town is a bungalow built as a summer resort. About a mile to the south-west of the town is a hill about 800 feet above the plain, the summit of which is crowned by another temple of Yamunā Devī. It was the special resort for worship of the Pant and his family, and was much enlarged and adorned by the Chief and his ancestors. Except its

* The historical portions in this chapter were revised by Prof. R. V. Oturkar, M.A., Poona.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
AUNDH.

great local repute for holiness, the temple has nothing remarkable about it. The court-yard is about thirty yards square paved with stone and surrounded by ramparts about twelve feet thick and fifteen feet high inside. Outside, the height rises with the hill, and in places is not less than forty feet. There are five bastions one at the south-west and two each at the north-west and north-east corners. The south-east corner is rectangular. On the north-west side is the gateway a pointed arch of the thickness of the wall and on its left is the *nagārkhānā* or music chamber. The temple consists of a plainly built *manḍap* about thirty feet by twenty fronting east with a star-shaped cut stone but plain idol-chamber or *gābhārā* with a greatest length and breadth of about twenty feet and surmounted by a twelve-sided stucco spire The *gābhārā* contains a black stone image of Yamnāī. The ascent up the hill is made easy by means of about a hundred steps and an excellent pathway about ten feet broad. There is an alternative route by a second flight of steps up the lower half of the hill and passing a small shrine of Gaṇapati. On the hill side at the north-west of the temple is a flat ridge and a stone tank about twenty yards square. The temple and its neighbourhood are the favourite haunt of small, very tame monkeys. Though the temple building is not very notable, the ascent gives a fine view about twenty-five miles north-west towards Sātārā and on a clear day as far as Siṅgṇāpūr about thirty miles to the north-east.

The family of the Pant Pratinidhi whose capital was at Aundh was descended from Trimbak Kṛshṇa the *Kulkarṇi* (accountant) of the village of Kinhai in the Koregāṅv sub-division of Sātārā. In 1690, Rājārām, the youngest son of Shivājī raised Trimbak Parashurām Pant, who was in the service of Rāmchandrapant Amātya to the rank of *Sardār*. He became a great favourite of Rājārām's and in 1698 was made *pratinidhi* or viceroy. In 1699 his predecessor Timājī Haṇmant, who had been taken prisoner by the Moghals. was set free and reappointed Pratinidhi and Parashurāmpant received the office of Peshvā or prime minister. In 1700 on the death of Rājārām his widow Tārābai again appointed Parashurām *pratinidhi*. In the civil war which followed the death of Rājārām, Parashurām was Tārābāi's chief general and in 1707 was defeated and taken prisoner by Shāhū, the grandson of Shivājī. Parashurām left his appointment and in 1710 the office of *Pratinidhi* was given to Gadādhar Pralhād. On Gadādhar's death in the same year, Parashurām was set free and restored, but in 1711 the office was again taken from him and given to Nārāyaṇ Pralhād. In 1713 Parashurām Pant was again restored and the office of *Pratinidhi* was made hereditary in his family. In the same year Aundh was the scene of a battle between Kṛshṇarāv Khatāvkar, who was put up by the Moghals and Bāḷājī Vishvanāth who was in the service of Shāhū of Sātārā. Kṛshṇarāv was defeated and on submission was pardoned and granted the village of Khatāv, twenty-five miles, east of Sātārā. Parashurām died in 1717 and was succeeded by his second son Shrinivās as his eldest son Kṛshṇājī was Pratinidhi of Vishāḷgaḍ in

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
AUNDH.

Kolhāpūr State. Shrinivās also called Shripatrāv was during all his time Shāhū's chief adviser. After his death in 1746 his younger brother Jagjivan was appointed to his post. In the revolution that took place at Sātārā after the death of Shāhū, Jagjivan and his *mutāliq* Yamājī Shivadev sided with Tārābāi and plotted against the Peshvā. Consequently Peshvā deposed him and the post passed on to Bhavānrāv, the grandson of Kṛshṇājī. It is unnecessary to follow the line of succession further. Suffice to say that the office of the Pratinidhis of Sātārā continued to be held in the same line, till after the extinction of Sātārā *gādi* in 1848, but Shrinivāsrāv who held the post during the sixties of the last century was a member of the Legislative Council of Bombay during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. The State was merged in 1947.

In 1713 Aundh was the scene of a battle between Kṛshṇarāv Khaṭāvkar, a Brāhmaṇ, put up by the Moghals and Bāḷājī Vishvanāth afterwards the first Peshvā and at that time a clerk to Shāhū (1707-1749) of Sātārā. Kṛshṇarāv was defeated and on sub-mission was pardoned and granted the village of Khaṭāv, twenty-five miles east of Sātārā.

The museum, situated on Shri Yamāī Hill has an attractive build-ing built in cement concrete. Surrounding the building is a beauti-ful garden where there is a bust of the late Rajāsāheb of Aundh, Shrimant Bāḷāsāheb Pant Pratinidhi, the founder of the museum. Articles and paintings of world-fame, collected by the late Rājāsāheb from various parts of India and Europe, are kept here, which speak of the founder's taste for fine arts. There are also paintings, some done by the late Rājāsāheb himself and others by the artists patronised by him. At present the museum is owned and managed by Government.

Sri Yamāī Shrinivās High School of Aundh, reputed for its high standard in the educational sphere was started in 1880 by the then Chief of the *ex*-Aundh-State. There are two residencies attached to this high school *viz.* Kedāreśvar Residency and Pañcavaṭī Residency. Nominal fees were charged in the *ex*-State regime. At present the high school is run by a society formed at Aundh.

Training College.

A training college is recently started at Aundh where training in teaching courses is given.

With the merger of the former Princely States, Aundh has lost its importance as the Capital of a State. However, it is gaining importance as an educational centre.

BAHULE.

Bahule (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 15′ N; 74° 00′ E; RS Karāḍ 14 m., NE; p. 1,852) lying at a distance of three miles from Nisare on the Karāḍ-Cipḷuṇ road and situated close under the north slope of the Māḷā-Tāmbve spur three miles south of Mandrūḷ and ten miles east-south-east of Pāṭaṇ contains a curious little Hemaḍpantī temple.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

BAHULE.

The temple is still in good repair. It stands in the middle of a paved court (78′ × 64′) sunk four feet in the ground and surrounded by a dense growth of fine old *pimpaḷ* trees. The temple faces east and consists of an image-chamber with stone walls set in mortar (14′ 4″ × 18′ 8″) and surmounted by a *shikhar* or spire twenty-nine feet high from the ground. This spire was built about two centuries ago by Parashurām Nārāyaṇ Angaḷ, a rich banker of Nigaḍī who built a temple at Pāṭeśvar near Sātārā and at many other places in the district. The walls are 2′ 8″ thick and the inner space about eight feet square. In the centre is a *liṅg* of Bahuleśvar Mahādev in a case or *shāḷuṅkhā* fronting north and over a spring the water of which drains through a channel shaped like a cow's head into a stone basin formed on the north side in the court pavement. In the north-west and south-east corners are two small basins sunk in the floor and there are two niches one in the south and one in the north wall. The entrance to the image-chamber is through a vestibule (7′ 4″ × 18′ 10″) by a quadrangular doorway two feet broad by 4′ 9″ high. The vestibule has two solid niches in the north and south walls. The hall or *maṇḍap* which is really the only ancient part of the temple is fourteen feet long, east to west and 18′ 10″ broad, north to south. It is, as usual, open on all four sides, supported by twelve pillars in four rows of four each 4′ 6″ apart, north to south. The four west pillars are embedded in the modern vestibule wall; of the rest, the four middle, form a square in the centre of which is a small stone bull or *Nandī*, and the remaining four are partly embedded in a stone bench 2′ 8″ wide, the end of which lies vertically under the eaves, which are broad and turned up at the end. The roof 7′ 8″ high from within was originally flat but has been put on a slope with brick and cemented by a modern hand. Behind the bench rises a back about four feet high from the ground. The pillars are all of one pattern. The shafts are of a single block cut in rectangular, octagonal and cylindrical concentric divisions but without any carving or ornament. The stone used throughout the *maṇḍap* is in large blocks or slabs and at the roof is joined to the pillars by brackets branching in four directions. Each compartment has a ceiling in the lozenge pattern, formed by placing slabs diagonally to each other without mortar. About nine feet east of the temple is a bathing tank (15′ 11″ × 19′) fed from a spring in the south-east corner of the court and joined with it by a drain. The water of the tank is reached by steps. The officiating temple priests were some Brāhmaṇs inhabiting the neighbouring village of Garavḍe. The temple is connected with Bahulē half a mile off by a causeway. The Garavḍe village lying close by the temple enjoys an excellent supply of spring water which is brought to the village through pipes. Few villages in the district have such a pure and incorruptible supply of water. Fairs in honour of Bahuleśvar are held on the *Mahāshivrātra* or Great Night of Shiv in February-March and the Mondays of *Shrāvaṇ* or July-August and attended by about three to five thousand people. The *liṅg* is said to have been set up by a cowherd to whom the God appeared and showed the spring of milk.

BAMNOLI.

Bāmṇolī (Jāvaḷī T; 17° 40′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS. Sātārā Road 34 m. SE; p. 1,059), village which lies seven miles south-west of Meḍhā, is the starting point in the Koynā valley for the Āmbolī pass connecting it with the Koṅkaṇ. The village is and has been a local market from early times and has six shops of traders. Sunday is the bazar day. Weekly bazar is held in winter and summer when vegetables, food grains and other articles are sold. There is a beaten track not good even for bullock-carts connecting Bāmṇolī to Meḍhā. The track is washed away by rains during monsoon and it becomes difficult to cross the big hill-range lying between Meḍhā and Bāmṇolī.

The village may be submerged under the Koynā dam in near future. Like Tāmbī, Bāmṇolī was a small administrative centre under the Marāṭhā Government.

BANPURI.

Bāṇpurī (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 30′ N; 74° 30′ E; RS. Karāḍ 25 m. NE; p. 1,683) in the Vaṅg Valley, ten miles south-south-east of Pāṭaṇ, is a village on Ḍhebevāḍī Sāḷve road. To the south of the village on the hill side is a temple of Nāīkbā, a form of Shiv. The temple, a solid but poor structure with stone walls and a tiled roof, now requires some minor repairs. The *liṅg* has a silver mask which is carried in procession on the two fair days, the fifth of *Chaitra* (March-April) and the tenth of *Ashvin* (September-October). On the latter occasion the attendance numbers over 20,000 when people from the neighbouring areas in the State and out-side come. The legend is that a cultivator named Ābāsāheb Yeshvantarāv Jānugaḍē devotedly worshipped God Shiv on this spot until he grew old and infirm. God Shiv ordered him to go home and promised to follow him if he did not look back. The old man obeyed till on his way hearing a terrible noise he looked back and saw an enormous boulder fall from the hill and smashed to pieces. That night he had a dream that the boulder was Shiv who should be worshipped on the spot and styled Nāikbā.

BAVDHAN.

Bāvdhan (Wāī T; 18° 30′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 23 m NE; p. 4,712) village was alienated to Rājārām Bhonslē, the adopted son of the widow of the late Rājā of Sātārā. It is situated three miles due south of Wāī and a mile south of the Wāī-Pāñcvaḍ road, with which it is connected by a road leading down to the Kṛshṇā river which flows about 1½ miles to the north. To the west of the village is a bare range of hills branching from Pasarṇi and containing two small caves very difficult of access believed to be Buddhist. On the hill top is a flat plateau with a temple of Devī which was in charge of a *Gosāvī*. In the village is an old temple of Bhairav which was entirely rebuilt about 150 years ago, from village subscriptions. The temple is a rude stone work with a brick spire and a courtyard. A yearly fair is held on the dark fifth of *Phālgun* (February-March) and is attended by about 15,000 people. A far more interesting structure is the Mahādev temple down by the Kṛshṇā about a quarter of a mile north of the high road. A paved court has been built on the side which slopes gently down to the river. The temple consists of an image-chamber about twelve feet square apparently old and

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

BAVDHAN.

a modern hall opens at the sides, with twelve pillars supporting a flat roof with a parapet and broad eaves. On the north of the image-chamber or *gābhārā* is a small stone basin into which flows the water thrown over the *ling* and over a spring believed to be one of the mouths of the Sarasvatī. The hall is about twenty feet square and the courtyard in front, eighty feet by sixty. The image-chamber is surmounted by a spire or *shikhar* in the old star shape. Leading from the temple to the river is a flight of stone steps thirty feet wide. The temple was added to and restored by a Peshvā officer surnamed Kāniṭkar. Besides these temples the village contains a large but fallen mansion or *vāḍā* belonging once to the Kuḷkarṇī family.

BHAIRAVGAD FORT.

Bhairavgaḍ Fort (Pāṭaṇ T; RS. Karāḍ 48 m. W.,) twenty miles south-west of Pāṭaṇ and about four miles west of Mālā, from which it is pretty easily accessible by a rough footpath through dense jungle, is a rounded hill situated on the face of the Sahyādrī range and jutting about a hundred feet into the Koṅkaṇ. A narrow neck thirty yards long separates it from the cliff on the east, which rises some 300 feet above it. About five acres in area, the hill has on the east a temple of Bhairav which gives it, its name. The temple roofed with earthen tiles is in a state of good repair. It was repaired in 1957.

According to Grant Duff[1], Bhairavgaḍ was one of the forts built by the Rājās of Panhāḷā. The garrison in Marāṭhā times was furnished by soldiers sent from Sātārā. There are no traces of houses and the walls are in ruins. In the last Marāṭhā war, Bhairavgaḍ was captured by the English on the 23rd of May, 1818. A detachment of a hundred rank and file was sent by Lieutenant-Colonel Kennedy under command of Lieutenant Capon from Sāvarḍe in Cipḷuṇ in Ratnāgirī district They proceeded to Talavḍe, a village at the foot of the hill from which there was an ascent of nearly six miles. But a message brought down the native officer in charge of the fort with a party of the garrison, who promised to surrender next morning on condition that the arms and property belonging to him and the garrison about a hundred strong, were respected and an escort of sepoys allowed as far as Pāṭaṇ. The fort was accordingly taken without resistance[2].

BHUSHANGAD

Bhuśaṇgaḍ (Khaṭāv T; RS Rahimatpūr 22 m. NW; p. 713) in Khaṭāv about eleven miles south-west of Vaḍūj is a roughly oval solitary hill rising about 600 feet above the surrounding plain. The fort is said to have been originally built by Singhaṇ ruler of Devgirī (1210—47)[3]. On the north-west half down the slope are a number of houses which were mostly inhabited by Brāhmaṇs formerly attached to the fort garrison. In recent times most of the Brāhmaṇ families have left for other places to seek service and business. The ground above the fort slopes towards the top. Except near the gateway on the north-east the walls are of light masonry. The fort wall stands in a decayed condition. On the top

[1] Marathas, 13 note 3 (Old Edition).

[2] Pendhari and Maratha War Papers.

[3] Shivaji Souvenir—Marathi Section page 82.

was a very deep tank now filled up. The ascent is easy. Bhushaṇgaḍ is not commanded by any hill within five miles. The fort was repaired by Shivājī about 1676, and it sustained an attack from Fattesingh Māne in 1805 then camped at Rahimatpūr.

BOPARDI.

Bopardī (Wāi T, 17° 55′ N. 73° 50′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 22 m. SE; p. 1,664) is a small village two miles north of Wāī and connected with it. It contains a modern but well built little temple of Mahādev curiously placed in a stone tank, from which four steps lead upwards on to the surrounding court. The temple is nothing but a shrine with a porch, the whole measuring twenty feet long by eighteen feet wide. The porch is four feet by eighteen and consists of three small flat-roofed compartments supported on rectangular shafted pillars eighteen inches at the base with brackets at the head. The shrine is surmounted by a very elaborate stucco-decorated brick spire or *shikhar*. In front is a *Nandī* canopy also with a small spire. The *ling* is over a rich spring and there is a drain on the north side through which the water is allowed to flow. The temple, which though small is a very pleasing structure and was built by one Lakshmaṇ Dhoṇḍdev Phaḍṇis, a dependant of the Rāste family who flourished about two hundred years ago. The temple is in great local repute at Wāī. The *Devasthān* is registered under the Bombay Public Trusts Act. Bopardī, situated only at a distance of two miles from Wāī, has two yearly fairs *viz.*, in Kārtik and in Māgh in honour of God Bhīmā-Shaṅkar. The fairs attract a large number of people from Wāī.

CHANDAN AND VANDAN FORTS.

Candan and Vandan (Sātārā T; 17° 50′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS Rahimatpur 6 m. S; p. 1,379) forts are situated some ten miles north-east of Sātārā and stand out prominently from the range of hills running nearly south from Haralī, the massive hill immediately east of the Khambaṭakī pass and terminating with Jaraṇḍā nearly due east of Sātārā. Vandan the higher, larger, and more prominent of the two, 3,851 feet above sea level, lies in Mālgāṅv village of Sātārā talukā, and is approached most easily from Jaraṇḍā, a hamlet of Kikli. An approach to both the forts can be made from Ibrāhimpur which is three miles from Āmbevāḍī. The ascent is very steep. On the half-way to the fort is the Mari-āāi temple. Further up, the ascent is steep and it becomes steeper as we go further up. On the fort the water is available but not potable. The path, which bears evidence of having been at one time a broad roughly-paved causeway with here and there some rude steps, ascends steeply the northern slope of the fort until it reaches the saddle between Vandan and Candan, then it doubles back along the eastern slope immediately under the lower of the two scarps for some distance almost level. About midway along the eastern side of the hill it again doubles back and the ascent is by a steep flight of rough steps to the first gate which looks nearly due south. The gateway is in order but the curtain behind it has fallen down and is completely ruinous. A sharp zigzag leads to the second gate which looks more ancient than the first gate and is nearly blocked up with stones.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
CHANDAN AND VANDAN FORTS.

There is an inscription in Persian characters over the gateway. A covered way leads on from the gate to a point whence a very steep winding flight of stones leads direct to the top of the scarp or a more gradual gradient gives access to the top by walking round to the northern side. The lower scarp is a very perfect one and the only possible approach to the top is by the gateway first mentioned. Once within this gateway, now that the curtain has fallen down, the top can be reached by either route.

The area on the top is considerable and bears the appearance of having held a large garrison. The ruins and foundations of houses are very numerous up and in the south-east corner where there is a regular street. This quarter is pointed out as the Brāhmaṇ *āḷi*. Immediately above it, approached by a broad flight of steps, are the ruins of the *sarkārvāḍā*. Close by is a second large banyan and above a large *shivri* tree. These trees form conspicuous objects on the hill top from considerable distances around. Near the *vāḍā* is a large room divided into three compartments and still completely roofed. More to the west is a mosque still in fair preservation, and at the extreme west corner is a considerable musalmān bathing place with two roofed and walled tombs. A ministrant with a small patch of *inām* land still attends to them and the tombs themselves are covered with clothes. There are several large water reservoirs on the hill top, noticeably one close below the remains of *sarkārvāḍā*, and another, near the Musalmān burying place, which is still confined by masonry in fairly good order. Near the south-west corner there evidently was a large tank formed by excavation, the earth being thrown up near the edge of the precipice so as to form a dam. But the dam has been pierced evidently on purpose and the tank can hold no water now. The whole of the hill top is not level. An eminence rises with steep slopes on its southern half to a height of some 100 feet above the level of the *sarkārvāḍā*. This eminence is surmounted with the ruins of a considerable building, the object of which unless it were a pleasure-house, is not evident.

The whole of the hill top is not walled. There are masonry walls at all the weak points and bastions at the angles. Captain Rose visited the fort in 1857 to burst the cannon none of which now remain. He probably also destroyed the dam. There used to be a *subhedār* on the hill. Some 200 *gaḍkaris* were attached to the fort and lived in the various hamlets around, chiefly to the north.

Candan, situated in Bānavaḍī village of Koregānv taluka and separated from Vandan only by the saddleback scarcely half a mile across, is a slightly lower hill and wants the eminence on the top of Vandan. We come across one mosque on half way to the fort which is in dilapidated condition. The gate is at the south-east corner and the easiest ascent is from the north, crossing the north-east slope of the hill. If visited from Vandan, difficult footpaths lead from the saddle either along the north-west or north slopes or along the south slope to the south-east angle where they join the regular approach near the gateway. The gateway is in no way remarkable,

CHANDAN AND VANDAN FORTS.

and once within, there is no further difficulty beyond a steep ascent to gain the level top. On the side of Vandan there is one mosque which is in dilapidated condition. There is no second gate, but, after passing an old temple of Mahādev and a fine banyan tree, a flight of fairly broad steps leads to the top of the hill between two curiously built pillars. They consist each of four huge unhewn stones piled one on another. It is said they were placed there when the fort was built about 1,600 A.D. by Ibrāhim Ādilshāh II (1580-1626), the sixth Bijāpūr king[1]. A local legend explains how the stones were erected. A huge stone was first made firm, then it was surrounded by earth, and up the back thus formed a second huge stone was rolled and pushed and fastened on the former. This operation was repeated again and again and finally the earth cleared away leaving the present pillars of huge stone rising to a height of some fifteen to twenty feet. The pillars are damaged through the passing of time. There is not much else of interest in the fort. There are evidences of the existence at one time of a very considerable population and traces remain of a fine *sarkārvāḍā* and a room. The tank holds some water but does not afford enough supply when the visitors come, the dam having been evidently purposely damaged to prevent water being retained. A *Subhedār* formerly resided on the fort with villages from the Koregānv sub-division in his charge. As in the case of Vandan only the broken points were defended by masonry walls and angles by bastions. In 1673, Candan Vandan were among the forts which fell into Shivājī's hand[2]. They were taken by Auraṅgzeb's Officers in 1701[3] but were recaptured by Shāhū after his release in 1707[4]. During the civil war between Tārābāī and Shāhū, Shāhū's army was encamped at Candan Vandan in the rains of 1707[5]. Later in 1752, Peshvā Bāḷājī Bājīrāv kept a small force under Dadopant Vāgh to keep a watch on Tārābāi and to prevent her from making any mischief. In 1756 Tuḷājī Āṅgre was kept as a prisoner by the Peshvā in the same place for some time after the fall of Vijayadurg In a revenue statement of about 1790 'Candan-Vandan' are mentioned as the headquarters of *paragaṇā* in the Bijapur *Subhā* with a revenue of Rs. 21,644[6]. They fell in 1818 to the British.

The forts are deserted and visitors mostly Muslims, visit these forts at the time of *urus*.

CHAPHAL.

Cāphaḷ (Pāṭaṇ T: 17° 20′ N; 74° 00′ E: RS. Masūr 11 m. E; p. 2,687) village lies on the Māṇ, a tributary of the Kṛshṇā six miles west of Umbraj. The village lies on the Caregāṅv-Padḷosi road which is an all weather motorable road. The village is prettily placed in a narrow part of the valley and is surrounded by fertile

1 According to Grant Duff Chandan and Vandan were among the fifteen forts built by one of the Panhala kings about 1190. Marathas, Vol. I page 26 Note V.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, page 202.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, page 303.

4 Sardesai's New History of the Marathas, Vol. II. page 9.

5 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, page 318.

6 Waring's Marathas, 244. The statement also mentions 'Chenden' separately with an income of Rs. 20,786. Ditto.

black soil and teak-covered hills. The water-supply for drinking and irrigation is plentiful. The proprietor was Lakshmaṇrāv Rāmchandra Svāmi, descendant of the famous Rāmdās Svāmi, contemporary and spiritual adviser of Chhatrapati Shivājī. Rāmdās Svāmī lived there and made it a centre of his spiritual activity. He came to be known as *Samartha*. Cāphaḷ soon came to be regarded as a sacred place of pilgrimage as Rāmdās brought from Pañcavaṭī (near Nāśik) the *pādukā* of Rām and placed them there. The representative of the family related to Rāmdās ranked first among the Sātārā chiefs above the Pratinidhi and the Sachiv and the chiefs of Phalṭaṇ and Jath; and divided his residence between Cāphaḷ and the fort of Paraḷi. Eight villages of the head Māṇ valley were alienated to him, besides others in Sātārā near Paraḷī fort. Cāphaḷ village is situated on both sides of the river. On the left bank is the main street once inhabited by several well-to-do traders, where a weekly market is held on Thursday. A foot bridge connects it with the right bank where the primary school in a good District Local Board building, a few houses, and the temple and mansion of the Svāmi are situated. They are built on a hillock within the same paved court and were reached by a causeway surmounted by a flight of fifty steps and an archway with a *nagārkhānā* or drum-chamber on the top. The causeway has now fallen. The dwelling houses line the sides of the court and in the middle is the temple dedicated to Rāmdās Svāmi and to God Māruti. The temple court steps are all of fine trap masonry and in excellent repair but, apart from solidarity and good plain workmanship, are in no way remarkable. The temple faces east and has an open hall on wooden pillars and a stone image-chamber with a tower of brick and cement. The temple was completed in 1776, at an estimated cost of over Rs. 1,00,000, by Bāḷājī Māṇḍavgaṇe a rich Brāhmaṇ who built many other temples in the district. The north side faces the river whose banks here are about sixty feet high of crumbling black soil and kept together by a solid retaining wall of mortared masonry. The temple is enriched by many offerings and is a favourite place of pilgrimage. A fair attended by over 5,000 pilgrims is held on Rāmanavami day (i.e. the ninth of *Chaitra* or March-April).

CHAREGAON.

Caregāṇv (Karāḍ T; 17° 20′ N, 74° 05′ E; RS. Masūr 6m, NE, p. 3,776.) is a large village four miles west of Umbraj on the Umbraj-Malhārpeṭh road which crosses the Māṇḍ river by a stone masonry bridge close to the south-west of the town. Caregāṇv has a primary school and a large population of traders who conduct export trade with Cipḷun. Grocery. sugarcane and groundnut form the main articles of trade. From early times, pack bullocks from this village crossed the Kumbhārlī pass in numbers. Their place is taken by trucks.

Under the Community Development Scheme a *bandhārā* on the Māṇḍ river is being constructed. It is estimated to cost Rs. 2,59,572 and more than 1750 acres of land will be brought under irrigation on its completion. A *Samāj Mandir* and a gymnasium built under the scheme were partly financed through popular contribution.

Cimangāṅv (Koregāṅv T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 10′ E; RS Koregāṅv 6 m. SW; p. 2,650) on the left bank of a stream about four miles north-west of Koregāṅv, has a Hemāḍpantī temple of Mahādev. The sanctuary is modern but the hall with its sixteen pillars is old. The centre course in each pillar is well carved. The facade of the roof is of stone slabs with the usual broad eaves curved and turned-up margins. The carving in the pillars, the decoration of the plinth, and facing of the roof, are good and in a floral pattern with knots and balls. The brackets supporting the pillars are also well carved. Cimangāṅv was the headquarters of Bāpū Gokhale in an attack on Vardhangaḍ fort when in 1807 he was returning to Pooṇā after the action below Vasantgaḍ in which the Pant Pratinidhi was taken prisoner[1]. There is a temple of God Māruti established by Rāmdās Svāmī. A fair is held in his honour on every Saturday in the month of *Shrāvaṇ*, the last Saturday being most important when about 10,000 people attend.

DAHIVADI.

Dahīvaḍī (Māṇ T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 30′ E; RS Koregāṅv 28 m. W; p. 4,057) lies on the right bank of the Māṇ on the Pusesavaḷī-Shingṇāpur road, forty miles east of Sātārā and about four miles from the junction of the above mentioned road with the Sātārā Paṇḍharpūr road. The river banks are low and the village is spread along the sides for about a quarter of a mile.

DATEGAD.

Dātegaḍ or *Sundargaḍ* (Pāṭaṇ T; RS. Karāḍ, 27 m.) about 2,000 feet above the plain, lies three miles north-west of Pāṭaṇ. It is one of the highest points for many miles and not commanded by any neighbouring hill. The ascent is about three miles by a very steep bridle path leading on to a plateau whence there is a steep ascent to the fort. The scarp is about thirty feet high, but owing to scattered boulders is in places easy to climb. About 600 feet long by 180 feet broad, the fort is oblong in shape and has an area of about three acres. The entrance is about the centre of the west face. A passage, seven feet broad, is cut about twenty feet down from the top of the scarp. This passage contained a gateway of a single-pointed arch ten feet high which has fallen in About twenty-rock-cut steps lead out on the top turning south halfway up. In the corner of the angle is an image of God Mārutī. The walls are in ruins and consisted originally of large laterite blocks, well cut, and put together without mortar. These must be the original structures though there are many modern additions. The wall originally had a loopholed parapet about four feet high. On the east a little more than half-way up is a curious dungeon. Some steps lead down about eight feet into the rock in which a room apparently about thirty feet by twelve and eight high has been made. It is fearfully dark and two small holes are perforated for light and air. This room, it is said, was used as an *oubliette* or dungeon. There is also a very curious well, 100 feet deep cut twenty feet square out of the solid rock, and with a flight of sixty-four rock-cut steps twelve feet wide. The water is approached through a sort of gateway made by leaving unhewn a portion of the

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 616.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.
DATEGAD.

rock joining the two sides of the passage. The water is always good, fresh and abundant. The story is that the well belongs to the Koynā river and that a leaf thrown into that river at the right place will be found floating in this well. There are two large tanks thirty feet square and a smaller one all said to be for the storage of grain. This seems doubtful; they were more probably used to store water drawn from the big well. On the south of the fort are the remains of four buildings and facing north and adjoining the rock is the *kacheri* building or court-house. The fort had a permanent garrison of 150 and lands were assigned for its maintenance in the neighbouring villages. Administrative orders were frequently sent for execution by the Marāṭhā government to the officer in charge of this fort. Though local tradition ascribes its building to Shivājī, documents show that the Muhammedans had possession of this fort. Its appearance makes it likely that it is older than either and the well is ascribed to mythological seers or *Ṛshis*. On the east face is a tank made in the side of the hill at the foot of the scarp and cut out of the rock in the form of a cow's mouth. It was proposed to use this spring for drinking and irrigation water supply to the town of Pāṭaṇ, but the Irrigation department had found the scheme impracticable. After the establishment of the Sātārā Rājā in 1818, Captain Grant obtained the surrender of Dātegaḍ sometime in the month of May in exchange for five horses of the fort commandant which had been captured by the local militia, and promising to allow the garrison their arms and property. The fort with its walls and tanks is in a state of bad repair and at many places, it is in ruins. The tanks are out of use as there is no habitation in the fort.

DEUR.

Deūr (Koregāṅv T; 17° 50′ N; 74° 05′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 3 m. N; p. 1,810) on a feeder of the Vārṇā, about ten miles north-west of Koregāṅv and fourteen miles north-east of Sātārā, is a large village. The village lies on the Sātārā-Bārāmatī-Phalṭaṇ road at mile No. 20.

In 1713, Deūr was the scene of a battle between Chandrasen Jādhav and Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar chiefly on the question of the surrender of Bāḷājī Vishvanāth, afterwards the great Peshvā, but then only in a subordinate station attached to Jādhav and deputed to superintend revenue collections for the Sātārā Rājā. This was resented by Jādhav and Bāḷājī fled for his life to Paṇḍugaḍ. Jādhav demanded his surrender from Shāhū Rājā who replied by ordering Haibatrāv to fight with Chandrasen Jādhav. Jādhav was defeated and retired to Kolhāpūr, where he was received and given a *jāgir*[1]. There is a temple of God Viṭṭhal. The temple built in stone is known for its architecture. Another temple in the village *viz*. that of Mudhāī Devī seems to be very old.

DHAVADSHI.

Dhāvaḍsī (Sātārā T; 17° 45′ N, 73° 55′ E; RS. Sātārā Road 17 m. E; p. 832) village about six miles north-west of Sātārā is interesting as the headquarters or *samsthān* and afterwards as the burial place or *samādhi* of Bhārgavrām (Brahmendrasvāmi), the spiritual teacher or *mahāpurush* of Bājīrāv, the second Peshvā, his brother Chimāji Āppā and his son Bāḷājī Bājīrāv or Nana Sāheb

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, page 323.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

DHAVADSHI.

the third Peshvā. Bājirāv, his brother and his son reported all their affairs to Bhārgavrām. Their letters are valuable historical records[1].

An annual fair in honour of Bhārgavrām is held near the *samādhi* in the month of Shrāvan for nine days when about 2,000 people attend. A memorial to commemorate the Mahārāṇī Lakshmībāī of Jhānsi was erected at the time of the centenary celebrations of the 1857 upsurge.

DHOM.

Dhom (Wāi T; 17° 55′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS Wāṭhār 26m. SE; p. 1,006) village lies on the north bank of the Kṛshṇā about five miles north-west of Wāī with which it is connected by a motorable road. The population once consisted mainly of the Brāhmaṇ worshippers at the temples which form the only objects of interest in the village. The chief temple is between the village and the river and is dedicated to God Mahādev. It consists of a shrine and a verandah, and in front of these are small saracenic scollopped arches supported on pillars about six feet high and a foot thick. The arches and the inside walls are of highly polished basalt. The shrine is fifteen feet long and fourteen feet broad and the verandah fifteen feet broad and eighteen feet long projecting two feet on each side of the shrine making the length of the whole structure thirty-eight feet. The verandah arches are covered with leaves and what appear to be cones. Beyond the arches, on each side of the facade, is a broad band of wall carved in arabesques. The height of the building including the spire is probably not more than forty feet, and, except the spire which is of brick it is all made of basalt. The spire is in two twelve-sided tiers with an urn-shaped pinnacle on the top. The urn rests on a sort of basin the edges of which are carved in a lotus leaf pattern. There are similar small pinnacles at the corners of the shrine and the *maṇḍāp*. The whole building is raised from the ground on a plinth about two feet high. Four feet in front is the sacred bull, *Nandi,* well carved of polished basalt and under a canopy surmounted by a dome. It is seated upon the back of a turtle represented as in the act of swimming and surrounded by a stone basin by filling which it is intended to complete the illusion. The canopy is octagonal supported on scollopped arches similar to those in the shrine. The bull is in the usual reclining attitude with the point of the right foot resting on the tortoise and the right knee bent as if about to rise. The usual trappings, necklace bells, and saddle cloth are carved in stone. The tortoise is circular with feet and head stretching out from under the shell and very roughly done. It rests on a circular basement and has a diameter of about fifteen feet. The sides and margin of the basement are tastefully cut so as to represent the fringe of the lotus flower. The canopy is surmounted by a small octagonal spire or *shikhar* eight feet high, and profusely decorated in stucco. The basin in which this structure rests is circular, about two feet deep and twenty feet in diameter and is simply sunk into the pavement of the court with a small turned back lip or margin. Round

[1] Captain Grant Duff in Satara Records. *See* History of the Marathas Vol I, page 390.

this chief temple are four others dedicated to Narsiṁha, Gaṇapatī, Lakshmī, and Vishṇū which contain yellow marble images of those divinities said to have been brought from Āgrā. One temple which stands outside by itself represents the *Shiv Pañchāyatan*. Four heads look to the four cardinal points of the compass and the fifth heavenwards. Of the other four temples the Narsiṁha temple deserves mention for its curious hideosity. It has a circular basement on an octagonal plinth about six feet high and surmounted by a hideous structure made of mixed stucco and wood and supposed to represent an umbrella. All these buildings are in a paved court 100 feet by 120 with brick walls about twelve feet high. There is an entrance consisting of a stone pointed archway which by itself is not unimposing, but the walls are very much out of keeping. These temples were all built by Mahādev Shivrām, a Pooṇā moneylender who flourished about 1780 A.D. A side door from the temple court-yard leads to a flight of steps built about the same time by one Nārāyaṇrāv Vaidya. On the right is a small temple dedicated to Rām, attributed to the last Peshvā, Bājīrāv II (1796-1817). Its conical spire has been broken off by the fall of a tree. Below this and facing the river is a sort of cloister containing an image of Gaṇapatī. The arches are pointed and the date of the building is probably about 1780 A.D. About half a mile up the river is a small temple of Mahādev built by Shāhū (1682-1749) who came to Dhom to bathe in the river. The place is held in great veneration and the Mahādev *liṅg* is said to have been first set up by a *Ṛshī* named Dhaumya said to have come from the source of the Kṛshṇā at Mahābaḷeśvar. A fair or *jatrā* in honour of God Mahādev takes place on the full-moon of *Vaishākh* or April-May and one in honour of Narsiṁha on the bright fourteenth of *Vaishākh*, when about 1,000 to 1,200 pilgrims attend. The management of the temples is in the hands of a temple committee which also looks after the repairs and upkeep of the temples.

DIVASHI KHURD. *Divasī Khurd* (Pāṭaṇ T; RS Karāḍ 34 m. NE; p. 580) village in Pāṭāṇ, alienated to Nāgojīrāv Pāṭaṇkar, contains a curious cave and spring sacred to Dvāreshvar Mahādev and Rāmchandra. The cave lies seven miles north-west of Pāṭaṇ on a platform of rock on the east side of the spur ending at Dātegaḍ, and about 700 feet above the plain. Two hundred feet higher is the large *mura* or ledge generally found on the sides of these hills and 100 feet above this the rocky ridge or hogback which crowns this spur throughout. The worshippers are chiefly unmarried *Jaṅgams* or *Liṅgāyat* priests. The cave is about 200 feet long, thirty-five feet deep, and six to eight feet high. In the centre is the Mahādev shrine and twenty-yards to the north, a shrine of Rāmchandra. The *Jaṅgams* have *maṭhs* or *cells* all along the cave leaving spaces for the temples about twenty feet square. They make themselves and their cattle fairly comfortable by blocking up the rock with mud partitions and doorways. The water drips from a spring in the solid rock above the Mahādev cave. The Mahādev cave has a little wood ornamentation put up by a member of the Pāṭaṇkar family about 250 years ago but except its size and curious nature, the cave has nothing very remarkable. Great holiness

CHAPTER 19. Places.

is attached to the place and it is visited by pilgrims from the Karnāṭak and elsewhere. *Jatrās* or fairs are held in honour of Mahādev on the first day of *Mārgshīrsh* or November-December and in honour of Rāmchandra on the first of *Chaitra* or March-April and are attended by about 1,000 people from the neighbouring villages.

GUNVANTGAD.

Guṇvantgaḍ (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 15′ N, 73° 50′ E; RS. Karāḍ 24 m. E,) or Morgirī Fort, six miles south-west of Pāṭaṇ, is a steep oblong hill about 1,000 feet above the plain. The walls have fallen in. There is a well but no marks of habitation and no gateways remain. The hill is the end of a lofty spur branching in south-east direction from the main range of the Sahyādris at Malā. The fort is completely commanded from this spur with which it is connected by a narrow neck of land a quarter of a mile long. The north-east corner of the fort is the highest point and the ground slopes irregularly to the south-west. The form is not unlike a lion conchant. Part of the village of Morgirī lies close below the south-east side of the fort, while there is another hamlet similarly situated on a shoulder of the hill to the north-west.

The fort has no signs of age. In the eighteenth century it appears to have maintained a garrison of the Peshvā's soldiery when Dātegaḍ held people attached to the Pant Pratinidhi and the authorities of the two forts seem to have thrown difficulties in the way of executing orders issued by the governments they opposed[1]. In the Marāṭhā war of 1818 the fort surrendered to the British.

HELVAK.

Heḷvāk (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 20′ N, 23° 40′ E; RS. Karāḍ 34 m. SE; p. 599), is a village on the north of the Karāḍ-Kumbhārlī pass road, thirteen miles west of Pāṭaṇ, at the point where the Koynā river turns at right angles from its southerly to an easterly course. From the west flows a small stream up the valley of which the Kumbhārlī road climbs till the edge of the Sahyādris. The ascent is not more than 300 feet in four miles and the incline moderate. At the village of Meṇḍheghar just opposite Heḷvāk is a small Public Works bungalow which serves well for a resting place. Carts on their way to and from Cipḷūṇ usually halted here and during the busy season the number of carts was the same as at Pāṭaṇ. In the angle formed by the Koynā river was a large flat space given up in the rains to rice fields and in the fair weather to a camping ground for carts, when temporary shops for grain and other necessaries were formed under booths, and the scene was one of constant bustle and activity. The cultivators of the neighbouring hill villages brought down bundles of firewood usually *kārvī* which they sold to the cartmen partly for their own use, but also in considerable and increasing amounts to the return cartmen who took them as far as Karāḍ or even further and sold them for ten times what they gave in Heḷvāk. The cultivators above Heḷvāk also brought down rafters and poles on to Karāḍ. The wood was sold at Heḷvāk by auction and probably was taken east either by return carts or by water. At Nechla village three miles west of Heḷvāk is a fine stretch of virgin forest worth a visit. At Khernse

[1] Ascertained from papers produced during an enquiry into a hereditary office case.

CHAPTER 19. Places. HELVAK.

on the edge of the Sahyādris is a District Local Board *dharmashāḷā*. Hunting in these parts is prohibited. Animals still to be seen in the vicinity of Heḷvāk are deer and hare always, wild pigs, boar and fox occasionally and tigers rarely.

Weekly bazar is held at Heḷvāk every Wednesday. Heḷvāk has lost much of its importance as a market place. All the local trade has shifted to Koynānagar, the new township established for housing the staff and men working on the Koynā project.

JAKHINVADI.

Jakhiṇvāḍi (Karāḍ T; 17° 10' N, 74° 10' E; RS. Karāḍ 6 m. p. 1,095). In 1731 (27th February) Shāhū of Sātārā and Sambhāji of Kolhāpūr met each other at this place and the dispute between the cousins was settled by the demarcation of the territory belonging to Sambhāji[1]. It is an agricultural village lying three miles to the south of Karāḍ. The village has a primary school which is housed in a temple. Near the village are some Buddhist caves on the Agaśiva hills.

JANGLI JAYAGAD FORT.

Jaṅgli Jayagaḍ hill fort, about six miles north-west of Heḷvāk, lies on a spur projecting from the main line of the Sahyādris into the Koṅkaṇ from the village of Navje in Pāṭān. Perhaps the easiest way to get to the fort is to climb the hill 2,000 feet or more or about three miles to Torṇe as far as which the ascent is easy. There is a passable footpath along the top of the hill for another three miles, where the old path from the Navje village used for the fort guns is hit. This is in fine perennial forest. A mile over dead leaves and slippery but clear walking, brings one to the edge of the Sahyādris and nearly all the rest of the way is through dense bamboo forest and undergrowth through which it may be necessary to back the way. At last the edge of the prominence is reached and the fort is seen about a hundred yards off and as many feet lower. To reach it a narrow neck of unsafe land has to be crossed through a thick growth of *kārvi* bush. A most unpleasant scramble leads to the gate on the north entirely in ruins. The fort is oblong and about 180 yards long and about 150 wide. A good many ruined buildings and one or two large and good many small tanks inside the fort show that it was permanently garrisoned. Outside underneath the scarp about fifty feet high are several cave tanks with excellent water. At the western end the drop is very sudden for about a hundred feet, and the rest of the descent to the Koṅkaṇ is very steep and impracticable. The forest once traversed, the difficulties of approach from Navje are not insurmountable. Though very rarely visited on account of the thick forest to be passed, the magnificent view of the line of the Sahyādris right up to the saddle-back hill or Makrandgaḍ makes it well worth a visit. According to a local story Tāi Teliṇ held possession of this fort in 1810 and Bāpū Gokhale drove her out of it in 1807*. It surrendered to a British force under Col. Hewett in May, 1818.

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[1] Sardesai: New History of the Marathas, Vol. II, page 120.

* Duff: History of the Marathas, Vol. II, page 415.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

JAVLI.

Jāvḷi (Mahābaḷeśvar Peṭa; 17° 55′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 50 m. SE; p. 213) is a small village situated on a ravine about two miles east of Pratāpgaḍ and about three miles north-west of Mālcolmpeṭh as the crow flies, but down a tremendously steep descent. The village is of great interest as giving its name to the large mountainous tract extending probably as far as the Vārṇā river which was one of the earliest Marāṭhā States since Muhammedan times. It was formerly under some chieftains named Shirke of whose family a representative lived in the former Sātārā district enjoying alienated villages in the south of the district. The Shirkes possessed this tract till towards the end of the fifteenth century, when Chandrarāv More was given 12,000 Hindu infantry by the first Bijāpūr king Yusuf Ādil Shah, (1489-1510) to undertake their conquest. In this, Chandrarāv was successful, dispossessing the Shirkes and stopping the depredations of their abettors the Gujars, Mānulkars, Mahāḍiks of Tārḷe in Pāṭaṇ, and Mohites. More was given the title of Chandrarāv, and his son Yeshvantrāv, distinguishing himself in a battle near Purandhar with the Ahmadnagar forces of Burhān Nizām Shāh (1508-1553) by capturing a standard, was confirmed in succession to his father. He retained the title of Chandrarāv and for seven generations the family administered the district with kindness and efficiency. In consideration of their unalterable fidelity the Muhammedan government allowed them to hold these barren regions at a nominal tribute. This they continued till in 1655 Shivājī attempted to win over the ruling chief, but he was intractable. In fact Yeshvantrāv had reasons to be grateful to Shivājī, because according to Shivabhārat story Canto XIII *Shloka* 43, it was Shivājī who was instrumental in enabling Yeshvantrāv to succeed to Jahagir of Jāvḷī. But Yeshvantrāv defied Shivāji and gave passage to Shāmrāj, an emissary of the Bijāpūr government, sent to seize him who therefore determined to regard him as an enemy. But the hillmen then had the character they have now, and formed as good infantry as Shivājī's own, remained faithful to Yeshvantrāv as also his son, brother and minister Haṇmantrāv. Shivājī then sent army under Sambhājī Kāvjī and obtained possession of Jāvḷī[1]. Since then the tract had been in the hands of the descendants of Shivājī and the Peshvā government until reduced by the English. Though it was evidently the residence of the Mores, there are no remains to show that it was a place of note.

The village of Jāvli, situated at three different *Gāvṭhāṇs* on the bank of the Koynā river comes under the *Sarvodaya* Scheme. A cart-road starting from the village to join the main-road i.e. Surūr-Mahāḍ road is constructed by the *Sarvodaya* workers. There is a primary school in the village.

KALE.

Kāle (Karāḍ T; 17° 10′ N, 74° 05′ E; RS. Sheṇolī, 6 m, SE; p. 7,116) nine miles south of Karāḍ is a large agricultural village. There are two primary schools in the town one each for boys and girls. There is also a high school. A number of activities were carried on under the Community Development Scheme with the help of popular

[1] For details see History Chapter.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.

contribution and a school building was constructed. The town has a subsidised medical practitioner centre and a veterinary stockman centre.

KAMALGAD FORT.

Kamalgaḍ Fort (Wāi T; 18° 05′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Wāṭhār, 35 m. E;) 4511 feet above sea level, is situated about ten miles due west of Wāi. The hill divides the head of the Kṛshṇā valley. To the north of it flows the Vāḷkī, and to the south the Kṛshṇā proper, the two streams meeting at its eastern base. The top of the hill is approached by unfrequented footpaths from Āsgāṅv to the east, from Vāsole to the north, and from Pārtavḍī to the south. The top of the hill consists of an area of only three or four acres quite flat and surrounded by a low scarp and can now be reached only by arduously scaling the scarp. Formerly the approach was by an artifical funnel or tunnel leading upwards from the base of the scarp and issuing on the top. This funnel is blocked by a large boulder which has fallen into it. There are no traces of any buildings on the top nor or any walls or gateway. There is only a hole which is said to be the remains of a deep well sunk right through the rocky layer constituting the scarp and penetrating to the soil below which seems still to be full of water. The hole is only eighteen to twenty feet deep though the well was thirty or forty. The sides of the well which were formed of the natural rock are said to have contained recesses in which criminals were placed to choose between starvation and throwing themselves down into the water. No traces of the recesses remain. No one lives on the hill, its sides are covered with thick scrub and water is found only at the base of the scarp. The lands belong to the village of Āsgāṅv. There are no *Gaḍkaris* in connection with the fort. To the west of the base of the scarp is a rude temple dedicated to Gorakhnāth. The builder of the fort is unknown, but it is probably very old. In April 1818, Kamaḷgaḍ surrendered after resistance to a British detachment under Major Thatcher.

KANHERKHED.

Kaṇherkheḍ (Koregāṅv T; 17° 35′ N, 74° 10′ E; RS. Rahimatpūr, 5 m. S; p. 916) in Koregāṅv is an insignificant village well known as the birthplace of the founder of the Shinde family. They were *pāṭils* or headmen of Kaṇherkheḍ. The village can be reached by an approach road which branches off the Koregānv-Rahimatpūr road at Śirāṁbe. Koregāṅv-Rahimatpūr road is an all-weather motorable road. From Śirāṁbe to Kaṇherkheḍ the road is fit for traffic in dry mouths only. A draw-well has been constructed at the village under the Local Development Works Programme. The temple of Tukārām is about one hundred years old. Groundnuts and jowar form the main crops of the village.

KARAD.

Karāḍ (17° 15′ N. 74° 10′ E; RS. p. 25, 721) properly Karhāḍ, at the junction of the Kṛshṇā and the Koynā thirty-one miles south of Sātārā, is a very old town, the head-quarters of the Karāḍ taluka. Approaching Karāḍ from any side two tall minarets, like chimneys rising out of what appears as dead level plain, strike the eye.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

KARAD.

Coming close, the town appears situated at the junction of the Kṛshṇā and Koynā rivers, the Koynā having turned almost north and the Kṛshṇā running about south-east. On joining the two rivers flow eastward for a couple of miles, when the course turns south. Thus the banks on which Karāḍ is situated form a right angle against the apex of which the Kṛshṇā rushes at full tilt. The north-west side of the town is in places from eighty to a hundred feet high above the Koynā, overhung with bushes and prickly pear. The northern side is rather lower and less steep, the slope being broken by the steps or *ghāṭs* bending down to the river. Six miles to the north-west is the fort of Vasantgaḍ hidden by the ends of the spur which branch out beyond it to within three miles of the town. Four miles north-east, the flat-topped hill of Sadāśivgaḍ is in full view, while the same distance to the south-east is the peak of Āgāśiv about 1,200 feet above the plain which crowns the north-west arm, honeycombed with Buddhist caves, of the spur which forms the south-west wall of the Kole valley. These hills are more or less bare, though green is struggling up the hollow. But the soil below is some of the most fertile in the district and green with crops to the end of February. The high red banks of the Koynā, the broad rocky bed and scarcely less lofty banks of the Kṛshṇā with broad pools of water at the very hottest season fringed with *bābhuḷs* or overhung by the irregular buildings of the town, the hills filling up the distance on every side, with a clear atmosphere and the morning and evening lights make up an interesting view. The Koynā is crossed by a lofty bridge which is best seen from the north-west angle of the town where it is viewed obliquely and at a little distance, the irregular Āgāśiv spur gives a good back ground. No less than five roads, the Poona-Beḷgāṇv, Karāḍ-Cipḷūṇ, Karāḍ-Tāsgaṇv, Karāḍ-Bijāpūr and Karāḍ-Masūr, meet at Karāḍ. The Karāḍ-Bijāpūr and Karāḍ-Masūr roads enter the town from the left and the others from the right bank of the Kṛshṇā. The town covers an area of about one mile square and is surrounded, except where the rivers bound it, by rich black soil lands. It is therefore, crowded and, except on the south-east, has little room for extension. At the north-west angle is the mud fort originally Muhammedan if not earlier, and subsequently the place of the Fine Pratinidhi until his power was wrested from him by the Peshvās in 1807. Next to the fort area the set of steps or *ghāṭs* and temple at the junction of the two rivers, the eddies of which have accumulated a huge bed of gravel and sand. To withstand their force a large masonry revetment was built in ancient times, remains of which still exist. In this the north-west are the sub-divisional revenue and police offices.

Temples.

There are in all fifty-two chief temples in Karād, none of them of much antiquity or beauty. The largest are those of Kṛshṇamāī Devi and Kāshīvishveshvar on the Kṛshṇā *ghāṭ* and Kamaleshvar Mahādev half a mile further down the river. They mostly consist of the usual maṇḍap or hall and *gābhārā* or sanctuary with brick *shikhars* or spires adorned with rough figures in stucco. The *ghāṭs* consist of three chief flights, one bending from the north-west and another from the north end of the principal street. These have been built chiefly by voluntary

CHAPTER 19. Places. KARAD. Temples.

contributions from the inhabitants. Much has been done by the Pant Pratinidhi and a good deal by devotees, rich tradesmen, and others, while a handsome addition was made by Nārāyaṇrāv Anant Mutālik, the descendant of the hereditary chief officer of the Pratinidhis. A third flight is the end of a roadway brought eastward from the municipal garden. It was built by the municipality and is made of excellent masonry. Although the temples singly are of no great beauty, yet the groups of them at the *ghāṭs* look very picturesque. The ground is terraced and adorned with fine old trees chiefly tamarind and *pinpaḷ*.

Fort.

The mud fort of the Pratinidhi occupies a space of about a hundred yards square at the north-east angle of the town. Its frontage is to the east and towards the chief street from which it is entered by a broad flight of steps. The steps pass through two gateways crowned with music chambers or *nagārkhānās*, and flanked by two large bastions. Inside are a number of buildings, the chief of which is the *vāḍa* or mansion of the Pant Pratinidhi. It is a two-storeyed building in the usual open court in Marāṭhā style. Time and natural elements have acted upon mansion of the Pant Pratinidhi which now stands in a ruined condition. The only remarkable thing about it is an extra quadrangle on the south side of which is a fine hall of audience measuring eighty-three feet by thirty-one feet and about fifteen feet high. It consists of a central nave fourteen feet wide and two side aisles. The east end contains a canopy for Bhavānī Devī, in whose honour the hall was built. The ceiling is of teakwood, and ornamented with a lace work of wood and iron painted black. It was built about 1,800 by Kāshībāī, mother of Parashurām Shrīnivās Pratinidhi. The rest of the quadrangle was completed in much the same style by the late Pratinidhi's father. The most remarkable object in the fort is its step well. It lies near the west end of the fort which overhangs the Koynā river some eighty to a hundred feet, and is dug right down to the level of the river with which it communicates by a pipe. The opening at the top is 136 feet long. The west end of it is thirty-six feet square with the north-east corner rounded off for the purposes of a water-lift. The other 100 feet are for a magnificent flight of eighty-three steps leading down. The well must have been dug in softish material probably *murum*, and, to prevent it falling in, it has been lined with excellent trap masonry in mortar. the sides slightly sloping from bottom outwards, each line of stones slightly protruding beyond the line above. At the end of each twenty steps is a landing about three times the width of each step. The flight of steps and the main shaft of the well are separated by two massive ogee archways, which, together with the mortar used in the masonry, seem to show that the work is Muhammedan. These archways are connected with each side of the well and form a massive block between the steps and shaft with the archways cut in them. The block is about seventy feet high and twelve feet thick, while the archways are about thirty feet and twenty feet high, the solid masonry above each of them being about ten feet in height. The sides also have their peculiar longitudinal rectangular grooves on a level with the

Step Well.

three landings with ten semicircular transverse cuttings at regular intervals. The object of this, it is said, was to insert flooring along the grooves to be supported by transverse beams thrust into the cuttings, and thus convert the well into a three-storeyed underground building with communications between each storey by the flight of steps and between the shaft and step sections by the archways. What could have been the use of such a building, it is difficult to imagine. According to one story it was for ambuscade in case the fort was taken. But it looks more like an attempt to use the well, which was not often wanted for water-supply, for storage purposes. The well is now filled with mud. There is nothing else remarkable in the fort. It has twelve bastions two about the centre and one at each corner of its four sides which form nearly a rhombus with the acute angle at the north-east. The walls all vary according to the level of the ground inside from twenty to eight feet in height including a mud parapet six feet high and loopholed obliquely. The lower parts are of loose rubble and mud fully eight feet thick. But for the bastions the top level is uniform. Outside, the height varies with the ground from forty to nearly 100 feet at the highest point above the Koynā river. A huge retaining wall of mortared trap was formerly built at the west side round the north-west angle, mostly, it is said, in Musalman times. The greater part of it however, has been swept away, the last and worst damage within memory being done at the great flood of 1875. So tremendous is the force of the flood waters at the junction of the Kṛshṇā and the Koynā that it is a wonder the work has stood so long. Every year the river is damaging the west side and it is to be feared the curious step well may fall in as the damage increases. A small entrance leads from between two bastions to the Kṛshṇā and the small temple of Saṅgameshvar Mahādev probably the oldest at Karāḍ. The mosque and minarets of Karāḍ are scarcely inferior in interest to the fort. Inscriptions show the date of its foundation and the builder to be one Ibrāhim Khān in the time of the fifth Bijāpūr king Ali Ādil Shāh I. (1557-1580). The minarets, 106 feet high, are plain and cylindrical slightly tapering with an urn-like top. They rest on a massive ogee archway of plain masonry about thirty feet by fifteen feet with chambers in the sides and entered by a small low door which leads to an open space. On left or north is a plain square building for the shelter of travellers and mendicants and the bath or *hamāmkhānā* and on the right or south is the mosque. This is a building open to the east about forty-one feet by eighty-two and thirty feet high. But for the usual dome in the centre and eight pinnacles one at each corner and one at the centre of each side, it is flat-roofed outside. The outside is of plain smooth cut masonry with broad slabs for eaves supported by handsomely carved brackets. The east front consists of three ogee arches supported by square pillars, the two side ones plain and the centre one ornamented with frills and knobs. The roof rests from within on two more pillars, this making six compartments the roofing of each ornamented and slightly domed with vaulting sections. Between the pillars are four transverse arches similar to the longitudinal ones. The two central compartments are richly sculptured

Mosque.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
KARAD.
Fort.

with floral and bead decorations and Arabic texts. In the centre of the west wall is a niche something like a recess with a long inscription in Arabic on black stone. There are in all nine inscriptions and texts on various parts of the walls.

Inscriptions.

One on a pillar records "Ibrāhim Khān bin Kāmil Khān bin Ismāel Khān servant in the house of God;" The second, round a pillar records. "When the assistance of God shall come and the victory, and they shall see the people enter into the religion of God by troops, celebrate the praise of thy Lord and ask pardon of him, for he is inclined to forgive;" the third "During the time of Shah Ali Ādil Shah, the shelter of all the people and the shadow of the favour of God – may he continue faithful and enjoy health and *Khilāt* (or grant) to Ibrāhim Kāmil Khān, a friend of the family:" the fourth on another pillar records "The beggarly powerless and dust-like Pehelvān Ali bin Ahmad Ispahāni, a servant of God in this house of God, Sunah 983 titled (?) Tuzyet Khān. Completed on this date. Pray for the welfare of the builder of this mosque;" the fifth an Arabic inscription on a pillar records "May God forgive its builder for the sake of Muhammad and his descendants;" the sixth also an Arabic inscription on the top of an arch records "I bear witness that there is certainly no God but God, that he is only one and that he has no sharers and I bear witness that Muhammad is certainly his servant and prophet;" the seventh is at the foot of an arch in Kufic characters, which cannot be made out. On the top are the two remaining inscriptions recording "O Ali there is nobody young but Ali. There is no sword but the Zul Fikr[1]. God send blessing to Muhammad the chosen (of God), Ali the approved, Hassan the elect (of God), Hussain who became a martyr at Kerbalah, Zainu'l Ābidin Muhammad Bākar, Jāfar, Sādik, Musā-ul-Kāzim Muhammad Taki Ali Naki, Hasan Ashkari, Muhammad Mādhi. The most high and glorious God hath said: But he only shall visit the temples of God who believeth in God and the last day, and is constant at prayer, and payeth the legal alms, and feareth God alone. These perhaps may become of the number of those who are rightly directed" And 'Do ye reckon the giving drink to the pilgrims and the visiting of the holy temple to be actions as meritorious as those performed by him who believeth in God and the last day and fighteth for the religion of God? The most high and glorious God hath said regularly perform thy prayer at the setting of the sun, and at the first darkness of the night and the prayer of daybreak, for the prayer of daybreak is borne witness unto by the angels, and watch some part of the night in the same exercise as a work of supererogation, for peradventure, the Lord will raise thee to an honourable station. And say, O Lord cause me to enter with a favourable entry and cause me to come forth with a favourable coming forth; and grant me from thee an assisting power[2]'. The mosque has a *mullā* attached. The tombs adjoining the municipal gardens are in honour of Musalmān

[1] The Zul Fikr is the famous two-edged sword of Ali which Muhammad said he had received from the angle Gabriel.

[2] Dr. Burgess' Antiquarian Lists, 60-61.

CHAPTER 19. Places. KARAD. Fort.

saints. One of them has a curious canopy on the top of its dome, and is not unhandsome. There are also two large masonry *dargāhs* or mausoleums in the Guruvār Peṭh built in 1350 and 1391 (H. 752 and 793) in honour of two Musalmān saints. The *idgāh* or prayer place is a wall about 250 feet long by thirty feet high, with a platform built about twenty-five feet off the ground for preaching purposes. The wall is built of stone below and brick for the last six feet above. It is about nine feet thick at the base and four feet thick at the top. Round the *idgāh* is the old Musalmān burial ground.

Flood, 1844.

Karāḍ suffered severely in a heavy Kṛshṇā flood in 1844. A large part of the retaining wall at the north-west of the town was swept away and the water rose to within twenty feet of the top of the fort wall. The chief streets were flooded and the houses in front of the Pant's fort were all swept away. Much injury was done to the *Ghāṭs* and temples on the river bank. A small stone temple of Mārutī in the centre of the stream said to have been covered with the rain water year after year for two centuries was injured for the first time.

Caves.

The[1] Buddhist caves, which form the chief object of antiquarian interest in Karāḍ, are in the hills to the south-west of the town the nearest being about two and a half miles from the town, in the northern face of one of the spurs of the Āgāśiv hill, looking towards the Koynā valley; the most distant group are in the southern face of another spur to the west of Jākhiṇvāḍī village, from three to four miles from Karāḍ.

The caves were first described by Sir Bartle Frere in 1849, and arranged into three series: the southern group of twenty-three caves, near the village of Jākhiṇvāḍī; nineteen caves, in the south-east face of the northern spur; and twenty-two scattered caves facing the Koynā valley. Besides these sixty-three caves there are many small excavations of no note and numerous water cisterns, often two to a single cave.

The absence of pillars in the large halls, the smallness of many of the excavations, the frequency of stonebenches for beds in the cells, the primitive forms of the *chaityās*, and the almost entire absence of sculpture in these caves, combine to show their early age. Unfortunately they are cut in a very coarse, soft, amygdaloid rock, on which inscriptions could not be expected to remain legible for long ages, if many of them ever existed; and only a portion of one has been found, with the faintest trace of another. The letters are rudely cut, but appear to belong to the same period as most of the *Kārle* inscriptions of about the first or second century after Christ. From all such indications these caves may be placed approximately about the same age as those of Selārvāḍī or Gāroḍī in Pooṇā and Kuḍā and Pāl in Kolabā, and not far from the age of the Junnar and Nāśik caves[2].

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1 Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples of India, 213-17.

2 Compare Bombay Gazetteer, XI, 332-42, 345-48, XVI, 541-639 and XVIII Chapter xiv. Garodi and Junnar.

They are mostly so small and uninteresting that they need not be described in detail, and only a few of the more noteworthy and characteristic may be noticed. In the first group, the most westerly Cave I, has had a verandah, perhaps with two pillars and corresponding pilasters; but it was walled up by a modern mendicant. Beyond this is a hall (22′ × 11′ × 7′) with a bench along the back and ends; and at the back of this, again, are two cells with stone-benches. Cave II, has a hall about thirty-four feet square, and its verandah has been supported by two square pillars.

Cave V, is a *chaitya* or chapel facing south-west, and is of the same style as one of the Junnar caves, but still plainer. It has a semicircular apse at the back and arched roof but no side aisles, and in place of the later arched window over the door it has only a square window. At each side of the entrance is a pilaster, of which the lower portions are destroyed, but which has the Nāśik style of capital crowned by three square flat members supporting, the one a wheel or *chakra* the emblem of the Buddhist doctrine or law, and the other a lion or *Siṁha* a cognizance of Buddha himself who is frequently called Shākya Siṁha. The dome of the relic shrine or *daghobā* inside is about two-thirds of a circle in section and supports a massive plain capital. The umbrella is hollowed into the roof over it and has been connected with the capital by a stone shaft now broken.

Cave VI, has had a verandah, supported by two plain octagonal pillars with capitals of the Nāśik. Kuḍā and Pāl type. The hall is 16′ 10″ wide by 13′ 5″ deep with an oblong room at each end, the left room with a bench at the inner end and the right room with a small cell. At the back is a room twelve feet wide by eighteen deep, containing a *daghobā* nearly seven feet in diameter in the front of which an image of Viṭhobā has been carved by a mendicant.

Cave XI, is a rectangular *chaitya* or chapel about fourteen feet wide by 28′ 9″ long with a flat roof. The *daghobā* is much destroyed below; its capital is merely a square block supporting the shaft of the umbrella carved on the roof. Cave XVI, is another chapel. The verandah is supported by two perfectly plain square pillars without base or capital; the hall (20′ 8″ × 11′ 4″) is lighted by the door and two windows, and has a recess fifteen feet square at the back containing a *daghobā* similar to that in cave XI, but in better preservation.

Nos. IV, IX and XX, are the largest of the other *vihārs* or dwelling caves, and have all cells with stonebeds in them.

The second group of twenty-two caves begins from the head of the ravine. The first cave is XXIV, a *vihār* or dwelling cave facing east-north-east 21′ wide by 23′ deep and 7′ 10″ high, with a verandah originally supported by two plain square pillars. Carved on the south end wall of the verandah, near the roof, are four small *chaityas* or horseshoe arches, with a belt of rail-pattern above and below and a fretted torus in the spaces between the arches. Below this the wall has been divided into parcels by small

pilasters, which were carved, perhaps, with figures now worn away. On the north wall were three horseshoe arches, the central one being the largest, and apparently contained a *daghobā* in low relief as at Koṇḍāṇe in Ṭhāṇā.[1] Below this is a long recess as for a bed, now partially fallen into the water-cistern beneath. From the hall four cells open to the right, three to the back, and one to the left, each, except the centre one in the back, with a stone lattice window close to the roof and about 1′ 3″ square. No. XXIX, originally two caves, of which the dividing wall has been broken through, has similar windows in four cells.

Cave XXX, is a ruined *vihār* or dwelling cave (36′ 6″ by 19′) with eleven cells round the hall and a twelfth entered from one of these. From this cave about three-quarters of a mile lead to the next excavations, caves XXXI to XXXV, of which are in no way noteworthy. Cave XXXVI, about 100 yards west of cave XXXV consists of an outer hall about 17′ by 13′ with a cell in each side wall, and through it a second hall (9′ 4″ × 12′ 7″ × 6′ 9″) is entered which has six cells and two bench-bed recesses.

The third series of twenty-two caves is divided into two groups the first facing northwards and the second in a ravine further west and facing westwards. It consists of caves XLII to LXIII, the first five containing nothing of note. Cave XLVII consists of a room (15′ × 11′ × 7′ 6″) with a bench in each end, an unfinished cell at the back, and two at the left end, on the wall of one of which is the only inscription, of which any letters are traceable, recording. 'The meritorious gift of a cave by Saṅghamitra, the son of Gopāla(?)'. A few indistinct letters are just traceable also on the right hand side of the entrance, and near them is the faintest trace of the Buddhist rail pattern.

Cave XLVIII is a range of five cells with a verandah in front, supported on three square pillars and pilasters, the central cell (27′ × 11′ 3″) containing a relic shrine still entire, the upper edge of the drum and the box of the capital, which has no projecting slabs over it, being carved with the rail-pattern. The umbrella is carved on the roof and attached to the box by a shaft. In front of this, against the right-hand wall, is the only figure sculpture in these caves, and, though much defaced, appears to have consisted of three human figures, the left a man with high turban and front knob, similar to some of the figures at Kārle and on the capitals at Beḍsā, holding some objects in each hand. He wears a cloth round his neck and another round his loins, which falls down in folds between the legs. His right hand is bent upwards towards his chin, and over the arm hangs a portion of the dress. He also wears armlets and bracelets. To his left a slightly smaller figure appears to be approaching him with some offering. Above this latter is a third, perhaps a woman. At the right end of this excavation is another cell approached from outside. The remaining caves in this group ending with cave LV. are small and uninteresting. The cells are not so

[1] Compare Bombay Gazetteer, XIV. 208-09.

CHAPTER 19. Places. KARAD. Caves.

frequently with stone-beds as in the caves previously described. From No. LV, about a mile and a half leads to LVI, which has a verandah (25′ 4″×11′ 9″) with two plain square pillars in front. The hall is about twenty-four feet square with ten cells, three in each side, and four at the back, several of them unfinished. Cave LX is almost chocked with earth, but is 38′ long by 13′ 10″ wide, with a semicircular apse at the extreme end and arched roof similar to the Beḍsā dwelling cave II[1]. Outside and above the front, however, are traces of a horizontal row of *chaitya*-window ornaments, so that, though there is no apparent trace at present of a *chaitya* having occupied the apse, the cave may have been a primitive form of *Chaitya*-cave with structural relic shrine or *daghobā*.

History.

The first mention of Karāḍ appears in inscriptions of about 200 B.C. to 100 A.D. recording gifts by Karāḍ pilgrims at the Bhārhut Stūpa near Jabalpūr in the Madhya Pradesh and at Kuḍā thirty miles south of Alibāg in Kolābā[2]. These inscriptions show that Karāḍ, or, as the inscriptions call it Karahākaḍa, is probably the oldest place in Satārā. That the place named is the Sātārā Karāḍ is confirmed by the sixty-three early Buddhist caves about three miles south-west of Karāḍ one of which has an inscription of about the first century after Christ.[3] In 1637 the seventh Bijāpūr king Mahmud Ādil Shāh (1626-1656) conferred on Shahājī the father of Shivājī a royal grant for the *deshmukhī* of twenty-two villages in the district of Karāḍ[4]. In 1653 the *deshmukhī* right was transferred to Bājī Ghorpaḍe of Mudhoḷ[5]. In 1659, after Afzalkhān's death his wife and son, who were taken by Khanḍujī Kākḍe one of Shivājī's officers, were on payment of a large bribe safely conducted and lodged by him in Karāḍ[6]. In January 1661 the eighth Bijāpūr king Ali Ādil Shāh II, (1656-1672), disappointed in his hopes of crushing Shivājī took the field in person and encamped at Karāḍ where all the district officers assembled to tender him their homage[6]. In a revenue statement of about 1790 Karāḍ appears as the head of a *paragaṇā* in the Rāyabāg Sarkār with a revenue of Rs 3,62,550[7]. About 1805 the young Pratinidhi Parashurām Shrinivās fled from Pooṇā to Karāḍ, his Jāgīr town to escape a plan for seizing him made by Bājīrāv Peshvā assisted by Shinde[8]. During his flight, Bājīrāv stopped at Karāḍ on the 23rd of January 1818. In 1827, Captain Clunes described 'Kurarh' as the chief town and residence of the Pant Pratinidhi with 2,500 houses including 200 weavers, 100 oil-pressers, twenty-five blanket-weavers and thirty paper-makers[7].

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[1] Compare Bombay Gazetteer, XVIII. Chapter xiv Bedsa.
[2] Stupa of Bharhut, 135, 136, 139; Arch, Sur. of Western India, IV. 87.
[3] See above.
[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 96.
[5] Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. I, 115.
[6] Grant Duff's Marathas. Vol. I, 136.
[6] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 143.
[7] Warring's Marathas, 244.
[8] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 413.
[9] Itinerary, 34.

A number of public buildings have cropped up at Karāḍ during recent years as a result of the block development activities. Thus there is the Block Office building with an information centre attached to it, an artificial insemination centre, a training class in poultry keeping, a stadium-*cum*-gymnasium, a hostel for students coming from the rural areas etc. Besides, there is at Karāḍ the Government Polytechnic School, a Cottage Hospital, a reception centre and a leprosy centre.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

KARAD.

Modern Developments.

Karāḍ has a number of educational institutions. For primary and pre primary education, there are eight District Local Board primary schools, four private primary schools and three kindergartens. For secondary education there is the Ṭiḷak High School and the Kanyā Shāḷā of the Shikshaṇ Maṇḍaḷ, the Mahārāshṭra High School of the Mahārāshṭra Education Society and the Shivājī Vidyālaya of the Shivājī Education Society. For higher education Karāḍ has an Arts College *viz.* the Sadguru Gāḍge Mahārāj College conducted by the Rayat Shikshaṇ Samsthā of Karmavir Bhāurāv Pāṭil and the newly started Science College. For training of teachers the Kamlā Nehru Adhyāpikā Training Centre has been recently started. The Mahārāshṭra Rashṭra Bhāshā Vidyālaya, Karad works for the spread of the Hindi language and the Sanskṛt Pāṭhshāḷā, Karāḍ trains students in ancient Indian culture.

Karāḍ has a large export trade of ground-nuts, gur and turmeric. For credit facilities there are seven banks and two co-operative societies. The Karāḍ Agricultural Produce Market Committee regulates the sale of agricultural produce.

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 25,721. Of this the agricultural classes number 5,242 and the non-agricultural classes 20,479. Of the latter, 5,364 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 5,479 persons from commerce; 967 persons from transport; and 8,669 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

Karāḍ Borough Municipality established on September 13, 1955, has an area of 0·87 sq. miles and is governed under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925. The municipal council is composed of 24 members. Two seats are reserved for women and two for the Scheduled Castes. Besides the Standing Committee, there are committees for water works, sanitation, building works and library and a sub-committee for compensation. The Chief Officer is the administrative head of the municipality.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of the municipality for the year 1957-58, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 6,62,811; municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 5,45,463; realisations under special acts Rs. 3,521; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxes Rs. 38,599; grants and contribution Rs. 54,568; and miscellaneous Rs. 20,660. The expenditure for the same year, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, came to Rs. 5,92,530; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 81,615; public safety

CHAPTER 19. Places. KARAD. Municipality.

Rs. 37,572; public health and convenience Rs 2,31,065; public works Rs. 1,85,176; public instruction Rs. 20,811; contribution for general purposes Rs. 950 and miscellaneous Rs. 35,341.

Water Supply.

Karāḍ town depends for its water supply on Government water works with filtration arrangement. Water is taken up from the Koynā river. There are 74 public stand posts. The municipality purchases water from Government and supplies it on meter to the people. The Karāḍ Water Works project was started in 1918 and improvements were made by constructing an additional reservoir in 1951.

Drainage System.

At present (1958) there are *kaccha* and stone lined gutters which drain off the waste water in the town. The municipality has started constructing *pucca* gutters in the town. A scheme for underground drainage system is approved for which plans and estimates are awaited from the Public Health Engineer.

Markets.

The town has one big vegetable and fruit market managed by the municipality. Six open platforms are provided around the main market building. The mutton market has 12 stalls and there are four open platforms in the fish market. The municipality has also reserved one big plot to be utilised for a weekly bazar.

Educational Facilities.

Primary education up to the 4th standard is made compulsory. It is looked after by the District School Board, the municipality paying its annual statutory contribution. The municipal library named Nagar Vāchanālaya has a good collection of books. Besides, the municipality pays a grant to the Manoranjan Vāchanālaya. A number of private schools, clubs and other institutions receive municipal grants. The municipal play ground is on the bank of the Kṛshṇā river.

Medical Facilities.

The municipality runs its own dispensary with a maternity home and two wards for in-door patients and has appointed its own medical officer. The veterinary dispensary is under the control of the District Local Board. The municipality pays an annual grant to this dispensary.

Miscellaneous.

The Municipality maintains two fire fighter lorries. There are one mile, one furlong and 125 yards of asphalted roads, seven miles and 216 yards of metalled roads, and five miles, four furlongs and 285 yards of unmetalled roads in the town. Three burial grounds one each for the Muhammedans, Dawaries and Lingayats are reserved by the municipality. Special arrangements are provided for the cremation of the dead during the monsoon.

The municipal garden *viz.* Shivājī Udyān has special facilities for children and a radio set. The New Municipal Building constructed at a cost of Rs. 3,25,000 has an open air theatre on its rear side. A portion of the building is used to house the Science College.

KENJALGAD OR GHERA KHELANJA.

Keñjāḷgaḍ or *Gherā Khelāñjā Fort*, (Wāī T; 18° 10′ N, 73° 55′ E; RS Wāṭhār 18 m. SE; p. 2,096) 4,269 feet above sea level, is situated on the Māndhārdev spur of the Mahādev range eleven miles

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

KENJALGAD OR CHERA KHELANJA.

north-west of Wai. It is a flat-topped hill of an irregular oval shape, about 250 yards long and one hundred yards wide at the extremes, looking remarkably strong both from a far and near. But on ascending it is found to be commanded by the Yeruli Āsre and Doicivāḍī plateaus about two miles to the east which are easily ascended from the Wāī side, and the Jāmblī hills about a mile to the west. The fort forms a village in itself but has to be ascended from the villages of Āsre or Khavli which lie at its foot on the Wāī side. The ascent is by about two miles of a very steep climb or the Āsre-Ṭiṭeghar bridle path can be followed for two miles and then a tolerably easy path leads due west from the pass another mile on to the fort. The fort is a black scarp rising vertically from the main ridge which is hogbacked. The scarp is one of the highest in any of the Sātārā forts and reaches in places eighty to a hundred feet. The only entrance is on the north side up a set of a hundred steps running parallel to the line of the scarp till within four or seven feet of the top, when they turn at right angles to it and cut straight into a passage leading on to the top. The steps are peculiarly imposing and differ from any others in the district. Thus on entering, the scarp is on the left and there is nothing on the right till the passage is reached, and invaders ascending would be liable to be hurled back over the cliff. At the foot of the steps is a bastion which evidently flanked a gateway. There are remains of six large and three small buildings, all modern. The head-quarters or *kucheri* is only marked by a large fig tree. The only building thoroughly recognizable is the powder magazine on the west which is about thirty feet square with strong stone walls three feet thick and seven feet high and three feet of brick on the top. The walls of the fort were originally of large square cut blocks of unmortared stone, but were afterwards added to in many places. They are in most places fully four feet thick and including the rampart about eight feet thick. There was a parapet of lighter work mostly ruined. The fort has three large water tanks about forty feet square and six small ones for storage of water and grain. But there is no living spring inside the fort. The largest tank is in the southern face and is quite thirty feet deep. The tanks were emptied when the fort was dismantled by blowing up the outer sides which were formed by the ramparts and letting the water empty itself down the hill side. On the west is a sort of nose projecting beyond and a little lower than the main ridge of the fort, also strongly fortified. There is a narrow promenade on the ridge at the foot of the scarp and on the north side is a large cave with excellent water and partly used for storage purposes. The village lies about 300 feet below on a ledge of the northern hill slope. To its immediate west is a dense temple grove of *jāmbhuḷ* and *añjan*. The village of Voholi, on the north side of this range, the inhabitants of which were part of the hereditary garrison, is in a hollow to the north-west. Khelāñjā fort is said to have been built by the Bhoj Rājās of Panhāḷā who flourished in the twelfth century. Its remarkable strength was noticed by Mr. Elphinstone who says it could scarcely be taken if resolutely defended. The guns on the

Keñjālgaḍ fort opened fire before surrendering to the detachment sent by General Pritzler up the Wāī valley about the 28th of March 1818.

KHATAV.

Khaṭāv (Khatāv T ; 16° 45′ N, 74° 50′ E ; RS. Koregānv 10 m.NW , p. 5,530) village, eight miles north-west of Vaḍūj the taluka head-quarters, gives its name to the Khaṭāv taluka. Under the Marāthā government (1760-1818) Khatāv was the chief town in the *paraganā* called after it. The town is walled and has two gates at the east and west ends of its market street, with two or three large mansions belonging to families of importance under the Marāṭhā rule. The surrounding wall and the mansions stand in a much ruined state.

Temple.

To the north-west of the town in an open space is an old Hemāḍ-panti temple of Mahādev, now almost entirely deserted. However, people regularly visit the temple for *darshan*. It consists of an image chamber and vestibule (17′ × 15′) shaped in the old cruciform plan. The image chamber is square inside and contains a *liṅg*. East of the image chamber is the hall open only at the front, and the side walls are four feet thick at the centre front which they narrow to the front and back. The same style of wall is found at Paraḷī and Māhulī. In front is an open space thirteen feet broad, partly blocked by a balustrade three feet high and four feet broad. In addition to the side walls the roof is supported on sixteen pillars eight of which on the sides are embedded in the walls, and eight in the centre are free. The pillars are of the usual type, a shaft of a single block cut into different courses, rectangular basement, and the rest cylindrical. octagonal or again rectangular with a capital consisting of a bracket branching in four directions. In the centre of the *Maṇḍap* is a round slab on which the Nandī usually rests. The compartment formed by its four pillars has a well carved roof slightly doomed. The others are of the lozenge pattern, three rows of slabs disposed one on the top of the other so as to form three concentric squares, the diagonals of the upper touching the centre of the side of the lower square. The front of the balustrade is most beautifully carved in a sort of rail pattern as at Parali, Māhulī, and other Hemāḍpanṭī temples. The whole structure is of large blocks of unmortared stone. The roof above is flat and has traces of a spire apparently pyramidal. The usual broad eaves remain but they are probably restorations as the slabs are small and mortar is used. Close to the north of this is a small canopy of still larger blocks of stone and containing an idol of Marutī. About fifty yards west is a modern Mahādev temple (60′ × 20′) with a brick spire and image chamber and a long stone *manḍap*. It is surrounded by rude cloisters lining a court yard (100′ × 50′). A fair is held at the temple in July-August or *Shrāvaṇ*. In the town itself in a street branching from about the centre of the chief street which runs north and south is another old temple of Nārāyaṇ restored almost beyond recognition. There is also about a quarter of a mile north of the town a Musalman *idgāh* or place of prayer. *Fakirs* living near the *dargāh* take care of the holy place. The earliest mention of Khaṭāv is in 1429, when the Durgādevī famine having laid waste the country and the chief places of strength having fallen into

the hands of local chiefs, Malik-ut-Tujjar the Bahamani governor of Daulatābād with the hereditary officers or *deshmukhs* went through the country restoring order, and their first operations were directed against some Rāmoshis in Khaṭāv Desh[1]. When (1688-1689), the Moghals invaded the country, Kṛshṇarāv Khaṭāvkar was actively assisting them and was made by them a leading deshmukh[2].

After the death of Aurangzeb Marāṭhās took possession of the territory. Kṛshṇarāv Khaṭāvkar, however held his own and tried to raise trouble by joining the side of Tārābāī but was soon over powered by Shāhu's' sardars Bāḷājī Vishvanāth and Shripatrāv Pratinidhī in 1713.

KHATGUN.

Khāṭguṇ (Khatāv T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 20′ E; RS. Koregāṅv 14 m. NW; p. 1,682). In Khaṭāv is a small village on the right bank of the Yerlā eleven miles north of Vaḍuj. Not far from village is the weir, whence start the two original Yerlā canals connected with the Nher storage tank[3]. In the south-west corner of the village is the shrine of a Musalmān saint or *pir*, a small mosque but with an inner chamber much like a Hindu shrine or *gābhārā*, which contains the tomb of the saint. The saint lived and died at Vaḍgāṅv thirteen miles south-west of Vaḍūj and a hybrid-mosque temple at Khaṭāv was built in his honour by his Hindu disciple. The mosque is in a fairly good condition and repairs are regularly made to it. A fair in honour of the saint is held at Khāṭguñ in March when about 40 to 50 thousand Musalmāns and Hindus attend.

KIKLI.

Kikli (Wāī T; 17° 50′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 14 m. NE; p. 2,768), a small village twelve miles south-east of Wāī and about three miles east of the junction of the Poonā and Wāī-Pañcvaḍ roads is remarkable for a group of ancient temples. The village is about a mile west of the Candan Vandan forts and is easily reached on foot or on horseback from Pañcvaḍ, a favourite camp on the Poonā-Baṅgalore road three miles west. The temples are situated in an enclosure about 120 feet square. Two are in complete ruins, the one razed to its foundations and the other, a mere heap of stones. The third is evidently built largely from the stones of the second and on the plan of the first. It faces east and consists of an outer hall or *maṇḍap* eighteen feet square, flat roofed and open at the sides, leading by a door in the west into an inner hall twenty-three feet square. This hall leads into three shrines each six feet square in the north, west and south. Thus the plan of the whole temple is cruciform. Each of the shrines is connected with the inner hall by a vestibule and while the inside is square, on the outside the courses of masonry overlap each other so that the plan of each shrine is also cruciform. There is no sign of any ancient spire or tower. The roof outside has lately been sloped with mortar and brick and mounted with a small urn or *kaḷas*. The maṇḍaps are supported

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 50.
[2] Marathas, Vol. I, 305.
[3] Details of the Yerla canals and the Nher storage reservoir are given above in the Chapter 'Agriculture and Irrigation'.

CHAPTER 19. Places. KIKLI.

each by sixteen pillars in four rows of four each. The central four form a large square of twelve feet in the inner *manḍap* and of ten feet in the outer leaving side passages 5½ and 4½ feet wide respectively. The walls of the inner *manḍap* and shrines are here less than four feet thick and the height from ten to twelve feet. The outer *manḍap* has in place of walls the usual balustrade forming the back of a stone bench. There is nothing remarkable in the decoration of the outer *manḍap*. The pillars are of the usual Hindu type in plainly dressed rectangular, cylindrical and octagonal courses. An exception is one of the four central pillars which is carved like those of the inner *manḍap*. The decoration of the inner *manḍap* is elaborate. The four centre pillars are elaborately carved in floral and arabesque patterns. The centre rectangular course is panelled with figures in relief representing on the two northern pillars the exploits of Kṛshṇa and on the southern those of Mārutī. The basements are supported by figures of satellites, male and female. The portals of the shrine vestibules have a wainscoting of figures similarly sculptured in relief. The execution is in all cases superior to anything elsewhere to be found in the district. All this carving comes from the ruined temples. Each shrine contains a *liṅg* with a case or *shāḷunkhā*, the northern also containing an image of Bhairav. In the centre square of the outer *manḍap* is a mutilated stone *Nandī* or sacred bull. On the plinth in front of the outer shrine are a few almost unreadable letters said to be the words Shingāṇdev Rājā to whom the building of this temple is ascribed. To its north is the old and probably original temple exactly similar in plan and dimensions with the present one in which only three *liṅgs* now remain. To its east is the other old temple whose walls remain but the roof has fallen in and the *manḍap* is a shapeless heap of stones. In the south-west corner of the enclosure is an ancient well about twenty feet square and thirty deep but choked up. All the images in the new temple including the *Nandī* have their noses broken off, it is said, by the emperor Auraṅgzeb. The stones of the original temple are also said to have been taken to Wāī by the Bijāpūr general Afzalkhān when leading the expedition which terminated in his death at Chhatrapati Shivājī's hand. A number of cracks are seen in the temple walls, the *manḍap* and the roof causing the rain water to leak inside. A small fair is held in honour of Bhairav on *Dasarā*, the bright tenth of *Ashvin* or September-October.

KINHAI.

Kinhai (Koregāṅv T; 17° N, 74° E; RS. Sātārā Road, 5 m. p. 2,200) seven miles almost due north of Koregāṅv is a village which belonged to the Pant Pratinidhi. It was a village of the former princely State of Aundh and was included in Koregāṅv taluka after the merger of the princely States. Kinhai is best reached from Koregāṅv by following the Paṇḍharpūr road for a mile and then taking a track which branches off due north and passes by Chilewadi village on to a made road originally built by the Pant Pratinidhi. The village lies on either bank of a feeder of the Vasnā which always holds water. The soil is good and the country round thickly studded with mangoes. To the north and north-west is a spur of steep hills

at the end of which rises the ancient fort of Nandgiri (3,537). On the south-east are two small hills divided by a gorge to the east of which is the temple of Yamnāi Devī, the patron goddess of the Pratinidhi family. This temple of Yamnāi Devi has a fortified appearance and with its battlements and towers is visible for many miles on all sides throughout the Koregāṅv taluka. The village consists of a broad street running north-west and south-east and crossing the stream into the Peṭh or market quarters and thence continuing to the road mentioned up towards the temple and on through the small gorge between the two hills to Koregāṅv. The Pratinidhi had a handsome mansion or *vāḍā* in the village, the lower part of stone and the upper part of brick with an enclosure or court surrounded by strong walls. The mansion contains some reception rooms of handsome size and proportions in the local style. Usually one of the wives and a son of the Pratinidhi resided there. The mansion now houses the office of the *vahivāṭdār* of the Kinhai Wards' Estate and a District School Board School. On the right bank of the stream behind the Pant's mansion is a small temple of Mahādev about thirty feet by fifteen with a flight of steps leading down to the stream. It consists of an open sided *manḍap* and an image-chamber with a spire. The pillars are imitations of the early Hindu style. The spire is of brick with stone ornamentation. The temple of Yamnāi Devi lies on the summit of a somewhat pointed hill about 350 to 400 feet above the plain. The way up to it is by the road before mentioned which close to the gorge is left on the right for a flight of 300 steps with a stone balustrade on each side. The steps are made of slabs quarried from the surrounding rock and are in excellent repair. Numbers of people may be seen ascending and descending the steps on Tuesday and Friday, the holy days of the goddess. The temple court, irregular and nearly oval is entered from the west by a pointed archway with a music chamber or *nagārkhānā* on the top. The rock is fenced with a solid masonry wall about twelve feet high from inside and outside in places from thirty to forty feet high. At the eastern end is a small entrance from a path communicating with a spring half-way down the south slope of the hill. There are cloisters with a terrace on the left or south side of this entrance and on the north a large solid but plain lamp pillar or *dīpmāḷ*. The pillar was broken years ago by lightning and as this was said to be the third time of its being struck, it was thought ominous to repair it. The temple is a plain structure about forty feet by twenty feet with a flat roofed hall or *manḍap* supported on three rows of four pillars about eighteen inches square at the base and plain imitations of the early Hindu style. The image-chamber or *gābhārā* is square and contains an image of *devi* in black stone ornamented with jewels and embroidered apparel and displayed with much pomp by means of a mirror casting light upon it from outside. The courtyard is paved and immediately in front of the *manḍap* is a stone embedded in the pavement and containing vents made to receive coins to be laid in them for presentation to the goddess. A yearly fair is held in her honour from *Kārtik Pourṇimā* onwards for 15 days, when about 10,000 people attend.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

The Pratinidhi family were hereditary *kulkarnis* or accountants of Kinhai and several of the neighbouring villages and it was from that position that Parashurām Trimbak raised himself till he was appointed the third Pratinidhi in 1,700.

KOLE.

Kole (Karāḍ T; 17° 10′ N, 74° 55′ E; RS. Karāḍ 12 m. NE; p. 2,678) in the Vāṅg valley about eight miles west-south-west of Karāḍ is a village lining both banks of a stream which joins the Vāṅg at its northern end. The village was originally the head-quarters of a petty division or mahāl comprising the Vāṅg valley and the starting point of much of the carrying trade over the Mālā pass by Ḍhebevāḍī. It is an agricultural village with a few traders. A large fair attended by about five thousand people is held on the bright fifth of *Māgh* (January-February) in honour of a Hindu ascetic named Ghāḍge Bovā, a devotee of Viṭhobā who flourished about eight generations ago. His disciple Kushrābā has built a small temple in honour of the God which is much resorted to by people from the surrounding villages. A school building and a *samāj mandir* were constructed under the community development scheme and with the help of popular contribution. Activities such as agricultural and cattle shows, youth clubs were also carried out during the block period.

KOREGAON.

Koregāṅv (Koregāṅv T; 17° 40′ 74° 10′ E; RS.; p. 7,230) is the headquarters of the Koregāṅv taluka. The village has a large street passing east and west and another passing north and south. The Paṇḍharpūr road runs east on the north side of the town and Deūr road from the other side of the stream on the west. At the same point, joins the Sātārā road, which crosses the Vasnā by a good stone bridge about three-quarters of a mile south. The Rahimatpūr road runs round the east of the town. Koregāṇv lies on a stream known as the Tiḷgaṅgā which holds water throughout the year and forms the water-supply of the town. Its banks are well studded with mango and other trees. There is a good Government, rest-house on the north of the Indāpūr road. A camp is formed in the man-grove to the south of the town, but a much better one is an excellent grove on the left bank of the Tiḷgaṅgā about a mile up the stream and north of Koregāṅv within the boundaries of the fertile village of Kumṭhe.

The town has no tap system but depends for its water-supply on the river and wells. Jowar, ground-nuts and potatoes form the main crops in the vicinity of the town. A bridge over the Tiḷgaṅgā is constructed at Koregāṅv on the Sātārā-Paṇḍharpūr road. Under the community development scheme a *chāvaḍi* building and a well were built. Public contributions amounted to one-half of the expenditure. The town has a number of public buildings e.g., revenue and police offices, village panchayat office, a civil judge's court, a high-school, a market yard and a State Transport Depot.

KUSRUD.

Kusrūḍ (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 15′ N, 73° 50′ E; RS. Karāḍ 26 m. E; p. 982) is a small village about six miles due south of Pāṭaṇ on Karāḍ-Ciplūṇ road. On way from Pāṭaṇ to Kusrūḍ the Koynā is

to be crossed where ferries are run in the season. It has near it a curious cave temple. The cave is on the north slope of a hill spur about a quarter of a mile south of the village and three hundred feet above the plain. A red spot in the slope marks its existence and a scramble up shows it to be a natural cave about fifty feet long and thirty-eight deep with a stream from the hill top pouring over the edge of the rock. The cave contains a large stone image of God *Gaṇapati* painted red and about four feet high and four feet wide. Behind it on a crescent is a row of rude life-size sculptures made of mud and cowdung. The figures are of men and women and are represented standing in various attitudes. Some of the men have the large head-dresses given to kings and Gods in the old representations and the women have wooden bangles on their wrists and the arms above the elbow. A passage about five feet wide behind the row of figures leads to a chamber about ten feet square in which is a Mahādev *liṅg*. There is another chamber at the north-west corner of the large cave. These chambers are hewn out of the rock, but the large cave is natural. The God Gaṇpatī sculptures are probably not very old. The execution is fair in some but the people of the place ascribe them an untold antiquity. To guard against their being injured by wild animals, the front of the cave was blocked up by a mud and stone wall about ten feet from the edge of the cave thus having a verandah formed by the overshadowing rock.

LOHARE.

Lohare (Wāī T; 18° 00' N, 73° 25' E; RS. Wāṭhār 22m. SE; p. 731) See Wāī.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Mahābaḷeśvar[1] (Mahābaleśvar Petā; 17° 55' N. 73° 35' E; RS. Wāṭhār 40 m. S; p. 4,972) about eighteen miles north-west of Meḍhā, twenty miles west of Wāī, and about thirty-three miles north-west of Sātārā, is one of the health resorts of Mahārāshṭra State, situated on one of the Sahyādri spurs. The height averages 4,500 feet above the sea, and at Sindolá ridge the highest point reaches 4,710. Several spurs standing out from the north and west of the main body of the hill form promontories that command magnificent views of the precipitous slopes of the Sahyādri hills and of the valleys below. At the heads of the ravines that run between these points the streams, issuing from springs in the higher part of the hill, fall over ledges of trap rock in cascades, one of which is about 2,000 feet from the lip of the fall to the bottom of the valley.

Description.

Except in the east and extreme north the top of the hill is wooded to the very edge of the scrap, and though only in a few sheltered glades are there trees of any great size, the wood is so dense that it forms one vast waving stretch of rich foliage, broken by the chimneys and roofs of the higher houses and by the varieties of shade from the olive leaf of the *pisā* to the blue-green of the *jāmbhuḷ* and

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1 This account has been mainly contributed by Dr. McConaghy, formerly Superintendent of Mahabaleshvar for the first edition. Besides by the name Mahabaleshvar or the Very Mighty God, which it takes from a famous temple of Shiv of that name, the station is called Nahar by the lower classes.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.
MAHABALESHWAR.
Description.

other fruit-bearing trees. The deep-cut roads and paths, bordered by a thick undergrowth of bracken and shaded by moss-covered trees, are like the views in a highland hill side. But the resemblance ceases with the sudden ending of road and shade at one of numerous points that overlook the ravines, perhaps 2,000 feet deep, bounded on the opposite side by the steep bare wall of one of the flat-topped Deccan ridges or by the low castellated outline of a Marāṭhā hills fort.

The hills to the south-west differ considerably from those to the south and east. To the south-west the outlines are bolder and irregular and their sides are fairly clothed with trees and brushwood. To the south and east with a lighter rainfall the sides are utterly bare, and the forms, worn only by the sun and rain, are flat-topped and monotonous. The pressure of population on the arable land has driven tillage up the sides of some of the less precipitous hills, where the wearing of the soil can be stopped by low terraces resting on stone walls, which lend somewhat of a Rhenish or Italian character to the view. In clear air before or after rain, often parts, and in rare cases, the whole of a fifty miles range of sea, shows extending from about the Shāstrī in Ratnāgirī to a little south of Jañjirā. But the coast line cannot be traced except near the Sāvitrī river. The distance to the sea along this range of view varies as the river from thirty to fifty miles.

The beauties of the hill vary much at different seasons. Most persons probably think it at its best in October immediately after the cessation of the south-west monsoon. Many spots are then carpeted with wild flowers. The wild arrowroot lily fills every glade and in numberless spots are found wild rose and sweet pea. The ferns are then in leaf. The less frequented paths and open spots are soft with turf. Every bank and stone, the rugged cliffs of the hills themselves, are dazzlingly green with moss and grass. The streams are at the fullest. A fall of rain of tropical violence probably occurs and the Yennā falls become imposing, while the faces of the cliffs are lighted with innumerable silver rills and dazzling sprays. At this time are to be seen the most distant views. The hills stand out against the sky in wonderful relief. In the mornings the ravines are filled with fleecy rolls of mist or with a wealth of dark blue shadow. In the evenings great clouds gather and impart endless variety of light and shade to the landscape and of glorious colour to the rays of the setting sun. Few lights are more majestic than that of the great thunderstorm of this season sweeping the adjacent valleys or over the distant sea. The breezes though strong are sweet and the bracing cold of the evenings is met with a cheerful fire.

But the favourite season for visiting is from March to June. The reason of course is the escape thereby afforded from the heat of the plains. But the grass, wild flowers and ferns are now gone and the streams and waterfalls are dry. Haze obstructs the view and the eye is fatigued by glare. Still then too the hill has its peculiar

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
MAHABALESHWAR.
Description.

beauties. The evergreen forests are renewing their foliage and impart a fresh verdure to the landscape. There is the tawny bracken not unlovely and the mighty heights of the Ghāṭs are perhaps more imposing than when delicately clothed as in October at many of their most rugged portions.

Towards the end of May the mists begin to creep up and thunder-storms lay the dust and cool the air. Few scenes are more fairy-like than the valleys on a May morning filled with mist, the fragments of which as it rises gild and throw into relief the finest of the surrounding peaks. At this time too the strawberry is in full fruit and the gardens are brilliant with heliotrope, geranium and fuchsias, and roses, where cared for, do well.

At all times the hill is most attractive, and not its least attractions are the excellent drives as well as walks which give access to all its parts. In this it contrasts happily with most hill stations, Ootacamund always excepted.

"The station, called Malcolm Peth after Sir John Malcolm, includes all lands within a radius of five miles from the Frere Hall. Most of this land is reserved for forest and is called the Five Mile Reserve. It includes the lands of sixty-five villages, fifty-six from the Javli and nine from the Wai talukas of Satara. These villages are usually from four to twenty huts surrounded by a few fields. Each village has a certain amount of land set apart for tillage and grazing, the rest being covered with thick evergreen forest."*

Roads.

Mahābaḷeśvar is reached by three chief roads, the Pooṇā road from the east branching off from the Pooṇā-Sātārā road at Surūl, the Sātārā and Keḷghar road from the south-east, and the Fitz-Gerald pass road from the west. In travelling to Mahābaḷeśvar from Surūḷ the Pooṇā road begins to rise almost immediately after leaving Wāī and climbs along the north face of a steep and barren range of hills almost as far as Pāñcgaṇī, a distance of about eight miles. Frequent turns open fine views of the upper Kṛshṇā valley and of the hills that face Mahābaḷeśvar which are nearly as barren as those up which the road winds. One or two points give a glimpse of the peaks of Torṇā (4,605) and Rājgaḍ (3,992), and at the highest point of one steep rise, the wood-encircled temple and village of Mahābaḷeshvar is seen, but again lost when the curve of the road turns to the south-west. Except along the banks of the Kṛshṇā and its tributaries there is little vegetation. The sides of the hills are terraced in a few places for the growth of coarse grain, but the rest is utterly bare.

At the top of this ascent the little settlement of Pāñcgaṇī (ht. 4,000; P. 4,337) breaks pleasantly on the view with its long lines of casuarina trees and bamboos in which are bedded a number of substantial little houses, buildings of residential schools, hotels and a market. Until Pāñchgaṇī is passed there is no view to the

* Gazetteer of Bombay Presidency (Satara), Vol. XIX.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR. Roads

south or south-east, but about a mile further the road to Mahābaḷeśvar strikes along the edge of a deep valley that opens on the southern plains with Yavteśvar and the Sātārā fort (3,307) in the back ground. The hills round Pāñcgaṇī are flattopped and, except close to the station, untilled. In the valleys below, the streams, so long as they keep running, are used to water small patches of wheat or vegetables, but the bulk of the crops, consisting of rice or *nāchṇī* is harvested soon after the end of the rains and only stubble is left to mark the patches of tillage. A little beyond Pāñcgaṇī the road rises with several ups and downs to Mahābaḷeśvar, passing along the table land which forms the top of this spur of the Mahābaḷeśvar, system of hills. About half-way between the two stations, signs of a heavy rainfall appear in the richness of the bracken and other ferns and in the numbers of bulbous plants which flourish nowhere but near the western crest of the Sahyādris. The valley of the Yennā is soon reached, along the north-eastern side of which the road is carried to the embankment of the lake immediately below the station. The Yennā falls are not visible though the rocks near them can be made out. Unlike the Pāñcgaṇī spur the south-western side of the valley up which the road to Sātārā winds is clothed with scrub jungle. The gardens, begun by the Chinese convicts and continued by local workmen whom they have taught, are seen on both banks of the upper Yennā, on the south-west of which close to Mahābaḷeśvar, the view is bounded by the ridge of Siṇḍolā the highest point of the hill. From the lake the road winds round one or two small valleys to the Frere Hall, from which all distances are calculated.

For those who have time a better route is from Bombay by the Fitz-Gerald pass with district bungalow at Dāsgāṅv in Kolābā, and inspection bungalow at Vāḍā at the foot of the Fitz-Gerald pass. Coasting steamers touch Bāṇkoṭ at the mouth of the Sāvitrī and from Bāṇkoṭ small steamers or boats ply twenty-four miles up to Dāsgāṅv. Leaving Polādpur eighteen miles from Dāsgāṅv, the line goes by the old Kineśvar road for five and half miles. It then branches to the left, gradually climbing round the western and northern shoulders of Pratāpgaḍ for sixteen miles to the Vāḍā bungalow on the first plateau. From Vāḍā the road winds ten miles more round the valleys between Bombay and Sidney Points, and passing close under Bombay Point, rises easily from the east of it into the Bombay Point road by the Terraces. The scenery along this route is very fine, but it is very dusty below the hill in the hot weather.

Geology.

The geology of the hills is simple, trap overlaid by a light capping of iron clay. The trap shows in most ravines and in horizontal belts on the sides of the hill, which are more numerous and much less deep than the trap scarps in the range further north. The Mahābaḷeśvar trap is often columnar and accompanied by crystallised quartz, apophyllite, stilbite, and scolecite found in cavities. The iron clay contains a variable proportion of peroxide of iron which used to be extracted by a class of men called Dhavaḍs. But orders

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

restricting the use of charcoal put a stop to the manufacture of iron. The laterite ends on the Sātārā road 6½ miles from the Frere Hall, on the Pooṇā road 13½ miles, and on the Mahāḍ road 2½ miles.

Water.

As the laterite capping is nowhere very thick, the substratum of water-bearing trap is soon reached, and a well sunk to a moderate deapth, say from thirty to fifty feet, will yield a certain supply of water. In this respect the station presents a most favourable contrast to Māthcrān. The Yennā lake, with an area of about twenty-eight acres and an average depth of ten feet, constructed by Chhatrapatī Āppāsāheb Mahāraj, Rājā of Sātārā, in 1842 on the request of the then Governor of Bombay, Sir James Rivett Lawrence and fed by perennial springs, not only adds to the beauty of the hill-top, but both directly and indirectly aids in watering a line of small gardens that stretch to a considerable distance below. It helps directly by means of a stream that issues from the lake and ultimately grows into the Yennā river; and it helps indirectly by raising the general spring level in the gardens so that a sufficient supply of water can be drawn from a shallow dip well, by means of a bucket and bamboo pole weighted with a large stone and worked by a single labourer. The little streams that flow from the upper parts of the hill into the larger streams are so long as they last used in cultivation by means of artificial water-courses. The drinking water is generally excellent. For drinking water the municipality has 19 public wells and two chlorinated tanks *viz.* the Bishop Tank and the Elphinstone Tank. They are disinfected periodically. In addition, there are 230 private wells. To augment the water supply which runs short in May when the station is full of visitors, the Government Internal Distribution Scheme of Mahābaleśvar was completed recently (March, 1961). The scheme supplies piped water and consists of pumping arrangements on the Elphinstone Tank, a reservoir, settling tanks and a dam.

Climate.

From early October to June the climate is bracing and healthy; suiting most constitutions except those suffering from such chronic complaints as liver or heart disease. Some rain usually falls in October and the place is a little damp and the evenings misty; the average mean temperature is 19·3° C. In November, December and January the climate is dry with occasionally strong easterly winds cold enough to make a fire in the evening almost necessary; the average mean temperature of these months is 17·4° C and the cold season ends about the middle of the month. The hottest time of the year is generally from about the 12th of March to the middle of April, when, during the day, the temperature rises to a little over 32·2° C. About 20th April the wind changes to the west, and cool moist, and invigorating sea breezes set in and gather strength as the season passes. In May there are occasional showers and thunderstorms; the air grows moister and clouds and mist often fill the valleys. On most hot weather mornings the hill sides are covered with white clouds which completely veil the Koṅkaṇ, but these disappear as the day advances. The rainy season usually begins early in June, but a number of visitors remain on the hill till the

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR Climate.

middle of the month, As different houses are emptied, the owners cover them round with rain screens made of Koḷamb and other grass so as to protect the walls against the heavy rains. Most of the dealers and hawkers leave the bazar at the end of the season, but a number of Vāṇis and the poorer classes remain. They completely surround their houses with screens, leaving only a small opening on the side furthest from the prevailing wind. The Vāṇis carry on their trade to a limited extent as the people who inhabit the hill and surrounding villages are too poor to lay in sufficient supplies for the monsoon. During these months it is generally very cloudy and misty, and the rain, though not incessant, falls for the greater part of the time. It is usually heaviest in July, and 30 centimeters or more are occasionally registered in a day. Every spring becomes a torrent and much damage is done to roads and gardens. "The difference between the wet season and the dry season is strongly marked at Mahābaḷeśvar. The wet season begins with the onset of the South-West monsoon early in June and lasts till the second week of October. The station receives the full force of the monsoon current on account of its situation on the crest of the Ghāṭs and in the four months. June to September more than 95 per cent. of the annual rainfall of 266″ (675·64 centimeters) is received. In July and August there is hardly a day without rain, while in June and September rainfall occurs on three days out of four. The rainfall in October, which occurs at the end of the monsoon, is much less than in the main monsoon months, and is less than 3 per cent. of the annual fall".*

Gardening.

With abundant water and plentiful manure from street sweepings and other manure, gardening is carried on with great success. Foreign vegetables are grown along the banks of the Yennā and other streams, where there are also beds of strawberries and other fruit. The excessive rainfall prevents the cultivation of most European fruit trees, though they flourish at Pāñcgaṇī about ten miles east. Potatoes locally known as red potatoes are largely grown and highly esteemed in the Pooṇā and Bombay markets.

Among exotics may be mentioned a few oak trees, grown from acorns. The field crops are chiefly wheat. *nāchṇī* or *nāgli*, *savā* vari, coarse rice, and a little barley. Sugarcane is found only in a few spots which have a plentiful supply of water. As a rule the crops are harvested in the early season, so that the cultivators, unable to occupy themselves with cold weather sowings, have to seek other means of subsistence during the rest of the year. Except near water-course, the soil is barren, and, as a rule, yields scanty crops. The local grain is always poor and is seldom used by any but the growers and a few servants.

Animals.

The principal birds more of them heard than seen are the nightingales, spurfowl, bird of paradise, and golden oriel sometimes called the mango bird. But the singing and colourful birds of

* From Messrs. Doraiswamy Iyer and Ishver Dass's Diurnal Variation of Rainfall at Mahableshwar, (Issued, in Scientific Note No. 105, by the Indian Meteorological Department, Poona.).

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Animals.

Mahābaḷeśvar like kingfishers, woodpeckers, cuckoos, thrushes, honey-suckers are the real fauna that go to enchance the beauty of the place. A number of venomous snakes are found, of which the *nāg* (naja tripudians), *Phurse* (Behis carinata), *Ghoṇas*, and *maṇyār* are the commonest. Phurse are found in great numbers and though small are very poisonous. Of the larger wild animals, tigers, panthers, and leopards, and of the smaller spotted and four-horned deer and hog, are occasionally seen on the hill and in the surrounding villages. Hyenas come out of their dens on a moonlight night, monkeys of fairly larger size if left alone seldom make a nuisance of themselves. *Sāmbars* are also found.

History.

Since ages it has been recognised that at Mahābaḷeśvar lies the source of the great Kṛshṇā, Yennā, Koynā, Sāvitrī and Gāyatrī. Mahābaḷeśvar, from the beginning of the 17th century, was under the subjection of different rulers, Hindus and Muslims.

The[1] first European visitor to the Mahābaḷeśvar hills, the late General P. Lodwick, on hearing from the Late Rājā of Sātārā of the boundless beauty of this place, explored the region in the summer of 1824. The celebrated promontory of Sidney point is re-named after him as he first set his foot there. He made his way, with a walking stick in hand, through the dense and tigerish forest, to the edge of that grand precipice, without any encounter with the wild beasts that then infested the place in numbers; but a day or two after, his dog, when close to him, was carried off by a panther. He was also the first to bring the subject before the public through the medium of newspapers. He was followed by General Briggs, Resident of Sātārā, who in 1826 built a cottage and prevailed on the Rājā to construct an excellent carriage road from his capital to the present station. Little further was done till Sir J. Malcolm, Governor of Bombay (1827-1830), zealously took up the matter, established an experimental convalescent hospital for European soldiers, and, by his personal residence at the hills in the hot season of 1828, attracted a crowd of visitors. In the same season, Colonel Robertson, the successor of General Briggs, built a house at the station. In November 1828, Sir J. Malcolm returned to the hills bringing with him Dr. Williamson specially appointed to the duty of reporting on the climate and fitness of the locality for a sanatorium. Sites were now selected for some public buildings; the Governor's residence on Mount Charlotte, called after Lady Malcolm, was commenced; and a proclamation was soon afterwards issued by the Rājā of Sātārā, inviting settlers to his newly founded village of Malcolm Peth or 'Malcolm-Ville'. The Rājā also undertook to continue the high road onward over the hill and down the Raḍtoṇḍyā or Roṭuṇḍā pass to the boundary of the British territory in the Koṅkaṇ, from which point the former English Government agreed to construct a similar road down the Pār pass through Mahāḍ to Ḍāsgāṅv in Kolābā, the most convenient harbour on the Sāvitrī or Bāṇkoṭ river. These works were completed in 1830. Next season,

[1] Murray's Bombay Handbook (2nd Edition), 198-99.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR. History.

Parsee shopkeepers made their appearance, and Government employed a number of Chinese convicts in cultivating an extensive garden whence supplies of the finest vegetables, especially potatoes, were speedily drawn. The convicts, about twelve in number, came from the English settlements to the East and after working out their time in chains remained at the place, married, and improved their condition, with the proverbial frugality and industry of their race. A public subscription was raised to make bridle roads to the most picturesque points and in a few years the station reached a flourishing condition. Mahābaḷeshvar was ceded in 1828, by the Sātārā Rājā in exchange for the village of Khaṇḍāḷā in Wāī, and in 1848 was incorporated in the Sātārā collectorate on the lapse of the Sātārā State to the *ex*-British Government.

Management.

From 1827 to 1866 the management of the station was carried on by a committee. During this time it was chiefly maintained from imperial revenues which constituted the station fund. In January 1865, to raise revenue for the improvement of the station, a municipality was organised, and in May 1866, its limits were extended to include the whole of the station. The committee was dissolved in April 1867, and the management transferred to a town municipality. Its income was limited and therefore, Government contributed from the public revenues.

Population

The population of the town according to 1951 census was 4,872 of which 155 were agriculturists and others 4,717. Of the latter 677 persons derived their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 643 from commerce; 148 from transport and 3,249 from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

Mahābaḷeśvar municipality with an area of 59 sq. miles was established in 1939. There are ten elected and two *ex-officio* members in the municipal council. It is governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. One seat rotating in three wards is reserved for women and one for the Scheduled Castes. Besides the managing committee there is the Schools Committee, Assessment Committee, Advisory Committee on building and construction and a Sanitation Committee.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of the municipality for the year 1959-60 excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 2,96,980; municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 2,23,395; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 14,301; grants and contributions Rs. 51,234; and miscellaneous Rs. 8,050. Expenditure incurred for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 3,28,319; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 63,458; public safety Rs. 1,915; public health and convenience Rs. 2,16,426; public instructions Rs. 12,840; contributions 35; and miscellaneous Rs. 34,145.

Water Supply.

The town is supplied with piped water from the Bishop tank under the Government Internal Distribution Scheme. Besides there are 19 municipal wells which are disinfected regularly.

Drainage System.

There is no special drainage system, but lately underground drains have been laid in the bazar area. Government has completed a major portion of the work started in 1956, costing Rs. 75,000.

Markets.

There are markets for mutton, beef, fish and vegetables. The mutton market built in 1942-43 at a cost of Rs. 8,500 has an accommodation for six stalls. The vegetable market constructed in 1951-52 at a cost of Rs. 23,700 accommodates eight stalls with all modern amenities. Besides there is one *Bhājī Aḍḍā* where vegetable gardeners sell their produce.

Roads.

There are seven miles and five furlongs of tar roads, 34 miles and a half furlong metalled and 37 miles of unmetalled roads.

Fire Service.

For fire service the municipality maintains one trailer pump.

Educational Facilities.

Primary education is compulsory in the town and is managed by the District School Board, Satara. The municipality pays its contribution on the basis of 5 per cent. of the annual letting value. There is one High School owned by a private institution called the Seṭh Gaṅgādhar Mākhariā High School. There are two private libraries, the Frere Library and the Petit Library. The municipality pays an annual grant of Rs. 450 to the Petit Library.

Miscellaneous.

The Morārjī Gokuḷdās General Hospital run by the Government is the only public dispensary in Mahābaḷeśvar.

There are five burial and cremation grounds for Hindus, Muhammedans, Parsees, Europeans and Goanese. All are managed privately, the municipality providing sheds for Hindus and Muhammedans.

The municipality maintains one park *viz.*, the Seṭh Gaṅgādhar Mākhariā Garden. The municipality has constructed a 'Car Park' near Yeṇṇā Lake at a cost of Rs. 16,000 in 1958.

Buildings

The Frere Hall built in 1864, contains a large reading room and a library with a large and well chosen collection of books. The hall is given to the Mahābaḷeśvar Club at present. The Petit Library has also a good collection of English, Marāṭhī and Gujarātī books and dailies. The library has a billiards hall. The Mahābaḷeśvar Club, the Parsee Gymkhana and the Hindu Gymkhana afford facilities for a number of sports activities. The Parsee Gymkhana offers courts for tennis and badminton. Table-tennis and card games are also popular among the Parsee Gymkhana visitors. The Hindu Gymkhana affords similar facilities and the tournaments on its tennis courts constitute an annual feature of Mahābaḷeśvar's seasonal sports. Fishing, trekking, hunting and boating are another group of sporting facilities. The Morārji Gokuḷdās General Hospital near the Petit Library and the Manekbāī Gaṅgābāī Hindu Sanatorium afford medical facilities. There are three primary schools at Mahābaḷeśvar, two Marāṭhī and one Urdū; and a high school *viz.* The Mākhariā High School. The *Sarvodaya Kendra,* Mahābaḷeśvar established in 1949 aims at an alround development of the area. The *Kendra* works in a number of fields *viz.* bee-keeping, spread of

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Buildings.

education and literacy, building of roads and wells and providing medical aid and water-supply. The Wheat-Rust Station on the Sassoon Road is sponsored by the Department of Agriculture, in 1942. It is doing valuable work in the development of disease-resisting varieties of wheat. There are three Inspection Bungalows at Mahābaḷeśvar. There are three apiaries at Mahābaḷeśvar one run by the Khadi and Village Industries Board and the other two *viz. Madhu Kosh* and *Madhu Sāgar* run by co-operative societies. Mahābaḷeśvar honey known for its quality is in great demand in the adjoining areas. There are two mosques at Mahābaḷeśvar. The Christ Church originally built in 1842 is near the Hospital. The Roman Catholic Church is adjacent to the Petit Library and the American Mission Church is on the old Mahābaḷeśvar Road. About sixty yards to the west of the Christ Church is the Beckwith monument 4,558 feet above sea level and reached by a bad stony path. It is a plain obelisk about thirty feet high and was erected from public subscription at a cost of Rs. 3,000. Sir Sidney Beckwith died here in 1831 while commander-in-chief. The subscribers put up an inscription and Lady Beckwith sent out another on a marble tablet. The influence of weather on marble rendered the second inscription almost illegible as early as 1843; the first inscription remains comparatively uninjured though the writing is much obliterated and blackened and can only be read with the greatest difficulty. For several years the momument has been regarded as sacred by the poorer classes, who resort to it for the purpose of obtaining answers to prayers. The first inscription on the west face runs :

"Sacred to the Memory of

Lieutenant-General Sir Thomas Sidney Beckwith, K. C. B.,

Governor and Commander-in-chief of Bombay, and Colonel of His Majesty's Rifle Brigade ;

who, after a long course of distinguished service, expired at his Residence on these Hills, on the 15th day of January 1831, aged 60 years.

Erected by a small circle of his friends in testimony of their admiration for his noble character, and to perpetuate the memory of so good and amiable a man."

The other inscription on the east face runs :

"This Tablet is placed by Mary, Lady Beckwith, daughter of the late Sir William Douglas, of Kilhead, Bart, as a memorial of the most devoted affection for her lamented husband, by whose sudden death she has been deprived of a most attached partner and friend and guide, in whom was combined every amiable quality by which the Christian character is adorned, and the intercourse of domestic life is endeared—a loss which can only be alleviated by the hope that looks beyond the grave. The sympathizing friends who erected this monument have kindly permitted a sorrowing widow to add her heartfelt tribute to theirs."

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Bungalows

About 700 yards south-east of the obelisk on the left of the road leading to Lodwick Point is the cemetery canopied with the shade of many trees. It is well kept and contains several notable monuments.

There are about two hundred bungalows on the hill. Iron roofing is becoming more common, as it can be maintained in good repair at a trifling expense. As a rule in the hot season all the houses are occupied. Of the materials used in building these houses the teak came from Bombay, Ratnāgirī, Poonā, and Kanara, other timber from the neighbouring districts, the lime from Wāī in Sātārā, and the corrugated iron from Bombay. The properties on the hill are generally held on lease; in a few cases the Government rent has been redeemed. In most cases local house agents would furnish the amount of rent etc., per season to the would-be bungalow lessees. Now according to section 6(*i*) of the Land Requisition Act, 1948, landowners cannot let the whole or portion of their bungalows, for one month or a season to anybody without the prior sanction of the Collector of Sātārā, under whose jurisdiction , Mahābaḷeśvar falls. A number of house agents have established themselves on the hill station since many decades. The exterior and interior of most bungalows are fairly good whilst some of the Bombay owners' bungalows resemble, in excellence, their Bombay residences. Besides there are fine small cottages situated amidst woody surroundings.

For those who want to escape from attending to chores of house-keeping there are a number of hotels at Mahābaḷeśvar which give vegetarian and non-vegetarian food with Indian or European style. Most of these hotels have reputation for good food and service. The rate per person during the season is from Rs. 8 to Rs. 25 and from Rs. 3 to Rs. 10 during the rest of the year. With the exception of the monsoonish months – June to September – Mahābaḷeśvar is very satisfactorily habitable throughout the rest of the year. The peak season is April-May when, to escape the sweltering heat of the plains, a large number of visitors come to the hill station. But even when all the bungalows are occupied and almost all the hotels are packed to capacity one rarely finds a feeling of congestion (except perhaps in the bazar) for the simple reason that Mahābaḷeśvar is very well laid out. This being a lucrative period of the year the prices of commodities, hotel fees, conveyance fares etc. are usually higher than what they are during the rest of the year.

Points.

The[1] principal points are Arthur seat (4,421) Elphinstone (4,184), Sidney or Lodwick (4,067), Bombay, Carnac, Falkland, Sassoon, and Babington (4,245) on the Koṅkaṇ face and Kate's on the Deccan face.

Elphinstone Point and Arthur Seat.

Elphinstone Point is a seven-mile drive from Frere Hall. Two miles more lead to Arthur Seat. The cliffs at these points are higher than at any of the nearer eminences. These rise from the Koṅkaṇ which is some two thousand five hundred feet below the

[1] Mr. J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR. Points.

level of the Koynā valley. The ravine between Elphinstone Point and Arthur Seat is the rise of the Sāvitrī river, and the height of the cliff at the point where the stream reaches its base is not less probably than 3,000 feet. There is a small bungalow at Elphinstone Point, which provided accommodation for visitors. The bungalow is now out of repairs. Mahābaḷeśvar municipality has now decided to demolish it and to construct a new picnic-shed on a suitable spot at Arthur seat. The road which passes the Mahābaḷeśvar temple is passable for light vehicles, but is unbridged and abounds in steep inclines and sharp curves. From Elphinstone Point to Arthur's Seat it runs close to the edge of the cliffs from which only a small stone parapet divides it. Great care should be taken in driving through this portion. Arthur Seat, so called after Mr. Arthur Mallet who first built a house here, is the highest point of the range in the neighbourhood, being 4,421 feet above sea level. The view is of immense extent in all directions. North-west over a ridge about five hundred feet lower is seen the Jor valley dense with forest and concealing the head waters of the Kṛshṇā. Rājgaḍ (3,992) and Torṇā (4,605), in Pooṇā and Kaṅgorī (2,457) in Kolābā are all visible from this point. During the hot weather the haze usually obstructs the view, but in October and November these and other hills are seen to fine advantage. They form masses of huge rocks rugged beyond description and apparently unscalable. In most places the vegetation has been cleared or burnt off them. This adds to the wildness of the scene. But notwithstanding its grandeur the eye would gladly find some relief from the universal bareness, and turns with enjoyment to the masses of foliage on the southern side. About half a mile from Arthur Seat itself is a small path, which by a scramble, leads down to a spring 200 feet below called the Wishing Well. The path follows the line of the cliffs and mounting up meets the carriage road at the little cleared spot which constitutes Arthur Seat. A very steep and rather unsafe path over the eminence enables a good climber to get down to a small ledge known as the window. It is about 200 feet below the Arthur Seat and once reached gives a magnificent view of the extraordinary drop on into the valley below. The ledge is so low that the visitor can lean over it and gaze securely into the depths below without endangering his balance by straining in any way. Another circuitous path starts northwards from the Seat and is a safer way of reaching the window. Beyond the window a long spur projects into the Koṅkaṇ, and by the path above mentioned the people habitually pass the range, sometimes even with heavy burdens. Considerable time is usually necessary for seeing Elphinstone Point and Arthur Seat. The best plan is to send out provisions and make a long morning of it.

Sidney or Lodwick.

The way to Sidney or Lodwick Point, which is nearly three miles north-west of the bazar, is to follow the Mahāḍ road and take the second turning to the right. One more turning is met and the right hand should again be chosen. The road, though steep is well adapted for carriages. It follows the northern slope of the spur through dense though small forest and opens on to a space at the base of a sort of

promontory two hundred yards long. The carriage way extends to the top of a rise in the promontory on which the Lodwick monument has been placed. Beyond this again, is the extreme end of the Point known as the Nose or Elephant Head 4,067 feet above sea level. This must be reached on foot, as it is connected with the rest of the spur by a narrow ridge not more than five or six feet wide with a deep drop on each side. This should be crossed with caution. The Nose or Elephant Head end of the point is only twelve feet wide and the sides have a drop of over 2,500 feet to the Koynā valley below. Many persons consider Sidney point the most beautiful on the hill. The view is less extensive on either side than from several other points. But Pratāpgaḍ and Elphinstone point crags are seen thence in their very best. There is a fine rebent of prospect north-west over the Konkaṇ while the height and ruggedness of the surrounding hills is nowhere more fully brought home to the mind than from this almost isolated rock rearing its colossal height between two deep ravines crowned with rugged cliffs.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
MAHABALESHWAR.
Points.
Sidney or Lodwick.

Lodwick Monument.

Sidney or Lodwick Point was formerly called Sidney after Sir Sidney Beckwith. Later on, by order of Government, the name was changed to Lodwick Point, in honour of General Lodwick who was the first English officer that climbed the hill. By permission of Government a column was erected on the point by General Lodwick's son. The column is about twenty-five feet high from the ground to the top of the urn which surmounts the pillar. On the west of the base of the monument is the head of the General, sculptured in alto-relievo in white marble, protected by stout tin wire in an iron frame. The iron has rusted and stained the face, which is scratched but not disfigured. On the south side is written :

In memory of
General Peter Lodwick,
Second son of John Lodwick, Esq., S. Shoebury, Essex,
who entered the Hon. E. I. Co.'s service in 1799
and died at Bagneres de Bigorre, France,
August 28th, 1873, aged 90.
SENIOR OFFICER OF H. M.'S FORCES IN INDIA.

On the east side is written :

In 1803-04, he saw service as a *subaltern* in connection with the operation of the Army under Sir Arthur Wellesley. He was Brigade Major of Captain Ford's Subsidiary Force at the Battle of Kirkee, November 5th 1817, when 2,800 British Troops defeated the Peshvā's Army, and was present at the taking of Purandhar and other hill forts. He commanded a Regiment at Kittur in 1824; he subsequently became Town Major of Bombay ; and closed his career in India as Resident of Sātārā.

The first European who set foot on these hills, he made known the salubrity of the climate, and led to the establishment of the Mahābaleśvar Sanatorium, thus conferring an inestimable benefit on the Bombay Presidency.

On the north side is written :

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR. Points.

The Point, now by order of Government designated Lodwick Point in honour of his name, he reached alone in 1827, after hours of toil through the dense forest. Here, therefore, as the most appropriate spot this monument has, with the permision of Government, been erected by his only son, R. W. Lodwick, of Her Majesty's Bombay Civil Service, Accountant General of Madras, in 1874.

Bombay Point.

Bombay Point, so called apparently because of its being on the old road to Bombay, is one of the earliest known in Mahābaḷeśvar [1]The view from it is perhaps the most extensive on the hill. It comprehends on the right or north-west Pratāpgaḍ and on the south west the Saddleback and the set of hills between them, of the most varied and beautiful forms to be seen in the immediate neighbourhood. This also is the point from which to see the sunset over the sea. It is the most frequented rendezvous on the hill. A large space has been cleared for carriages and a platform made for a band The point is reached by two roads. For both the Mahāḍ road must be followed for a full mile to a spot where three roads meet. The shorter way to the point is straight on. One portion is rather steep but the saving in distance is very great, and the gradients have lately been improved. The whole road from the turning runs through thick woods. The turn to the right is the longer road, which gives a much easier gradient but a mile's more driving. The Mahāḍ road is followed for three quarters of a mile when a turn to the left leads to the point. Many fine glimpses of Sidney Point are obtained from this road.

Falkland. and Carnac.

Carnac and Falkland Points called after the Governors of those names are within a quarter and half a mile respectively of Bombay Point. The views are very similar. The Saddle-back hill is seen to greater advantage from these two than from Bombay Point, but the sunset view is somewhat obstructed by the shoulder of Bombay Point itself. Falkand Point however, has a large space for carriages and is a very favourable resort. The cliffs of Babington Point are exceedingly well viewed from this point. These heights while exceedingly abrupt are specially well clothed with vegetation. The lines of the mosses and passes are specially attractive in October and in the cold weather the ravine is filled with the intense blue shadow characteristic of these hills.

Falkland.

Closely adjoining Falkland Point is the glade, an open space cleared in the forest, a charming specimen of the beautiful interiors of these small light woods. There is a direct road to Falkland point by the left hand turning of the three mentioned above. It is broad and drivable but very steep in parts, and not much used for carriages.

Sassoon.

Sassoon Point about half-way on the road to Babington Point has the Lawn Tennis Courts of the station. There are six of them well furnished and in good order. There is now the Parsee Gymkhana with the Tennis courts.

[1] Compare Lady Falkland's Chow Chow, I. 147.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.
MAHABALESHWAR.
Points.
Babington.

Babington Point is about two miles almost due south of the Frere Hall. The road is an excellent one. It passes through the bazar past Sassoon Point on the right and on for another half a mile by gentle gradients. The last half mile where it turns a little to the west is very steep and leads on the point a fine open space. This is the point of view for the Koynā valley and the Saddle-back.

Kate's.

Kate's Point, unlike all the others, affords a view to the Deccan side. The hills here have less variety and grandeur. But the valley of the Kṛshṇā has beauties of its own in a winding river and patches of cultivation. Kamaḷgaḍ, Paṇḍugaḍ and Māndhārdev, three fine heights, are prominent objects in the landscape. Wāī unfortunately is shut out from view by a shoulder of the hill called Tāī Ghāṭ. The road to the point has recently been made easily passable for light carriages. It turns off from the Poonā high road about a mile and a half east of the lake and from here it is another mile and a half to the point. It is a spur jutting out into the Kṛishṇā valley. At the extremity is a huge piece of rock a hundred feet high which appears to have become detached from the main scarp. A few smaller boulders wedged between this rock and the face of the cliff form a connecting link not more than six feet wide requiring steadiness to cross. The rock and scarp with the connecting boulders form a curious natural arch. The arch is known as the Kate's Point Needle. The road to Kate's point forms part of the old path to Malcolm Peṭh known as General Phayre's road. It follows the northern slope of Pāñcgaṇī from the village of Dahiyāt and emerges on the plateau about a mile east of Kate's Point. This path was at no time made passable for wheels.

Water falls.

There are three chief waterfalls on and near the hill, the Liṅgamaḷā falls in the Yennā valley, the Dhobis' fall almost midway between Lodwick Point and the bazar, and the Chinamen's fall near the gardens formerly cultivated by the Chinese ticket-of-leave men. These are well worth a visit, especially in the cold weather when the volume of water is considerable.

Lingamala.

The Liṅgamaḷā falls are reached by two different routes. One is by the Sātārā road which has to be followed for about 2½ miles from the Frere Hall, when a mile more along a branch road to the left called as Liṅgamaḷā road will lead to the falls. Carriages cannot approach within a quarter of a mile and the branch road is narrow and steep everywhere. A turn to the right about three quarters of a mile from the road shows the path leading to the falls which are excellently viewed from several of its angles. The stream is here precipitated over the face of a steep cliff with a sheer descent of some 500 feet, unbroken when the torrent is swollen by rain, but ordinarily divided by projecting rocks, about one-third of the way down and scattered below into thin white streaks and spray, which are aften circled by rainbows from the oblique rays of the sun. A strong eddy of air created by the fall blows back on to the top the spray and light objects thrown over the fall. The headlong rush

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Waterfalls.

Lingamala.

and roar of the falling river Yennā; the many other streams lining with silver the steep dark sides of the chasm, as they hasten to join the foaming torrent, which far below is dashing on through masses of rock; the grandeur of the scenery, now wreathed in floating mists now bright in sunshine, combine to form a scene of the most absorbing beauty[1]. By means of an arduous scramble the very edge of the fall can be reached, though usually at the expense of a wetting. Visiting the Lingamaḷā in the morning and then in the evening is like visiting two places, for the light of day plays here picturesquely. In the orchards near the Lingamaḷā wild flowers and salad grow in abundance in the gardens neighbouring the falls. The dak bungalow of Lingamaḷā is close by. This bungalow and the falls can be reached by another carriage route along the Pooṇā road from which the road to the bungalow branches off to the right a few hundred yards east of the Kate's Point road.

A most beautiful view of the Solshī valley can be obtained by passing from what is known as the Blue Valley road[2] which connects Babington Point and the Sātārā road. The turn to the left from the Sātārā road is about a mile and half distant from Frere Hall and cannot be mistaken. The road is passable for light carriages but careful driving is required.

Dhobis' Fall.

The Dhobis' or washermen's waterfall is so named because it was formerly used by washermen. It is on a bridle path connecting the Sidney Point with the Elphinstone Point and the Old Mahābaḷeśvar road. The fall is insignificant but situated in a lovely sequestered nook and looking straight at the south side of Elphinstone Point ravine. The rocks on either side are abrupt and lofty, while there is abundance of foliage and forest to add to the beauty of the scene. It is frequented as a picnic spot.

An excellent round of the hill can be made on foot or horseback by starting along the Mahābaḷeśvar road taking the left turn to the Dhobis' waterfall and on to Sidney Point. Thence another bridle path starts south, known as From Dan to Bersheba. It crosses the Mahāḍ road and eventually reaches Bombay Point. From Bombay Point the carriage road is followed to Falkland Point, whence again the Tiger Path strikes off following the head of the Babington Point ravine and past the Chinamen's fall till Babington Point is reached. From Babington Point it passes by the Blue Valley road to the Sātārā road. The distance covered will be about twelve miles and most of the best views will have seen.

It should not be omitted to notice that the Albert road a loop branching southwards from the Sātārā road about half a mile from the Frere Hall and close to the pillar post,

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1 Murray's Bombay Handbook, 199.

2 The Blue Valley takes its name from the blue haze and shadow for which it is notable.

gives perhaps the finest panorama of the landscape west of Pratāpgaḍ to be seen on the hill. It includes the whole of the Blue Valley and the Saddleback range as far as Pratāpgaḍ.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHABALESHWAR.

Glenoval Dam Project.

To the South of the town an earthen* bund against the Glenoval stream, from the west forms an area of about three acres and 40′ in depth, which holds enough water to meet the needs of the local people and that of visitors as well.

The project is in being since 1959 and the water supply through taps has recently started. The project with an estimated cost of Rs. 7 lakhs, is being completed under the supervision of the Irrigation and Power Department of the Maharashtra State. It will be handed over to the Municipality for maintenance and use after the completion.

Due to the porous nature of the soil, water in the dam percolates to the lower portions of the hill. A big well has been bored there and the water is pumped into the dam, so that the supply of water may not at anytime fall short of needs.

Strawberry Plantations.

Entering Mahābaḷeśvar from Pāñcgaṇī side strawberry plantations attract the visitor's attention during the season. These plantations spread out from the Yennā Lake to the Liṅgamaḷā falls. Lovely Mahābaḷeśvar strawberries are wellknown for their taste and are sent out in packages to different places.

Excursions.

The places in the neighbourhood of the hill to which excursions are occasionally made are Pratāpgaḍ, Makrandgad or Saddleback, Robbers' Caves, and the Mahābaḷeśvar temples.

Pratapgad.

Pratāpgaḍ, 3,543 feet above sea level, is famous in Marāṭhā history. Early in his career it was the seat of Shivāji, the founder of the Marāṭhā Empire, and here in 1659 he met Afzal Khān, the commander of the Bijāpūr army. The fort was designed by Shivājī in 1656 and built by Moro Trimbak Piṅgḷe. For many years it was a great Marāṭhā stronghold being in ruins under the British rule but is being rescued recently. Inside is the temple of Bhavānī, Shivāji's family goddess. Chhatrapati Shivājī was a devotee of Bhavānī Devī. His sword was dedicated to this deity and at the time of battle Shivājī flourished his sword with the battle-cry *'Jai Bhavānī.'*. The great attraction of the Fort is now the elegant bronze statue of Chhatrapatī Shivājī Mahārāj on horse back which was installed in 1957 and was unveiled by Pandit Javaharlal Nehru, the Prime Minister of India. The tomb, a short distance outside of the fort, marks the spot where Afzal Khān's head was buried. Pratāpgaḍ has been made much easier of access by a good road which runs nearly the whole way, and a travellers' bungalow at Vāḍā or Ambenaḷī at the bottom of the pass where refreshments can be had and arrangements made for carrying those who find it difficult to climb the hill The Vāḍā bungalow is

* In the first instant it was proposed to put a bund in cement but the composition of the soil below being unsuitable for such construction, an earthen dam has been built.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHABALESHWAR. Excursions.

within forty minutes' walk of the fort. Fifteen villages, yielding a yearly revenue of Rs. 3,350, were granted for the maintenance of the temple of Bhavānī.[1] Though not much ravaged by the teeth of time, the elements have been somewhat unkind to it in as much as the pinnacles of two pillars, here were once struck by lightning and some years back a fire broke out at Pratāpgaḍ which brought down solid walls. These walls and the upper portions of the said pillars have been built anew in concrete. Amongst the relics to be still found at Pratāpgaḍ are a couple of *nagārās* or drums which used to announce the coming of Shivāji's armies to the fort and a flag-post on which fluttered the flag of Shivājī. Muslims gather in thousands to attend the *urus* held annually in February in honour of Afzal Khān.

Makrandgad. Makrandgaḍ perhaps the sweet or pleasant hill, and known as the Saddleback, stands on the left of Pratāpgaḍ in the village of Ghoṇaspūr, about five miles south-west of Mahābaleshvar. The hill, which is sparsely covered with timber, is 4,054 feet above sea level or 500 feet higher than Pratāpgaḍ. It is unfortified and has on the top a pond and a temple. The chief attraction is its wide view, which on a clear day includes much of the Koṅkaṇ and a long stretch of sea coast. The paths up the hill are steep, and here and there narrow and bordered by precipices.[2].

Parut. Pārūt in the Koynā Valley, five or six miles beyond Babington Point, is reached by an excellent footpath and has a good supply of pig, deer, peafowl, junglefowl and spurfowl. About ten miles further at a place called Bāmṇolī, or at Tāmbī, five miles beyond, bear and *sāmbar* are found. In going to Bāmṇolī it is usual to drive to Meḍhā and then ride over the hill about seven miles along a good bridle path.

Chandu. Cāndā, a small hill in the direction of Pratāpgaḍ and about five miles from the bazar, is occasionally visited by sportsmen. It is surrounded by a dense forest, which generally contains some of the larger wild animals.

Kamalgad. Kamalgaḍ. a small hill north of Kate's Point on the opposite side of the Kṛshṇā valley, 4,511 feet above sea level, can be reached either by a pony-cart or on horseback as far as Kate's Point and thence on foot. A good walker can reach the top of the hill in about two hours. Pigs are generally plentiful in April and May, and small deer and spurfowl are abundant at all seasons. About twenty-five beaters are required. It is best to send some one who knows the place a day in advance to make ready booths or *mānḍavs*, and to find out from the villagers what game is about and where it is to be found.

Robbers' Cave. Another place occasionally visited is *Shin Shin Ghaṭ* or the Robbers' Cave, about four miles south-east of the station. The best way to get to it is to ride or drive about a mile beyond Babington Point, taking the left hand road. After this a footpath, chiefly used by

[1] Details of Pratapgad are given below under Pratapgad.
[2] Details of Makrandgad are given below under Makrandgad.

the Dhāvaḍs of Mālusār, leads to a rocky plain on one side of which is the cave. There are many stories about this cave. Some Hindus consider it an ancient abode of the giants, while others assert that it was made as a chapel by the *Ṛshis* or seers. Others again say that the cave is the work of Dhāvaḍs who dug it to get the laterite stones they used in making iron. The objection to this last story is that as laterite is found on the surface it is difficult to see what the Dhāvaḍ gained by mining. The length of the cave is about 150 feet, the mouth about ten feet wide and high enough for a man to enter without stooping. In the middle it becomes considerably lower. A few years ago the cave is said to have been a tunnel about 500 feet long. It is gradually being filled by clay left by the rainy season floods. The cave is seldom or never entered by the villagers, as the thick forest round is infested by wild animals which, no doubt, frequently resort to the cave. The natives call it *Shin Shin Ghaḷ* or the *Shin Shin* passage. What *Shin Shin* means is not known.

At the upper part of a small wooded ravine about midway between the Sindolā range and the road leading to Kate's Point from the Pāñcgaṇī road is another Robbers' cave smaller than the above but better known and more often visited.

About Arthur's seat, *sāmbar* are found during the greater part of the cold and hot seasons. Owing to the thick undergrowth, principally *kāṅci*, it is most difficult to beat them out. One hundred beaters are necessary, and even then the *sāmbars* often break back. Small deer and spurfowl are plentiful here as on most parts of the hill.

During March and April there is some bush quail shooting about four miles from the station on the Pāñcgaṇī road and on the Sātārā road from Liṅgamāḷā onwards.

Temples.

The temple of Mahābaḷeshvar which gives its name to the station is situated 4,385 feet above sea level in old Mahābaḷeshvar two and a half miles north of the bazar. Near the main temple of Mahābaḷeshvar are two other temples, one dedicated to Kṛshṇābāī or the river Kṛshṇā and another to Atibaḷeshvar or Vishṇu. Mahābaḷeshvar and Kṛshṇābāī are held in more esteem than Vishṇu and their temples are more costly.

The temple of Mahābaḷeshvar is surrounded by a stone wall about five feet high. In the centre the temple, built of black trap and supported on stone pillars, consists of two apartments, a small inner room for the god and a larger outer room for the worshippers. The temple of Kṛshṇābāī which is also of trap, is larger than the temple of Mahābaḷeshvar and of a different shape. It consists of *Khaṇs* or arches on three sides with an open space in the centre, the whole somewhat resembling a theatre. The fourth or northern side is formed by a high stone wall, at the base of which. about three feet apart, are five holes out of which water flows; these are supposed to be the five rivers Kṛshṇā, Koynā, Yeṇṇā, Gāyatrī and Sāvitrī, which, after running for about ten feet, unite and fall through the mouth

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
MAHABALESHWAR.
Temples.

of a carved stone cow into a cistern, and overflowing the cistern fill a second reservoir. The upper cistern in former days was used for bathing by Hindus of the higher castes and the second by Hindus of the lower classes. There is no written information regarding the building and cost of these temples. But from local inquiries, it appears that they have been in existence from remote times, and that about 300 years ago they were rebuilt and thoroughly repaired by the wealthy Sātārā banker Parashurām Nārāyaṇ Aṅgaḷ[1]. Repairs at a cost of about Rs. 15,000 were carried out in 1875, when a corrugated iron roof was placed over the temple of Kṛshṇābāī by the then Chief of Jamkhinḍī.

The village is regarded by Hindus as a *tirth* or sacred pool, as people come to it to perform religious rites. The Brāhmaṇ priests and temple servants who form the bulk of the inhabitants earn a considerable revenue. The god Shiv has an endowment granted by late Rājā of Sātārā, which is administered by an agent appointed for the purpose. Besides frequent gatherings on all religious festivals, yearly fairs are held in honour of the two chief deities, and are largely attended by all classes of Hindus.

The traditional origin of these temples is that two *rākshas* or demon brothers named Mahābaḷ and Atibaḷ, bitter enemies of the Brāhmaṇs and their gods, were so powerful and warlike that they disturbed the devotions of the Brāhmaṇs and harassed the people. The Brāhmaṇs appealed to Vishṇu who came and killed the younger brother Atibaḷ. Enraged at the death of his brother, Mahābaḷ challenged the god to single combat. They fought so long that Vishṇu became exhausted and sought the help of the goddess of enchantment. She cast a spell over the giant so that he ceased fighting and promised to grant any favour the god should ask of him. The favour asked by the god was the death of Mahābaḷ. As Mahābaḷ had pledged his word, this favour had to be granted, and the gods began to cut the giant in pieces without his offering any resistance. Struck with admiration Shiv offered to fulfil any of his dying wishes. Several requests were made and granted, the chief being that Shiv and Vishṇu should take the names of the giant and his brother, and that in memory of their fight their temples should be called Mahābaḷeshvar and Atibaḷeshvar.

There are three yearly festivals or *ustsavs* at the temples, Kṛshṇābāi's and *Navrātra* in honour of the river Kṛshṇā, and *Shivrātra* in honour of Mahābaḷeshvar. Kṛshṇābāi's fair begins on the first day of the bright half of *Phālgun* (February-March) and lasts for five days the *Navarātra* begins on the first day of the bright half of *Ashvin* (September-October) and lasts for ten days; and *Shivrātra* begins on the twelfth day of the dark half of *Māgh* (February-March) and lasts for seven days. To meet the cost of these fairs and other

[1] According to a local story Parashuram Narayan Angal was a Satara beggar who suddenly discovering a large treasure became a banker and spent his money in building temples, rest houses, and wells in the Satara district Lady Falkland's Chow Chow, II 31. *See below* Pateshvar.

Temples.

expenses in connection with the temples a sum of Rs. 150 was sanctioned from the revenue of the endowed village of Kāśri. Private contributions are collected if the amount falls short. While these fairs last, from Rs. 200-300 are spent on the observance of such religious rites as *prayojan purāṇ* and *Kirtan* or *Kathā*. The amount sanctioned for the performance of these rites is about Rs. 175, and the excess is met from fund raised on the occasion.

At the *Navrātra* there are scarcely any strangers. On the two other occasions from about 1,000 to 1,500 people gather from the neighbouring villages in the Jāvḷī and Wāī talukas of Sātārā, and from the nearer villages of the Mahāḍ taluka of Kolābā. People from Pooṇā and Nāśik and from the more distant parts of the Deccan and of Northern India, especially *Bairāgis* and *Fakirs,* may also sometimes be seen and occasionally Parsees and Musalmāns are attracted for the sake of amusement or from curiosity. Of these visitors those who live close at hand return the same evening, and those who dwell farther off remain till the close of the fair. These are accommodated either in Kṛshṇābāī's shrine or in the houses of priests, most of whom hold papers from the ancestors of the pilgrims appointing them their hereditary religious guides. The only rites performed by the pilgrims are bathing in the sacred waters of the Pañchgaṅgā and worshipping the principal images. Rich pilgrims sometimes give feasts and dinners to Brāhmaṇs. Except the petty shopkeepers and Māḷīs of Malcolm Peth few traders open stalls at these fairs. The articles offered for sale are of the commonest sort, glass bangles, earthen toys, dry dates, cocoanuts, potatoes, guavas, plantains, and other ordinary fruit and raw sugar and sweetmeats. The other temples at Mahābaḷeshvar are those of Shri Rām, Shri Hanumān, Shri Shaṅkar, Shri Viṭṭhal and Shri Dattātraya.

Parks.

The Pratāpsinh Park situated near the Yeṇṇā Lake is under the management of the Forest department. The park is very well laid out and has a herbarium. The Seṭh Gaṅgādhar Mākharia Garden is under the municipal management and has a children's corner and a radio set for public listening.

People.

The local people of Mahābaḷeshvar proper and of the near about areas are Marāṭha, Dhāvaḍ, Dhangar and Koḷi. With the exception of a few wealthy permanent residents, mostly traders, the main bulk of the population is from moderate to poor. People living in the bazar occupy tenements with light and air not always in plenty, yet the fresh air generally prevailing on the station is energising food in itself. The atmosphere is so dry and cool, except during the monsoon, that it seldom makes one feel fatigued.

The local people at Mahābaḷeshvar follow a number of occupations most of which are centred round the needs of the visitors. Thus there are shoe-makers (shoe-making is a flourishing indigenous industry in Mahābaḷeshvar), fruit and vegetable vendors and grocers storekeepers, cloth-merchants, chemists, dhangars and ponywallas, *bamboo* stick makers etc. Then there are the Government servants,

CHAPTER 19. — Places. MAHABALESHWAR. People.

the staff of the Posts and Telegraphs, Buildings and Communications Department, the Superintendent's office, the Mahalkari's Office etc. Finally, among the resident inhabitants come the hotel keepers. Mahābaḷeshvar being a fine hill-station hotels have an important place in the economic life of the people.

For conveyance Mahābaḷeshvar has a small number of bicycles and private cars are seen during the season. The State Transport Authority provides bus service during the season to take the visitors to near about places on the hill station. However, with all this a ride on a horse remains a pleasure by itself.

Holiday Camp.

A fairly long stay at Mahābaḷeshvar is a luxury which middle class people cannot afford. For the benefit of these people tenements known as Holiday Camp have been erected in the premises of the old Government House. The Holiday Camp at Mahābaḷeshvar has 58 tenements in all which are divided into three classes. For reservation an application is to be made to the Director of Tourism, Sachivalaya, Bombay, and a deposit is to be paid. The amount of deposit is Rs. 10 for the first and second class and Rs. 5 for the third class. All the tenements are provided with bathroom and electricity and also with necessary utensils and furniture. Food is also served to those who desire. The rates have been fixed according to the class. The scheme has become very popular and people are taking advantage in increasing numbers.

The Tourist Bureau at Mahābaḷeshvar gives information regarding the various facilities available to the visitors of Mahābaḷeshvar and co-ordinates the work of the travel agencies, State Transport, hotel owners, housing agents and Holiday Camp authorities, etc., for the benefit of the visitors.

MAHIMANDANGAD.

Mahimanḍangaḍ (Javḷi T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 25′ E; RS. Sātārā Road, 28 m. SW;) in Jāvḷi was a small fort on the top of a hill called by the same name, rising about 600 feet above the valley, and situated in the small village of Sindī eleven miles west of Bāṇmolī and close to the south of the Āmbolī pass bullock track. The fort was easy of ascent from Sindi. It is not more than about ten acres in extent and was but little used as it is commanded on all sides by other hills. In 1880, except some light broken down walls and a pond, little of the fort remained. At present nothing remains of the fort except the broken foundation and the hill-top is not inhabited.

MAHIMANGAD. FORT.

Mahimāngaḍ Fort (Māṇ T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 25′ E; RS. Koregāṅv 20 m. W; p. 3,591), in Māṇ lies within the village limits of Sindi Budruk about five and a half miles west of Dahivaḍī. The easiest way to it is by the Sātārā-Paṇḍharpūr road to a point about half a mile west of the pass descending into the lower parts of the Māṇ taluka. From this point a broad track branches off northwards to the fort which lies not more than half a mile from the road. There are three hamlets close on the north of the fort which towers about 250 feet above them. It consists of a flat nearly triangular table land with the apex to the east surmounting a perpendicular scarp of black

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAHIMANGAD FORT.

trap below which are steep slopes of short grass with a little soil. The sides are overgrown in places with prickly pear especially on the north-west corner. The ascent should be made from the second hamlet which will be encountered on approaching the Paṇḍharpūr road from the north-west. A path about five feet wide with rude steps at intervals of almost every yard takes to the fort. A steep walk of about five minutes leads up to the gateway, the immediate approach to which is in places almost blocked by prickly pear. The path which leads up the side in a south-east direction here takes a turn at nearly right angles to the south-west. But before entering, the visitor will probably go some fifteen yards further to see a small tank cut in the rock, the site of an excellent spring always full of water and furnishing the neighbouring hamlets with their hot weather supply. The gateway has been cut in the scarp about thirty feet below the summit. The passage cut is about six feet wide but the gateway narrows to about five feet. It consisted as usual of a single pointed arch about seven feet high of well cut masonry the top of which has fallen in. Inside are twenty-two rock-cut steps which wind through a right angle and lead to the top facing east. The inner side of the curve is as usual protected and the way up the steps proportionately narrowed by a curtain of solid masonry. On emerging on the top and proceeding east along the north face of the fort on right hand is a small hillock on which stood the office now in ruins. A little further on is a water tank thirty feet square. originally built of well cut masonry, but now a great deal fallen in. Near it are two small tanks lined with cement for the storage either of grain or water, and to the south of these is a large pit roughly hewn out of the rock, perhaps intended for prisoners as in Vārugaḍ. About fifty yards further east is a turret of considerable size the masonry of which is solid and on which a gun was planted. This turret stretches right across the fort but underneath it on the southern side is an archway about four feet high by two broad. But creeping through it is reached the eastern end which tapers off nearly to a point. The fort is about a hundred yards long by forty wide. The walls are about five or six feet high and the masonry, except the top layer, is in fair preservation. At the east end is one, and at the west end are two bastions at the north-west and south-west angles. Originally all three were crowned with guns and there are still remains of parapets on them. On the east bastion is a small stone placed erect for a *liṅg* and worshipped as the image of the god Jājārnāth Mahādev. A small fair is held in honour of the god and the existence of this shrine explains how the path up to the fort is in good order. There is also a ruined building of loose stones near the south-west bastion in honour of some Muhammedan saint or *pīr*.

History.

Mahimāngaḍ is expressly mentioned as one of the chain forts built by Chhatrapati Shivājī to guard his eastern frontier. But some of the local residents declare that the fort existed in Musalmān times and point to the *pīr* shrine as evidence. This shrine however proves nothing since there are many such unfortified hills with shrines. The masonry is characteristic of the later built

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHIMANGAD FORT. History.

forts of Marāṭhā times consisting of small, almost or altogether, uncut stones bound by mortar usually poor but, at the bastions and entrance, of good sound quality. On the same spur about a hundred yards east of the fort is a hill which barely commands it and is connected with it by a neck of the spur. The hamlets at the feet are not walled or protected in any way so that the approach within 250 feet of the top must have been easy enough. To escalade it however must have been difficult though at the south-east corner by no means impossible. The hereditary garrison consisted of about seventy-five Rāmoshis and Mahārs who held the *gaḍkari inām* lands. The fort had lands assigned for it. The *havāldār* or former commander of the garrison is now the *pāṭil* and the sabnis or accountant is the *Kulkarṇi* of the lands which are for purposes of administration as a distinct village called by the name of the fort.

MAHULI.

Māhuli (Sātārā T; 17° 40′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Koregāṅv 8 m. NE., P. 624.), also called Saṅgam Māhulī from its position at the meeting of the Kṛshṇā and the Yennā, is a holy town in great local note about three miles east of Sātārā. The town is divided into two parts, Kṣetra Māhulī on the east bank of the Kṛshṇā[1] and Saṅgam Māhulī on the west bank of the Kṛshṇā the property of the Pant Pratinidhi by whose family most of the Māhulī temples were built in the eighteenth century. These temples,[2] which form the chief objects of interest at Māhulī, are ten in number and are built almost on or about the river bank. Descending the river the first is the temple of Rādhāshaṅkar on the east bank of the Kṛshṇā in the limits of Kṣetra Māhulī. The temple stands on the Girī Ghaṭ a long and handsome stone platform built by one Bāpū Bhaṭ Govind Bhat about 1780. The temple is built of basalt and consists of a shrine and a vestibule which may here be described as a verandah supported by three small horse-shoe scollopped arches. The dome is of brick and almost conical in shape. It is broken up into gradually lessening rows of stucco ornamentation in which are niches filled with images. On each side of the entrance is a lamp-pillar or *dīpmāḷ*. The temple was built about 1825 by Tāi Sāheb Sachiv of the Pant Sachiv family of the former princely state of Bhor.

Temples.

The second, also on the east bank of the Kṛshṇā, is the temple of Bilveshvar built about 1742, by Shripatrāv Pant Pratinidhi. The temple consists of a vestibule (18′×18′×11′) and a shrine (10′ 9″×10′ 6″×13′). The vestibule has no opening but a low door close to which is the Nandī. The roof is supported by a few pillars each of which is in alternate courses square, round or octagonal. The sides gradually contract by a series of offsets which run up nearly to the top of the dome so that the back wall is only five or six feet long. Except the upper part of the dome which is of brick covered and

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[1] The Krishna is crossed near Mahuli by a flying bridge and the steep descent on its east bank is obviated by a good winding pavement or *ghat*.

[2] The temple accounts are from the MSS. of the late Mr. E. H. Little, C. S., formerly Assistant Collector, Satara. Compare Chesson and Woodhall's Bombay Miscellany, 1: 303–04.

ornamented with stucco, the temple is built of gray stone and bears a very solid appearance. Over the bull near the vestibule door is a square stone canopy apparently later than the temple and supported on each side by a broad low pointed arch. In front of the temple are a few tombs of ascetics and further beyond is the *ghāṭ* or winding pavement and flights of steps leading to the river built in 1738 by Ānandrav Bhivrāv Deshmukh Aṅgāpurkar. The third, also on the east bank of the Kṛshṇā but at some distance from the first two as also from Māhulī village, is a large temple dedicated to Rāmeshvar and built about A. D. 1700 by Parashurām Nārāyan Aṅgaḷ of Degāṅv. Looking at it from the opposite or west bank the chief objects of note are the very fine flights of thirty-five steps leading up to it from the river-bed. One flight with its broad platform was begun by the last Peshvā Bājīrāv II. (1796-1817), but never finished. Though forming part of the whole structure, it would lead, if finished, rather to the side of the temple than to the temple itself. The other flight begins nearly where the first leaves off, and at an angle to it, and is said to be the work of Parashurām Aṅgaḷ. Half-way up it on either side is a small cloister of two arches, which would be perfectly circular but for a small niche in the keystone. The roof is domed and formed by concentric layers of stone, each projecting over the below and so diminishing in circumference till only a small hole is left enough to admit one stone. At the top of the steps are two lamp-pillars one on either side of which, only one is in good condition at present and on the right is a small shrine with a three-faced image of Dattātraya. In front is a bull with his face towards the door of the vestibule. He is very richly ornamented with chains and bells. Between his feet is a small *ling* overshadowed by the cobra with two worshipping women. The canopy is supported at the corners by pillars which are square and round or octagonal in alternative courses. Above is a low octagonal dome on two courses, the lower plain, the upper with a few figures. Above this again is a representation of the lotus, but the stucco has fallen off. The doorway consists of a stone porch supported on half pillars. The vestibule is very small and is entered by a low door. There are three domes, the lowest is over the vestibule, the next comes a little higher, and the third adjoining it is the highest. All the domes are of brick and stucco surmounted by a representation of the lotus. Behind the temple is a cloister of five arches now not in good repairs. A small door leads into the shrine with five small figures in black basalt. The central figures are Shiv and Pārvatī. At one end is an upright Hanumān with hands clasped together.

The fourth temple of Saṅgameshvar Mahādev is, as its name shows, close to the *saṅgam* or junction of the two rivers, on the west bank of the Kṛshṇā and the north bank of the Yennā and nearly opposite the Bilveshvar temple. From the bank of the Kṛshṇā two flights of steps lead up to the courtyard wall in which is a small door opening into the quadrangular court in which lies the temple. It consists of a small open verandah with a roughly executed painting of Lakshmī and a vestibule and shrine. In front is the sacred bull under a canopy resting on four pillars. The breadth

CHAPTER 19. Places. MAHULI. Temples.

at the back is gradually diminished by a series of offsets which are carried up into the dome. The architecture is pure Hindu. The pillars are round or octagonal and square in alternate courses, and the roof is formed of long stones which stretch diagonally from pillar to pillar so as to form a series of lozenge or diamond shaped spaces, filled in with square stones of smaller size. There are good flying buttresses to the platform of the sacred bull and the top of the dome. Like Bilveshvar the body of the building is of basalt and the dome of brick and stucco. It is said to have been built by Shripatrāv Pant Pratinidhi about 1740. Just below this temple and at the actual junction of the rivers is a triangular plot of ground occupied by tombs built over the burial places of an ascetic named Banshāpurī and his disciples. The largest, under which the ascetic himself is said to be buried, is an octagonal building of gray basalt, surmounted by a low dome. The sides are open, and the triangular heads of the openings are scollopped and richly carved above; a broad ledge is carried round supported on elegant scrolls. Inside is a *ling* and sacred bull. The next in size is square with a horse-shoe opening about six feet high and carved pilasters on each side. The dome is of brick, plastered and fluted. Inside are a *ling* and bull. The third is a mere canopy with fluted dome and supported on square pillars over the *ling* and bull..

The fifth, the largest of the Māhulī temples on the south bank of the Yennā at its meeting with the Kṛshṇā is dedicated to Vishveshvar Mahādev and is said to have been built by Shripatrāv Pant Pratinidhi about 1735. It is of basalt and enclosed by an irregular shaped court-yard open on the river side, from which it is approached by a flight of steps. The high platform on which it is raised, the low colonnade which runs round the greater part of it, the short thick pillars in alternate courses of round octagonal and square, the lozenge-figured stone roof, the breadth increasing from the front by offsets and then decreasing in a similar way behind, all show that it is a building purely Hindu in architecture. The length from back to front is about fifty feet, and the breadth varies from twenty feet to five feet. The interior consists of a vestibule with images of Gaṇapatī and Lakshmī and a marble shrine. The dome is of brick and stucco. The squareness of the form in this and other domes of this time contrasts with the round domes of a later period Animals are carved in the capitals of the pillars and the cornices. The sacred bull is on the usual plat form surmounted by a canopy and octagonal dome, the niches of which are filled with mythological figures, and are divided from each other by figures of men on elephants. On two sides of the court-yard are cloisters with broad low pointed arches and square pillars; they are either meant to serve for cooking purposes or are hostelries for visitors. On another side is a similar unfinished building with narrower and more pointed arches. At the entrance of the vestibule is a fine bell apparently with no writing but the date 1744 in English figures. The bell was probably taken by the Marāṭhās from some Portuguese church in the Koṅkaṇ after the capture of Bassein in 1739. At the back of the Vishveshvar temple and very inferior to it in every

MAHULI.
Temples.

respect is a basalt temple of Rāmchandra said to have been built in 1772 by Trimbak Vishvanāth Peṭhe usually called Māmā Peṭhe a distinguished general under the fourth Peshvā Mādhavrāv (1761-1772) and the maternal uncle of Sadāshivrāv Bhāū. It is very small and consists merely of a verandah and a shrine with brass figures of Rām, Lakshmaṇ, and Sītā. The wall behind them is panelled with broad low arches and painted with flowers. The dome consists of only two polygonal courses. There are five other small temples in Māhulī. The temple of Viṭhobā was built by Jotipant Bhāgvat of Ciñcner about A. D. 1730. It originally consisted of a small verandah with carved wooden pillars opening into the shrine by a low Muhammedan arch. A hall or vestibule with wooden pillars and door all round was added in about 1860. The roof is hung with lamps. Bhairavdev's is a small temple consisting of a shrine and open vestibule or verandah with three small arches. It was built about 1770 by one Krishṇambhaṭ Tāḷke and a hall with wooden pillars, as in the temple of Viṭhobā, has been recently added to it. The other three temples are one of Kṛshṇābāī and another of Kṛshṇeshvar Mahādev built in 1754 and 1790 by Krishṇā Dikshit Chipḷūṇkar; and a temple on the right of the Sātārā road with a handsome flight of steps begun by one of the Sātārā Rāṇīs in 1865. Besides these temples Māhulī has on each side of the road leading to the ferry several tombs or cenotaphs to members of the royal family of Sātārā and others[1]. One or two of these have some simple but handsome stone carving[2].

History.

Māhulī was the birth place of Rām Shāstrī Prabhuṇe the famous spiritual and political adviser of the fourth Peshvā Mādhavrāv (1761-1772).

An open plot, once inhabited by him, has been given to the gram-panchayat and in his memory the building will be named after him.

Māhulī was the scene of an interview between the last Peshvā Bājīrāv (1796-1817) and Sir John Mālcolm just before war was declared against him and during his wandering he constantly returned to Māhulī.

Many fairs are held at Māhulī Especially the one held on the last Monday of *Shrāvan* and on the Mahāshivarātri day attracts more than 10,000 people. Māhulī is considered as one of the most sacred places by the Hindus.

MAKRANDGAD.

Makrandguḍ (Mahābaḷeśvar Peṭa 17° 55′ N. 73° 35 E, RS. Wāṭhār, 52 m.) 4054 feet above sea level, well known to Mahābaḷeśvar visitors as the Saddleback, is a hill fort situated as the crow flies

[1] The illustrious dead from Sātārā and the neighbouring villages are brought for cremation to Māhulī.

[2] One tomb with the figure of a sitting dog is said to mark the burial place of a favourite dog of Raja Shahu (1707-1749). It was a black greyhound and saved Shahu's life by its furious barking, which called the king's attention to a tiger which was in the act of springing on him. A palanquin establishment was kept up for him. Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol I, 441; Lady Falkland's Chow Chow, II, 31-32; Murray's Bombay Handbook, 275.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

MAKRANDGAD.

seven miles south-west of Malcolm Peṭh. It is well named the Saddleback and consists of two flattened humps with a ridge between them[1]. From almost any part of the western face of the hill between Bombay and Bābiṅgton points it forms a fine object in the magnificent pile of hills varying in form and colour which form the south-west group. It is perhaps best seen from Sassoon Point where several peaks and ridges in the background serve for contrast and throw it into strong relief. It is about 650 feet lower than the Mahābaḷeśvar plateau, but to reach the summit it is necessary to walk from ten to twelve miles and descend about 1,800 feet into the Koynā valley. The easiest way is to take a path beyond Gavaḷaṇī Point which descends by Devḷī village whence after crossing the Koynā a fairly gradual ascent leads to the village of Ghoṇaspūr lying on a shoulder of the hill at the south-east corner of the scarp. The line of the ridge is north-west south-east. The south-east hump is scalable but the north-west very difficult to climb, if possible. On the south-east hump is a temple of Mallikārjun built by Chhatrapati Shivājī and an unused spring. The fort walls are broken down and appear not to have been very strong at any time. The local story about this as about other Sātārā forts is that it was built by Chhatrapatī Shivājī probably about 1656 at the same time as Pratāpgaḍ. It was a fort of minor importance as it commanded none of the important passes, but it served as a link in the chain between Vāsoṭā and Pratāpgaḍ. It was surrendered by private negotiation on 14th may 1818 at the same time as Pratāpgaḍ[2].

MALA.

Mālā (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 15′ N, 73° 40′ E; RS Karāḍ 52 m. NE; p. 195), a small village sixteen miles south-west of Pāṭaṇ on a plateau at the very edge of the Sahyādris, gives its name to a very favourite pass which connects the port of Saṅgameśvar in Ratnāgiri with the Sātārā district. The road from Pāṭaṇ is by the Kumbhārlī metalled road as far as the Yerāḍ ferry, then by Morgirī on to Kokisri, whereafter a long spur is climbed by an easy ascent. A ten miles level path along the spur leads to Mālā. The path crosses a small ridge about a mile from Mālā and the camping ground adjoins a temple situated in a shallow basin of rice and flat lands surrounded by rounded tops of the neighbouring hills. A mile's walk over nearly dead level ground leads to the edge of the pass from where, on clear days a fine view as far as the sea is obtainable. There are a few bison and *Sāmbar* in this neighbourhood, but to beat the forest a very large number of men and two or three guns are required. In October, and, if the monsoon is late, after the first fall of thundershowers, there is a fair chance of falling in with game by stalking in the early morning. The Mālā forests are not good for bear, but tigers occasionally roam in the neighbourhood. The climate in the hot weather is pleasant and the ascent at Kokisri once made easy a fair weather track for carts and rough carriages, would easily be maintained. The bullock traffic is chiefly along another spur from

[1] A view of the fort with its two flattened humps is given in Chesson and Woodhall's Bombay Miscellany, I, 177.

[2] Pendhari and Maratha War Papers, 343.

Ḍhebevāḍī, a village in the Vāṅg valley. The ascent is not much steeper than at Kokisrī and the ten miles of track along the ridge by Pāṇeri and Humbarṇī are equally easy. These two villages as well as Pāñcgaṇī on the other route are good places for bear and *sāmbar* shooting. There is also a track to Heḷvāk but this is less used and the ascent at Nāv is exceedingly steep.

MALAVADI

Mālavaḍī, (Māṇ T; 17° 00′ N, 73° 55′ E; RS. Koregāṅv 18 m. SW; p. 2,000), near the head of the Māṇ river, is a village in the Māṇ taluka, seven miles north-west of Dahivaḍī. There is some tolerable land near the village and river, but low rock hills close the village in on three sides, and at a very little distance from the village the ground is very broken and the country rugged and wild. The village has walls with gates flanked with bastions on the north and south between which is the market street lined with shops. There is only a small local traffic, but in Marāṭhā times Mālavaḍī was the home of the Ghāṭges, one of the most influential Marāṭhā families. The Ghāṭges were *Deshmukhs* and *Sardeshmukhs* of Māṇ and their Chief had a *mansab* or command of horse or some equivalent dignity under the Bahamani dynasty. The title of *Sardeshmukh* was given them then in 1626 when it was bestowed on Nāgojī Ghāṭge as an unconditional favour by the sixth Bijāpūr king Ibrāhim Ādil Shah (1580-1626), together with the title of *Jhunjhār Rāv*. The great ancestor of the family was Rām Rājā Ghāṭge who had a small *mansab* under the Bahamanis. From that period the Ghāṭges were notorious for their family feuds. They held *inām* and *jāgir* lands under the Bijāpūr government immediately subject to the control of the *mokāsādār* or district administrator and served it with a body of horse[1]. In 1657, when Auraṅgzeb attacked Bijāpūr. Sarjerāv Ghāṭge joined the Bijāpūr general Khān Muhammad with his troops[2]. Shivājī captured the place soon after his coronation but Ghāṭge's recovered it from him for the king of Bijāpūr[3]. On Dilerkhān's approach to the south, Mālavāḍi and the territory round came to be claimed by the Moghals. About 1680 the *Deshmukhi* claims of Mālāvaḍī were given by them to the Brāhmaṇ Deshmukhs of Khaṭāv. When returned to the Ghāṭges on their submission they were placed under the Brāhmaṇ's surveillance. Moghal suzerainty over the territory was nominal. The Ghāṭges were plundering without stint over the whole district up to Malkāpūr near Panhāḷā, although Auraṅgzeb's army was within forty miles of them.

MANDHARDEV.

Māndhārdev (Wāī T; 18° 05′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 28 m.) is a point on the Mahādev range lying six miles north of Wāī. It crowns a long plateau which is easily reached by the bridle path known as Phayre's road from Wāī on the south whence the ascent is eight miles, from the Shirval on the north whence the ascent is thirteen, or from the west by Bāleghāṭ about ten miles by a road

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 70.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 123.

[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 208.

CHAPTER 19. Places. MANDHARDEV.

made from the top of the Khambâṭakī pass. All these roads were made at about the same time when it was intended to make Māndhārdev a health resort for troops.

A *kaccha* road to the hill, of about 11 miles, has been recently laid, which connects Poonā-Sātārā high-way, two miles south of Sirvaḷ The road for most of the part passes through green cultivated lands save on bare and rocky heaths where winds are hot and dry. State Transport bus service is conducted between Sirvaḷ and village Loham about two miles to the east of the hill. About one mile hence, immediately below the hill is a group of huts or a settlement of local people. After climbing the first steep ridge by a bridle-path, the stones of old steps though not all in their proper positions, make the climb safe though strenuous. At about half the height, the path turns to the north and runs along the east shoulder of the hill. Here, facing east, is a small temple dedicated to God Mārutī. Walking some distance in the same direction a plateau is reached from where the path runs westward and climbs up the hill in stages or in series of flat long strips of high lands one overlooking the other. Large number of visitors, at the time of fair held on the full moon of Paush, resort to these parts for camping.

This plateau is about a mile long and generally about half a mile wide looking down some 2,000 feet on the north and west to the Bhor territory and the Khaṇḍāḷā petā and about 1,500 on the south towards Wāī. A small dip on the west contained a rest-house, garden, and water cistern built by Tāī Sāheb Sachiv. To the west again of the dip is the plateau of Yerulī, similar to Māndhārdev and about four miles long. The height above sea-level of the Māndhārdev peak is 4510′. There are traces of the road made by Government when the health resort was under consideration. The hill is very bare, the slope on all sides for about a hundred feet down being under cultivation. The only exception is an Añjan grove which surrounds a temple of Devī. A small rock-cut pond immediately below the main hill has three compartments one for drinking, another for bathing and the third for washing. But the water contained is safe for none. About 125 well-laid and broad steps lead to the upper hill covered with thick growth of large trees. The temple of Māndhārdevi is unimposing and old fashioned. It was built in honour of Kā'ubāī or Kāleshvari Devī, the patron goddess of the village. The idol has two silver masks and some garments. About 1850 a spire was added to the temple. It was rennovated again in 1935. The shrine is said to be very old but the temple has been repaired on few occasions in the past. The inner vestibule measures about 20′ × 15′ while the pendal in front is about 25′ × 30′. In the precinct are built, perhaps for the use of pilgrims, in enormous blocks of local stone, some platforms large enough to accommodate score of persons.

MASUR.

Masūr (Karāḍ T; 17° 20′ N, 74° 10′ E; RS; p. 5,814) in Karāḍ is a village lying on the left bank of a stream at the junction of the Karāḍ-Tārgāñv and Umbraj-Paṇḍharpūr roads four miles east of

Umbraj and eight miles north of Karāḍ. The village obtains a copious water-supply from the stream on which it lies. The surrounding land is most of it excellent black soil with unusual facilities for irrigation by water-lifts and small dams yielding some of the best wheat crops in the Karāḍ taluka. The village has one main street running west to east with an open space at the west end which serves for a market. To the north of this market was a large building with the remains of a wall about twenty feet high with corner bastions. The walls enclosed a space of about two acres and contained a large mansion in the local style with a two-storeyed building in the east, a quadrangle in the middle centre, and stabling in the west. This was formerly the head-quarters office of the Tārgāṅv sub-division which reached as far west as Heḷvāk. Before this Masūr was a mud fort under the Pratinidhi, and in 1806 the Pant Pratinidhi Parashurām Shrinivās was confined here, shut up by the last Peshvā Bājīrāv and his mother who was backed up by Baḷvantrāv Phaḍṇis, the *Mutālik* or deputy. Bāpū Gokhale was sent to enforce submission, and for a time the country was quiet, but shortly afterwards Tāī Teliṇ an oilwoman, mistress of the Pratinidhi collected a force in Vāsoṭā, descended on Masūr, carried it, and released the Pratinidhi. But Gokhale came back and succeeded in taking the Pratinidhi prisoner.[1]

At present nothing remains of the old mud fort, not even the traces of its walls. A two-storeyed primary school constructed recently under the Block Development Scheme occupies some of the open space, where the fort stood once. The activities carried out in the Community Development Blocks were: construction of a school building and a gymnasium, running a tailoring class and a veterinary stockman centre and payment of loan to backward class housing societies amounting to Rs. 750.

MAYANI.

Māyaṇi (Khaṭāv T; 17° 25′ N, 74° 30′ E; RS. Koregāṅv 36 m. NW; p. 4,485) lies thirteen miles south-east of Vaḍūj at the junction of the Tāsgāṅv-Mogrāḷā and Malhārpeṭh-Paṇḍharpūr roads. The town is walled and entered by gates on the west and east. The wall is in a much ruined condition at present. A tolerable water-supply is obtained from a stream which runs by the north-east of the town and falls into the Yerlā five miles south-west. The canal and most of the good soil lie to the south of the town. In places where the level of the land is too high for water to be obtained direct from the canal, it is raised by waterlifts attached to small wells dug near the canal banks and supplied by sluices from the canal.

MEDHA.

Meḍhā (Jāvḷi T; 17° 45′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS Sātārā Road 29 m. SE; p. 2,055) about fourteen miles north-west of Sātārā, is the head-quarters of the Jāvḷī taluka. Meḍhā lies about a hundred yards from the left bank of the Yennā which is crossed about a few hundred yards above by a foot bridge and has an excellent water supply in some cisterns or stone basins filled from a pipe fed by a spring in the range of hills to the north of the town. Water is scarce in hot months. There are no made roads joining this village

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 414-15.

CHAPTER 19. — Places.

to other places. Beaten tracks provide the only means of communication and even these are washed away in the rains. Lack of made-roads makes communication with other villages difficult and the village has thus remained as backward as ever.

MHASVAD.

Mhasvaḍ (Māṇ T; 17° 35′ N, 74° 45′ E; RS Koregāṅv 43 m. NW; p. 9,145), seventeen miles south-east of Dahivaḍi and about fifty-three miles east of Sātārā, is a municipal town, and in extent the largest in the Māṇ taluka. It lies on the Sātārā-Paṇḍharpūr road on the left bank of the Māṇ. Mhasvaḍ is enclosed by a ruined mud wall with corner bastions. The town has one main street running from east to west and leading to the Paṇḍharpūr road which runs round the north of the town. It is about half a mile long and thirty feet broad with on each side grain and cloth shops. A weekly market is held on Wednesday. It is an important trade centre.

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 9,149. Of this the agricultural classes number 3,796 and the non-agricultural classes 5,349; of the latter, 2,681 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 901 persons from commerce; 92 persons from transport; and 1,676 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.

Constitution.

Mhasvaḍ is a municipal town with an area of 34·05 sq. miles where municipality was established in the year 1957. It is governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. The total number of members in the municipal council is 15. Two seats are reserved for women and two seats for the Scheduled Castes. The administration is looked after by committees *viz.*, the managing, the school and the dispensary committees. The Secretary is the administrative head of the municipality.

Income and Expenditure.

For the year 1957-58, the total income of the municipality, excluding extraordinary and debt heads, amounted to Rs. 71,885; from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 53,948; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 10,340; and grants and contributions Rs. 7,597. The expenditure incurred for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 69,959; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 16,062; public safety Rs. 3,560; public health and convenience Rs. 37,581; contribution Rs. 2,557 and miscellaneous Rs. 10,199.

Water Supply.

The main source of water supply is the Māṇ river. The municipality has constructed a well and has bored small holes in the river bed. The municipality had a scheme for permanent water-supply under its consideration in 1959.

Drainage.

There is no proper drainage system. *Kaccha* guttars have been dug and water is allowed to gather in cess pools.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory and is managed by the District School Board. The municipality pays an yearly contribution of Rs. 4,300. The municipality runs a secondary school which was started in 1957.

A dispensary situated within the municipal limits receives grant-in-aid from the municipality.

The veterinary dispensary is managed by the District Local Board. The municipality pays an annual contribution of Rs. 400.

The total length of roads is 38 miles all of which are *Kaccha* roads.

There are two burial places on the south side of the Mhasvaḍ *Gāoṭhāṇ*.

There is a park maintained by the municipality.

Temples. *Nath Temple.*

Near the west entrance of the town in the north side of the street is the temple of Shiddhanāth usually called Nāth. The original structure is evidently ancient and recoursed. The *gābhārā* or image-chamber, with an internal area of 20′ by 20′ but outside about 30′ by 30′ is of the star shape and built of gray basalt. It contains images of Nāth and his wife Jogāi in human form. The walls are ten feet high. The original unmortared blocks have been replaced by smaller ones in mortar but the old shape has been retained. The spire, thirty feet high is of brick and lime with a series of octagonal concentric storeys. The *manḍap* has a vestibule about 6′ by 6′ the walls of which are in black basalt and have a wainscot of carved stone figures. This leads into a *manḍap*, an oblong structure (30′ × 30′) with a roof ten feet high. In the centre are four of the ancient pillars in the usual octagonal cylindrical and rectangular courses excellently carved and moulded. The whole is on a plinth four feet high. Outside this is a modern court about fifty feet square enclosed on three sides by rude verandahs of stone and mud with wooden pillars. On the wall of the western verandah is embedded a large black stone on which is a very plainly written Kānarese inscription. Every evening *Purāṇās* are read here by a Brāhman. On the fourth or southern side is a detached hall on wooden pillars about 50′ by 30′ and beyond this again an uncovered court. Just outside the southern end of the hall is a large black stone elephant about 5′ high and 4′ broad with the right foot raised and trunk curled. A legend explains that Nāth rescued from drowning in the Ganges the elephant of which this is the image. It is much venerated and many offerings are presented to it. Attached to the right foot is a small chain and the story goes that rheumatism can be cured by waving the chain over the shoulders; also that if any one fails while visiting the temple to give a suitable offering to the elephant, the chain will be discovered next day in his field, and he will have to return it to the temple under pain of severe calamities arising from the displeasure of Nāth. The court also contains at the south-east corner a fine lamp-pillar. Two archways lead into the street of which the inner about thirty feet high is a little higher than the outer archway. Who built the original temple is not known, as the inscription has not been made out. The courts, archways, lamp-pillar and restorations are mostly about 200 years old, the work of Bāḷājī Dābal a member of the Karāḍ Deshchaugbule family. Minor repairs to the temple were carried out from time to time to preserve it in a good condition (1960). A yearly

CHAPTER 19. Places. MHASVAD. Temples. *Nath Temple.*

fair is held on the bright first of *Mārgshirsh* or November-December, when the masks of the images are driven in a carriage. Besides the usual articles of trade this fair, which is attended by about 22,000 people and lasts for about fifteen days, has a special traffic in horses and cattle. The number of cattle and horses, sheep and goats exhibited reaches about 3,000, and as much as Rs. 30,000 are estimated to change hands. Six miles south-east of Mhasvaḍ at Rājevāḍī in the Āṭpāḍī territory is the great Mhasvaḍ irrigation lake which when full covers an area of six square miles[1].

Mhasvaḍ was the home of the Māne family who were its Deshmukhs. The Mānes were distinguished *Shiledārs* under the Bijāpūr Government but nearly as notorious for their revengeful character as the Shirkes[2]. The most glaring example of which could be found in the assassination of Santājī Ghorpaḍe, the Marāṭhā General during the period of Rājārām.

NANDGIRI OR KALYANGAD FORT.

Nandgiri or *Kalyāṇgaḍ Fort* (Koregāṅv T; 18° N, 74° E; RS, Sātārā Road, 2 m. w;) 3,537 feet above sea level, stands at the end of a spur of the Mahādev range running south-west from the villages of Vikhāle and Bhādle, eight miles north of Koregāṅv and about fourteen miles north-east of Sātārā. It is separated from the rest of the spur by a small gorge or *Khiṇḍ* and stands on a lower hill than the Candan Vandan range close to its north-west. It forms, therefore, a less conspicuous object from Sātārā than the Candan Vandan twins, though from the south it comes prominently in view as it forms the southern extremity of the spur dividing the Vāṅgṇā and Vasnā valleys. The hill sides are very steep and rugged and the scarp is very perfect. There is no regular approach and the ascent is made by very tortuous and precipitous footpaths from Dhumāḷvāḍi the village immediately at the foot of the hill to the east to the first gate directly above the village and facing north. Though easy at first, the ascent becomes very steep afterwards and much blocked by prickly pear. Halfway up in a ravine is a good spring and pond known as the Khām pond, the water of which is not potable. The pond is hollowed out of the rock in three divisions and the roof is supported by pillars. The water is abundant.[3] The fort has two gateways the one below the other connected by steps. The first gate faces north, the path turning abruptly as it is reached. Within is a hollow used formerly for stores. From the inside facing east is another cave pond called the Gāvī also full of good water. The entrance to it is protected by a wall. This cave pond is very difficult

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[1] Details of the Mhasvad irrigation lake are given above in Chapter on 'Agriculture and Irrigation'.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 70.

[3] Mr. H. R. Cooke, C. S., found that perhaps the most remarkable feature on the hill was its water-supply. Immediately after entering the lower gate a steep footpath descends within the western was into a hollow at the bottom of the scarp. The hollow is about forty or fifty feet deep. When the bottom is reached the entrance to a huge cavern is seen which can only be reached by stooping. The cavern is full of water but very dark. Outside the gate and to the north there evidently were huge caverns but these have been built up with rough masonry.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

NANDGIRI OR KALYANGAD

of access, the way being thickly blocked with prickly pear. The second gateway of mortared stone leads out into the plateau, which is about two hundred yards high by one hundred broad with many ruined buildings, and four chief ponds inside the second gate. The first pond is about ninety feet by forty in area and twenty feet deep, its sides made of large blocks of masonry. Another smaller one is near the eastern face; a third is in a hollow stopped with an earthen dam; and the fourth is a small one near the south wall. The fort walls are in a state of bad repair. There are no buildings inside the fort except the temple of God Māruti. There are also idols of Dattātraya and Parasnāth. It is said that the water of the pond is good for health. Even though water is available abundantly there is no habitation on the fort. The temple of Māruti was renovated by Dahanēbuvā of Nimāpāḍālī. The tomb of Abdul Karim, a Musalmān Saint which is inside the fort is still visited by a few people. An Urus is held in his honour for five days before Holī Paurṇīmā. The fort was the head-quarters of an administrative sub-division with a treasury and had an establishment of a *māmlatdār*, *phaḍṇis*, *sabnis*, *havāldār and daffedār*, two *karkuns*, three *naiks*, and one hundred and sixty sepoys. According to tradition the fort was built by the Silāhāra king Bhoj II, of Panhāḷā[1]. In 1673 with other Sātārā forts it was surrendered to Shivāji[2]. The Pratinidhi, administered it till his struggle with Bājīrāv, the second Peshvā (1720-1740). In 1791 Major Price describes it as looking like the hull of a ship of war with opposite it another hill with on its summit some places of devotion[3]. In the last Marāṭhā war it fell to the army of General Pritzler in April, 1818. In 1862, it is described as a dismantled and uninhabited fort with a steep approach and a strong gateway but no water and no supplies[4].

NHER.

Nher a village (Khaṭāv T; 17° 45′ N, 74° 15′ E; RS Koregānv 10 m. SW; p. 1,398) in Khaṭāv on the right bank of the Yerlā, fourteen miles north-west of Vaḍūj and a mile north of the Sātārā-Paṇḍharpūr road, gives its name to a large storage lake built by the Irrigation Department between 1876 and 1881[5], and in a good condition at present. In its land to the north is the Pālu Māl a stretch of rocky ground interesting on account of its having had a standing camp of the Moghals for twelve years.

NIGDI.

Nigdi a village (Koregānv T; 17° 25′ N, 74° 10′ E; RS. Rahimatpūr 7 m. SE; p. 1,591), on the right bank of the Kṛshṇā eleven miles south-east of Sātārā and four miles south-west of Rahimatpūr has the *samādhi* of a famous religious teacher or *mahāpurush* named Raghunāthsvāmī. In 1791, Major Price noticed it as being in possession of fraternity of Gosāvis to whom it was originally granted by Chhatrapati Shivāji[6].

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 27.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 202.
[3] Memoirs of a Field Officer, 261.
[4] Government List of Civil Forts, 1862.
[5] Details of the Nher storage reservoir are given above in the Chapter 'Agriculture and Irrigation'.
[6] Memoirs of a Field Officer, 260.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.

On the same side as the village is a very old stone temple of Shri Raṅganāth Svāmī. The temple is visited by people who come to visit the *samādhi*. An annual fair is held in honour of the *samādhi*.

NIMB.

Nimb (Sātārā T; 17° 45′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Sātārā Road, 19 m.; p. 4,219.) is a town about eight miles north of Sātārā. It was alienated to Rājārām Bhonsle the adopted son of the late Rāṇī Saguṇābāī of Sātārā. The neighbourhood of Nimb is noted in the district for its fruit especially mangoes though not of a very superior variety. Grapes also are occasionally grown. In 1751 Nimb was the scene of a victory by Damājī Gāikvāḍ who was advancing to Sātārā in the interests of Tārābāi against the Peshvā's faction. He was opposed by 20,000 men being 5,000 more than his own force at the Sālpā pass. He drove them back to Nimb where he defeated them and caused several of the forts to be given up to Tārābāī[1].

NIMSOD

Nimsoḍ (Khaṭāv T; 17° 25′ N, 74° 25′ E; RS. Rahimatpūr 26 m. NW; p. 2,830) in Khaṭāv, about ten miles south of Vaḍūj, is mentioned in a revenue statement of about 1790 as the head-quarters of a *paragaṇā* in the Rāybāg sarkār with a revenue of Rs. 26,250[2]. In 1827 Captain Clunes noticed it as a market town or *kasbā* with 225 houses, fifteen shops, a watercourse and wells[3]. Nimsod has now lost its importance as a trade centre and is no longer the headquarters. There are about seven to eight shops in the village and about 400 dwellings.

PAL OR RAJAPUR.

Pāl or *Rājāpūr* village (Karāḍ T; 17° 45′ N, 74° 20′ E; RS Masūr, 10 m. SE; p. 3,805) originally called Rājāpūr, lies on both banks of the Tārlā about twenty miles north-west of Karāḍ. The village is chiefly remarkable for a temple of Khaṇḍobā where a yearly fair attended by about 15,000 people is held in December-January.

Khandoba's Temple.

On the right bank of the river is the market street containing the shops of the chief grain dealers, moneylenders, and merchants, and most of the dwellings. On the left bank is the noted temple of Khaṇḍobā and the houses of the worshippers, priests and a few others. The temple lies on the site of a legendary appearance by the God Khaṇḍobā to a favourite devotee, a milkmaid named Pālāī in whose honour the village name was changed from Rājāpūr to Pāl. The temple was built about 500 years ago by a Vāṇī named Aba bin Sheṭī Pādhoḍe. It is a very favourite resort with all classes and has been added to in many ways. The original structure consists of a stone shrine or *gābhārā* and a porch thirty-five feet by twenty-eight from outside. The porch is enclosed by four pillars very plain but of the old pattern, the shaft being cut in rectangular, octagonal and cylindrical blocks, but in mortar which shows that the temple is not older than the thirteenth century. The image-chamber sixteen feet square inside contains on a pedestal two lings with brass masks representing Khaṇḍobā and his consort Mhāḷsābāī.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 453.

[2] Waring's Marathas, 244.

[3] Itinerary, 62.

On the right hand is a black stone image of Bānubāī another wife of Khaṇḍobā, and behind are brass figures on horseback representing Khaṇḍobā's chief minister Hegaḍī Peṇḍhārī and his wife. The porch holds in niches on the north the image of Gaṇapatī and on the south the image of Siddhavāsinī. On the north is the drain for water poured on the images, covered with a canopy and flanked by stone horses. To these buildings Dhanājī bin Sambhājī Jādhav, the well known Marāṭhā general who flourished in the reigns of Shivājī (1627-1680) and Rājārām (1689-1700) and died in 1709, added a hall or maṇḍap twenty-one feet square with open sides. It is supported on twelve pillars about two feet high and similar to those in the *gābhārā* porch and surrounded by a bench with a carved back. The roof has the usual broad carved eaves and parapet. The whole is of stone but the pillars are disfigured by whitewash and painting. Several of them are coated with brass and have a little poor carving. At each corner of the *maṇḍap* is a small pinnacle and in the centre a small arched spire or *shikhar*. Over the porch of the shrine is a rather large spire and over the shrine itself is the main spire about fifty feet high off the ground, and tapering from the base which is as large as the shrine roof. All the spires are of brick and more or less ornamented in stucco with niches painted with mythological designs and images of gods and goddesses. The ornamentation is neither good nor elaborate. But the parts of the building are in good proportion which make it look massive and imposing without being heavy. The temple occupies the centre of a fine square court paved throughout and measuring one hundred and forty feet east to west by eighty feet north to south. The court also contains at the north-west corner a small shrine of Omkāreshvar Mahādev, and in the south-west corner one of Hegaḍī. In front, that is east of the *manḍap* is the canopy with the image of the sacred bull *Nandi* covered with brass. On each side are two carved stone lamp-pillars or *dīpmāḷs* about fifteen feet high. The bases are supported by grotesque stone images of elephants and bulls. Still further east is another rather larger canopy containing a brass-coated stone elephant, about one-third of life size and rather well-carved. To the south of the *Nandi* canopy is a small temple to Shivājī and to its north is a platform for the *tuḷsi* or basil plant. The wall of the court is about twenty feet high, and the west, the north-west, half of the south, and north half of the east side are all cloistered, the former in ogee arches and fine masonry, and the latter with flat roof resting on plain pillars of the old pattern built by Dhanājī Jādhav. The outer roof of these cloisters is flat and serves as a terrace and promenade. Compartments of the cloisters are walled up at irregular intervals and used as lodgings for devotees and permanent worshippers and for stabling the horses attached to the god's establishment. In the pavement of the court are embedded stone tortoises, while between the *Nandi* canopy and the *maṇḍap* is a large tortoise coated with brass. The court-yard has three entrances. The eastern is a small doorway six and a half feet wide flanked inside by two large stone lamp-pillars thirty feet high with twelve sets of brackets for lamps handsomely carved and by far the finest lamp-pillars in the

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

PAL OR RAJAPUR.

Khandoba's Temple.

court. This gate and lamp-pillars were built by Gamāji Chavhān, a *pāṭil* of Nher in the Khaṭāv taluka. The northern entrance is another small doorway built by the Shindes in their cloisters. The southern about twelve feet high by five feet wide is the chief and the finest gateway to the south of Dhanājī Jādhav's cloisters. Inside, it is flanked by two cloistered chambers, the western chamber forming the end of Dhanājī's cloisters and containing an image of Mārutī; the eastern consisting of two cloisters and containing a smaller image of Gaṇapati was built by the Ghorpaḍes of Mudhoḷ. On the top is an ornamental music-chamber or *nagārkhānā* in brick and mortar which with the archway of the gate was the work of the Mānes of Rahimatpūr. Outside the court is an outer yard also paved with stone. The east side has a rough wall with some ruined cloisters; the south side contains a rectangular stone building originally built with a dome and eaves supported by carved brackets, of which the latter raised by Dhanājī Jādhav remain. The rest of the south side and most of the west is taken up by buildings, but in the west is another very large gateway thirty feet high, twenty feet broad and two feet thick, with a massive stone pointed archway about six feet broad inside. This was erected by Yamājī Shivdev, the founder of the Karāḍ Mutālik family. The number of prominent historical families in the Deccan who have bestowed gifts on this temple shows the great veneration in which it was held. Besides lands assigned for the maintenance of its establishment the temple enjoys a Government yearly cash grant. Many families prominent in the history of the Deccan have bestowed gifts on the temple, at which a great fair in celebration of the marriage of God Khaṇḍobā is held annually in the month of Pausha (December-January)[1]. A good amount is collected as offerings at the time of the fair and many offerings are made throughout the year. A clerk superintends the finances of the establishment and carries the metal masks of the god in procession. The worshippers and priests are *Guravs* and Brāhmaṇs. The great yearly fair held in the month of *Paush* or December-January is attended by about 15,000 people from all parts of Sātārā and the neighbouring districts. The pilgrims usually camp in the bed of the Tārlā which at this time forms a large dry beach. The fair proper lasts three or four days, being the days during which the marriage ceremony of the god Khaṇḍobā is supposed to proceed. The days vary slightly with some conjunction of stars. The traders linger some time longer. Copper and brass pots, bangles, piece-goods, silk-cloth, country blankets, and other small articles are sold at the fair. Sanitary arrangements are also made. Cholera once broke out during the 1869 fair when forty-three out of sixty-one reported cases proved fatal. The temple except the front portion of its outer wall is well maintained. Weekly market is held at Pāl on every Sunday.

History.

In Marāṭhā times Pāl was a *kasbā* or market town of some note on the main road from Sātārā to Karāḍ. Pāli village and temple are closely connected with a celebrated exploit of Chitursingh in February 1799 in revenge for the defeat of his brother Shāhū the

[1] Grant Duff Vol. II 298.

CHAPTER 19. Places. PAL OR RAJAPUR. History.

Sātārā Rājā. He had heard that Rāste was encamped near Sātārā fort with a force of 2000 or 3000 men on behalf of the Peshvā. He accordingly led 600 infantry through the hills and valleys till opposite Pāl where he remained concealed till night. He then repaired to the celebrated temple, performed the usual worship, and the whole party solemnly invoked the deity, stained their clothes with yellow dye, rubbed their hands and faces with turmeric in token of a vow to win or die, and issued forth to the attack. The enemy was not unprepared but had only time to fire a few rounds when they were furiously charged sword in hand, their guns taken, and the whole body dispersed in a few minutes. Chitursingh then retreated to Kolhāpūr so quickly that he could not be overtaken[1].

PANCHGANI. Description.

Pāñcgaṇi,[2] (Mahābaḷeśvar Peṭa; 17° 55′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS. Wāṭhār 28 m. SE; p. 4,538) in Mahābaḷeśvar peta about eleven miles east of Mahābaḷeśvar, is a small health-resort on the Surūl-Mahābaḷeśvar road 4,378 feet above sea level. Pāñcgaṇī is connected to Pooṇā and Wāṭhār (nearest railway station) which are at a distance of 63 and 28 miles respectively by State Transport service. The village, lies with five others on a Sahyādri spur which juts out at Mahābaḷeśvar and terminates about a mile from Wāī. Resembling mostly in climatic and other conditions it can be termed the 'Switzerland of India'. Situated to the lee of Mahābaḷeśvar and about 200 feet lower, it escapes the heavy rain and fog of the outer range which are carried away into the valleys to the north and south. It is also happily shielded from the east wind by being built under a large extent of tableland. The magnificent scenery of the Kṛshṇā valley extending for many miles from east to west with its numerous hamlets, highly cultivated fields, and picturesque river, can be seen along the whole northern ridge of the mountain. Though less extensive, the southern aspect is even more beautiful. The geological formation of Pāñcgaṇi is volcanic as is the rest of the Deccan. While all along the road up the hills from Wai to Dhaṇḍeghar two miles from Pāṇcgaṇī trap is found; the soil on the hill top has a large admixture of oxide of iron which reddens the stratum into laterite.

Climate.

Considered as a sanatorium, Pāṇcgaṇī stands almost unrivalled. With a temperature like that of Mahābaḷeśvar it has the eminent advantage over that charming health resort of being comfortably habitable throughout the year.

The climate is cool, salubrious and comparatively dry. It is excellently adapted for both adults and children but for children especially it is unsurpassed in India. The average rainfall is fifty-six inches or about a fifth of that of Mahābaḷeśvar. The mean temperature at noon is 71° and the mean daily range only 6°.

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 4,538. Of this the agricultural classes number 143 and the non-agricultural

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 296.

[2] Contributed for the first edition by the Rev. M. Burgess, Head master Panchgani High School and revised subsequently.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PANCHGANI.

classes 4,395; of the latter, 665 persons derive their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 756 persons from commerce; 144 persons from transport; and 2,830 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Nurseries.

Nurseries are attached to the station where experiments have been made in planting exotic and other trees and shrubs and in cultivating English potatoes, which with peaches, the pear, and the blackberry thrive in the mild climate. The coffee of Pāñcgaṇī has been favourably reported on by London brokers. Here too the sweet heliotrope and myrtle grow in wild profusion. The sweet briar, so rarely met with in India, flowers here; and the eye of the traveller from the dusty plains below is gladdened with the sight of lanes bordered with hedge-roses which festoon overhead entwined with honeysuckle. A single cluster of sixty or seventy roses is not an unusual sight. Pāñcgaṇī, always beautiful, is at its best in August and September when the fair pimpernel, the buttercup and the wild sweetpea cover the hillside while the springy turf of the table-lands is thickly carpeted with the velvety bluebonnet and the more delicate stargrass.

Municipality.

Before 1910, Pāñcgaṇī was administered by the Superintendent of Mahābaḷeśvar. It is now a District Municipality governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act since April 1, 1910. The area of the municipal district is 1,523 acres approximately. The population of the municipal district as per census of 1951 is 4538. The present (1960) population is about 8,000 which swells upto 14,000 during the summer season. The municipality is constituted of 14 Councillors. Of these 14 seats, three seats are reserved for Harijans, one for women and one for the *Ex-Officio* Councillor viz., the Superintendent of Mahābaḷeshvar. All the Councillors except the Superintendent of Mahābaḷeshvar are elected.

The municipality has constituted the following sub-committees *viz.*, (1) Managing Committee, (2) Dispensary Committee, (3) Public Works and Lighting Committee, (4) Octroi Committee, (5) Recreation Committee, (6) Schools Committee, (7) Rules and By-laws Committee, (8) Town Planning Committee and (9) Sanitary Committee. The main sources of income of the municipality are: (1) consolidated tax (property tax), (2) octroi, (3) visitors tax, (4) animal and vehicle tax, (5) special sanitary cess, (6) hotel tax, (7) theatre tax, (8) rent from municipal properties and lands, (9) dispensary fees, (10) notice and warrant fees, (11) Government and District Local Board Grants etc. The income of the municipality for the year 1958-59 was Rs. 1,52,819 as against the expenditure of Rs. 1,22,605.

Water Supply.

At present the chief source of water is from public and private wells. The Government have sanctioned water and drainage schemes which are expected to be completed within a couple of years (i.e. by 1962).

Roads.

The total length of roads within municipal limits is eight miles six furlongs out of which two miles and two furlongs are asphalted

and the rest are metalled roads. The municipality has chalked out a programme for asphalting the remaining roads within the course of three years (1960-63).

Municipality.

Construction of Vegetable Market,

The Municipality is undertaking the work of construction of vegetable market estimated to cost Rs. 25,000 and the work is expected to be completed before the close of the year (1960).

Education.

Pāñcgaṇī being famous for healthy climate has eight residential schools run on the lines of English public schools. Education in these schools is imparted for Senior Cambridge and Secondary School Certificate Examinations. Besides these there are two primary schools for boys and girls administered by the District School Board.

Medical Aid.

The Municipal Hospital is located in extensive premises termed as Satish Kuñj donated by Seṭh Shāntilāl Maṅgaḷdās of Ahmadabād and has in addition facilities of 20 beds in Shāntilāl Maṅgaḷdās General Hospital and 12 Beds in the Mātoshri Maṇiben Maṅgaḷdās Maternity Home. In the hospital there is an out-patient department. A distinguished Institution called Bel Air sanatorium is very well equipped and specialised for treatment to T. B. patients. There are seven sanatoriums open to all communities wherein well furnished accommodation with other facilities e.g., utensils, crockery etc., is provided.

Weekly Bazar.

Weekly Bazar is held within the municipal premises on every Wednesday.

Guest Houses and Hotels.

Pāñcgaṇī has a number of vegetarian and non-vegetarian hotels offering accommodation and food of a very high standard.

Recreation.

The municipality maintains a very good garden and a children's park for the recreation of old and young residents and visitors where radio-set is installed and occasionally entertainment programmes are held. Pāñcgaṇī is visited by visitors all the year round and the following natural spots called "Points" serve as a good attraction: (1) Table Land, (2) Sydney point, (3) Kanga point, (4) Katchbavadī point etc. The Devil's Kitchen situated to the south of the wellknown Tableland is also a place of mythological interest. At a distance of four miles from Pāñcgaṇī, there are some caves known as Rājāpurī Caves wherein a temple of 'Kārtik Svāmī, son of God Shiva, is located.

S. T. Bus Stand.

The State Transport Authorities have purchased a plot on Surūl Mahābaleshvar road for the construction of a decent Bus Stand and a rest house for visitors.

Ghatjai Fair.

A fair is held in Pāñcgaṇī some time in February every year in honour of Ghāṭjāī Devī the patron goddess of Pāñcgaṇī mountain, where all the local people and the villagers of the adjoining villages take part with great devotion. On this day, villagers carry her image in procession following which there is intensive music played on *dhol* and dancing. The fair is celebrated with a view to inspire gaiety, being at the end of the harvest time.

CHAPTER 19.
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Places.
PANDAVGAD OR PANDUGAD FORT.

Pāṇḍavgaḍ or *Pāṇḍugad fort,* (Wāī T; 17° 55′ N, 73° 50′ E; RS. Wāthār, 20 m. SE;), 4177 feet above sea level, lies four miles north-west of Wāī. The fort is conspicuous over a low spur branching east from its southern angle. From a distance it appears a square fortification with natural escarpment of cut black stone.

The fort can be reached by a foot-path diverting to the north from Bhogānv, a village 3 miles west of Wāī on Wāī-Velang State Transport route. In Bhogānv village, there is a small memorial of Vāman Paṇḍiṭ, the celebrated Sanskrit poet of the 15th century. The approach to the fort is very difficult and at places the path is barely a foot in width with the hill slopes on one side and deep valleys on the other. Hill though not covered with thick forest has a considerable foliage of bushy shrubs. A path from Bhogāon leads to small break in the above mentioned spur and from this break it continues by a shoulder of the hill, on which are few huts belonging to *Kolis* formerly connected with the fort and charged with attendance on the temple.

The ascend from the *Koli* hills is steepish and for the last two hundred yards had steps cut in stone. At the northern end the path reaches the entrance gate which now consists of two broken pillars of enormous size. It had a single archway with apparently no door.

The fort is about six acres in extent and nearly a square. Its defences consist of a scarp generally from forty to sixty feet high, more than usually precipitous and in many places actually overhanging and surmounted by a wall with masonry ramparts. The original materials of enormous blocks of dry stone have nearly all disappeared and except the northern end where the gateway and wall are of the huge masonry of the old forts, what remains is very light work.

Of the 18 ponds which supplied the garrison with water, only three possess water. On the top a large pond on the eastern part is silted up. To the north of the main gate, some 150 feet down the shoulder of the hill is a group of small ill maintained rock cut water cisterns.

All the buildings on the fort excepting that of the temple of Pāṇḍjāidevī are in a state of complete ruin. The temple is built in local stone masonry and is not in anyway imposing. A hall in front of the shrine of devi measures about 30′×20′ and has a flat roof supported on four pillars. Number of ancient buildings on the fort have been reduced to a mere heap of bricks. In the centre, remains of the main building are hidden by a thick growth of bushy shrubs.

The fort commands an excellent view of the surrounding area. To the east one gets a bird's eye view of Wāī, and Māndhārdev stands conspicuously about 4 miles to the north-west. To the west Kenjālgad marks a prominent object at a distance of about 5 miles.

History.

The fort is said to have been built by the Kolhāpūr Silāhāra chief Bhoja II. (1178-1193) of Panhāḷā. About 1648 it is mentioned as

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

PANDAVGAD OR PANDUGAD FORT.

being in the charge of a Bijāpūr *mokāsādār* stationed at Wāi.[1] In 1673 it was taken by Shivājī[2]. In 1701 Pāṇḍavgaḍ surrendered with Chandan Vandan to Auraṅgzeb's officers.[3] In 1713 during his flight from Chandrasen Jādhav the Marāṭhā captain or *Senāpati*, Bāḷājī Vishvanāth afterwards the first Peshvā, being refused shelter by the Sachiv's agent at Sāsvaḍ attempted to cross to Pāṇḍavgaḍ in the opposite valley. Closely pursued, he contrived to conceal himself until two Marāṭhās, Pilājī Jādhav and Dhumāḷ, then common cavaliers in his service, gathered a small troop of horse and carried him with great difficulty to Pāṇḍavgaḍ where he was protected by Shāhu's orders. Chandrasen demanded that Bāḷājī should be given up and in case of refusal threatened to renounce his allegiance. Shāhu refused to give up Bāḷājī and sent orders to Haibatrāv Nimbāḷkar *Sarlashkar* then at Ahmadnagar to march on at once to Sātārā. Meanwhile Bāḷājī was in Pāṇḍavgaḍ surrounded by Chandrasen's troops. But hearing of Haibatrāv's arrival at Phalṭāṇ about forty miles east, Chandrasen quitted Pāṇḍavgaḍ and marched to Deūr about fifteen miles to the south-east[4]. During Trimbakjī Deṅgḷe's insurrection in 1817 Pāṇḍavgaḍ was taken by the insurgents. It surrendered in April 1818 to a detachment of the 9th Native Infantry Regiment under Major Thatcher[5].

Pandavgad Caves.

The Pāṇḍavgaḍ caves are situated on a small south-east projection of Pāṇḍavgaḍ fort within the limits of Dhāvḍī village. On taking the path to Pāṇḍavgaḍ and reaching the opening in the hills instead of turning up the shoulder of the hill to ascend the fort, the way to the caves goes straight on towards Dhāvḍī by a well defined footpath which skirts the face of the hill. The small spur with the caves is found at about a distance of 300 yards. The angle it makes with the main spur should be made for and about 200 feet up are the caves. The first is a flat roofed chapel or *chaitya* about twenty-one feet by seven and about twelve to fourteen feet high. An arched entrance blocked up with mud and stones leads to a relic shrine or *daghobā* four and a half feet in diameter and six feet high. Its capital (head portion) is lost. Close by is another cave seven feet square, also flat-roofed with an arched entrance and containing a mutilated stone instead of the *daghobā* and locally said to be a *liṅg*. It looks more like a *daghobā*, being fully three feet in diameter at the base and scarcely a foot at the top. East of Cave II is an eight-celled dwelling cave or *vihār* about thirty-five feet square and five feet high. The floor has been much silted up with earth brought in by rain water. The original height, as seen from the outside, was probably eight feet. The roof is flat and the rock overhangs four feet making a verandah with an entrance in its back wall about eight feet wide. The cells are two each on the east and west and four on the north, and there is a bed shelf all round.

1 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 109.
2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 202.
3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 303.
4 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 323.
5 Bombay Courier, 18th April 1818.

CHAPTER 19. — Places.

Five yards to the west is a rock-cut cistern six feet deep and nine feet wide holding no water. The Pāṇḍavgaḍ caves are in good condition to this date and are visited by a number of people.

PANDAVVADI.

Pāṇḍavvāḍi (Wāī T; 18° 05′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS. Wāṭhār, 23 m. W; p. 600) a hamlet of Bhogāṅv village about three miles west of Wāī, is apparently named like Pāṇḍavgaḍ from the legendary Pāṇḍav princes. It is celebrated as the place where in 1673 died the great Marāṭhā poet Vāman Paṇḍit a contemporary of Shivāji, Tukārām and Rāmdās. Vāman was originally an astrologer of Koregāṅv. He studied the *Shāstrās* at Banaras. His two great works are in the *ovi* metre, a commentary on the Bhagvadgitā and a metaphysical work called the *Nigamsār*[1].

PAR PAR

Pār Pār or *Pār* proper and Peṭh Pār or the market of Pār (Mahābaḷeśvar Peṭa; 17° 55′ N, 73° 34′ E; RS Wāṭhār 46 m. SE; p. 66) are two villages five miles west of Mālcolmpeṭh and immediately south of Pratāpgad. They give their name to and mark the old route into the Koṅkaṇ called the Pār pass which goes straight over the hill below Bombay Point and winds at a very steep incline with so many curves that it was named by the British the Corkscrew pass. Passing through the two Pārs the further line of the Sahyādris is descended by an equally steep path to the village of Pārghāṭ in Kolābā district. This route was maintained practicable for cattle and the guns of the period from very early times and had *chaukis* or toll stations for transit duties and defence at various points. The rulers of Jāvlī and Chhatrapatī Shivājī who generally resided at Rāigaḍ (Mahāḍ) in Kolābā must have used this route. Bājī Shāmrāj, sent by the Bijāpūr government to seize Chhatrapatī Shivājī, lurked about this pass till he was surprised at its foot, and driven in panic to seek safety in the forest.[2] In 1659 Pār village was the scene of an interview bewteen Shivājī and Gopināthpant sent by Afzal Khān to stipulate with him.[3] Afzal Khān brought his forces by the same Pār pass route to the famous interview at Pratāpgaḍ where the two met. As they embraced each other, Afzal Khān tried to press Shivājī's neck between his arm and body and tried to stab him. In self defence, Shivājī thrust his iron claws in his bowels. Afzal Khān fell down unconscious and died. Thus Afzal Khān failed to catch Shivājī dead or alive and Shivājī killed him in an unpremeditated combat. In 1796 Nānā Phaḍṇis fled down this pass to Mahāḍ and took measures for his safety by blocking it and throwing a strong garrison into Pratāpgaḍ.[4]

Until the building of the Kumbhārlī road in 1864 and the Fitz-Gerald pass road in 1876 the Pār pass was the only high-way leading in to the Koṅkaṇ. The line taken by the Fitz-Gerald pass gives a splendid view of Elphinstone Point and Arthur's Seat cliffs which the Pār misses. But the abrupt descent from Pār westwards is very fine.

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1 Navanita (New Edition), 80-81.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 115.

3 Details are given above in the Chapter on History.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. II, 261.

Near these two villages is a village named Pār Soṇḍ situated within a radius of about a furlong. There is a primary school in the village Pār Pār and an ancient temple of Rām Vardāyini Devī[1]. A well is constructed under the Local Government Department Scheme for the villages. These villages come under the Sarvodaya Scheme.

PARALI OR SAJJANGAD FORT.

Paraḷi or *Sajjangaḍ*[2] *Fort* (Sātārā T; 17° 35′ N, 73° 00′ E; RS Sātārā Road 16 m. NE; p. 1,196) about 1045 feet above the plain and 1824 yards in circumference, lies on a detached Sahyādri spur about six miles west of Sātārā. The fort is surrounded and commanded by three hills, Yavteshvar about 3.500 yards to the north, Old Sātārā about 2,500 yards to the south, and Nāṅkā within 1,100 yards to the south-west. The road from Sātārā to Paraḷī, the village situated at the foot of the hill is asphalted and can be used throughout the year. The way up the hill leading to the fort is widened and steps have been built by the pilgrims.

The only entrance to the fort is by two gateways at the south-west angle. Both the gateways are in good order strongly built of cut-stone and flanked by towards and a parapet along the rock. The lower gateway which is partly under the rock is completely hidden from the approach and commanded by the upper gateway.

The defences consist of a scarp of perpendicular black rock varying in height from about 100 feet along the faces to about fifty feet at the south-west angle of the fort. The scarp is built up in places, but except near the gateway and at the south-west angle which appears to have been strongly fortified, little of the old parapet remains. The south-west angle is the only place practicable for an escalade as in other places the rock is too high and the hill below it too steep to allow ladders to be placed against it, while there is no cover from the fire of the fort.

The fort contains a partly ruined mosque and three temples, one of which situated about the middle of the fort and dedicated to Rām is a handsome cut-stone building capable of defence. In the village around are buildings of various kinds. Just outside the gate is a small hamlet. The water-supply of the fort is from ponds, of which there are several but only two hold water throughout the year. Of these two, one to the north of Rām's temple holds good water. The fort buildings are well maintained. The temples are repaired regularly and a fair is held every year on the day of *Rām Navmi* (chaitra sud. 9) which continues for nine days. A *dharmashālā* is constructed in the fort to house the pilgrims.

Paraḷi Village with a population of about 1,500 lies about 1,200 yards by a path to the north of the fort. It contains a number of houses, some of which as also several temples in the neighbourhood

[1] The word Ram Vardayini is very common in the literature of Ramdas who described the goddess as one giving a boon or blessing to Ram. The temple might belong to Shivaji's period.

[2] The name Sajjangad that is the fort of good men or *sajjan* is locally said to be derived from the number of good men who visited it after it became the residence of Ramdas Svami.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PARALI.

are built of cut stone or have thick mud walls, which, with their situation, rendered them capable of defence. A weekly market is held at the village on Monday at which forage, vegetables and other goods are obtainable. The watersupply of the village is from wells and from the Urmoḍī river which flows to the north. All round the base of the hill on which the fort stands are several small hamlets, some of them consisting of not more than three or four huts Paraḷī was the favourite residence of Rāmdās Svāmī (1608-1681) who received it as *inām* from Shivājī. The local tradition is that if Shivājī in Sātārā required counsel from Rāmdās Svāmī, Rāmdās reached Sātārā through the air in a single stride. The temple of Rāmdās is in the middle of the village, surrounded by the dwellings of his disciples. The temple of basalt with a brick and mortar dome was built by Akābāī and Divākar Gosāvī, two disciples of the Svāmī. It was repaired and ornamented in 1,800 and 1,830 by Parashurām Bhāū of Sirgāṅv village eight miles south-east of Wāī The spire is in octagonal tiers and about seventy feet high with handsome stucco decoration. The verandah was built by one Vaijnāth Bhāgvat of Yavteshwar. A yearly fair attended by about 6,000 people is held in February.

On the north-west of Paraḷī village about a few yards outside are two old Hemāḍpantī temples facing east. The southern temple now deserted looks like the older of the two; and some of its best carvings have been transferred to the northern temple. It is about forty by twenty feet, including the *gābhārā* which is of the old star shape. Of the *gābhārā* the walls alone remain. They are about six feet high and built of enormous blocks of unmortared stone. The *gābhārā* has a pyramidal roof of huge slabs diminishing in size from the bottom upwards. The *gābhārā* portal is most beautifully carved in relief in a pattern similar to the carving of the balustrade and pillars in the northern temple.

The northern temple of about the same size as the southern temple is complete. The hall or *maṇḍap* is about twenty-four feet square with four rows of four pillars each, seven feet apart, supporting with brackets a flat roof ten feet high. The central one over the round slab in which the *Nāṅdī* is placed has a canopied top. Each of the other compartments formed by four pillars has a ceiling of the lozenge pattern. Outside in an unenclosed court is the Naṅdī canopy. The pillars supporting it are specially rich, the carving pattern differing in each. Its ceiling is domed and about the same height as the rest of the temple. It is well paved and elaborately carved, every available bit of space being filled with decorative moulding of some kind. A small vestibule also beautifully worked leads to the *gābhārā* which is square inside but star-shaped outside. The sides are walled in at an early but comparatively modern time with mortared stone. At the entrance is a balustrade very elaborately carved. The pillars in the *maṇḍap* are plainer than is usual in the

oldest Hemāḍpantī temples. Some are giving way and rude props have been erected between them. Slabs belonging to the broad eaves of the old temple roof have been used to make a pedestal for a lamp-stand. The balustrade and *Nandi* canopy probably belong to the northern temple, the rest is very likely a building of Shivājī's time or perhaps even later after the Moghals took Paraḷī (1,700). It is not known who first desecrated the old shrine, but either the Bijāpūr Musalmāns or the Moghals must have done so, and the new temple was a feeble copy of the old raised after their departure. To the north of the entrance is a tablet bearing a very indistinct inscription. Fifty yards north of these temples is a pond about forty yards square and ten feet deep. It is of the old pattern, the lower stones projecting beyond the upper ones. The existence of these two old temples and ponds makes it probable that Parāḷī fort was in existence before Musalmān times. It was subsequently occupied by them and surprised by a detachment of Shivājī's forces in May 1673[1]. A few days before his death in 1681 Rāmdās Svāmi addressed from Paraḷī a judicious letter to Sambhāji, advising him for the future rather than upbraiding him for the past and pointing out the example of his father yet carefully abstaining from personal comparison[2]. In 1699, when the Moghals were besieging Sātārā, Parashurām Trimbak Pratinidhi prolonged the siege by furnishing supplies from Paraḷī. After the capture of Sātārā in April 1700 the Moghal army besieged Paraḷī. The siege lasted till the beginning of June, when after a good defence of a month and a half, the garrison evacuated[3]. Aurangzeb called the fort Naurastāra[4]. In a revenue statement of about 1790, Peraly (Paraḷī) appeared as the head-quarters of a *paragaṇā* in the Nahisdurg sarkār with a revenue of Rs. 22,500[5]. In 1818 Paraḷī was taken by a British regiment, and a detachment of native infantry under a native officer was kept here. During the 1857 rebellion a gang robbery took place in Paraḷī, and it was rumoured that this gang was a detachment from a considerable body of men who had gathered in the neighbouring forests, but had dispersed on the return of troops from the Persian war. It was found that the ex-Rājā Pratāpsinh's agent Rango Bāpūji had been living for six weeks in Parali[6], and that he had gathered the gang to act with the band assembled in former Bhor territory and with armed men hid in Sātārā.

PATAN.

Pāṭan, (Pāṭan T; 17° 20′ N, 73° 50′ E; RS Karāḍ 24 m. SE; p. 3,630) on the Karāḍ-Kumbhārlī road at the junction of the Koynā and Kerā rivers about twenty-five miles south-west of Sātārā was formerly a sub-divisional head-quarters. The town consists of two parts (i) Rāmpūr and (ii) Pāṭan. The Pāṭankar family was originally in two branches, of which the elder branch alone flourished. The younger branch represented by Haṇmantrāv resided in Rāmpūr.

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 202.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 238.
[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 300
[4] Shivaji Souvenir, Marathi Section page 78.
[5] Waring's Marathas, 244.
[6] See history above.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PATAN.

His mansion, a fine large house was completely destroyed by fire in 1874. Next to it on the south is the mansion of *ināmdār* Nāgojīrāv Pāṭaṇkar, a second class *sardār* and honorary magistrate who exercised civil jurisdiction in his own villages. The mansion with strong high stone walls and ramparts and a gateway flanked by bastions, is well maintained. A rose and plantain garden has been laid out close to it. The Pātaṇkars were the *deshmukhs* under the Marāṭhās of the whole surrounding district and had charge of Dategaḍ fort three miles to the north-west During tho struggles between the Peshvas and the Pratinidhis they did pretty much what they pleased. The elder branch is one of the few prosperous Marāṭhā families in the district. There is no historical mention of Pāṭān. But title deeds show that the Bijāpūr kings had a well established rule here. The district was assigned to the Pratinidhi by Rām Rājā but was wrested from him by the Peshvā after the rebellion of Yemājī Shivdev Mutālik in 1750[1]. It was not finally secured to the Peshvā till the time of Bāpū Gokhale. Throughout the eighteenth century both the authorities issued contradictory orders but the carrying out of these orders largely rested on the will of the Pāṭaṇkars alone.

The town has a number of public buildings *viz.*, one primary school each for boys and girls, a high school, a training college, the Nāgojīrāv Vāchanālaya, a primary health centre with a family planning centre and a maternity home, a District Local Board dispensary, District Judge's court and a number of other offices e.g. Block Development office, Mamlatdar's office, District Local Board office, Post and telegraph office, etc. There is an inspection bungalow and a bridge is built recently on the Kerā river. A weekly bazar is held on every Monday.

PATESHVAR.

Pāṭeśvar (Sātārā T; RS. Rahimatpūr, 9 m. E) a peaked hill rising above the rest of the range about seven miles south-east of Sātārā, has on its north-west face close to the junction of the villages of Degāṅv, Nigḍi and Bhāratgāṅv and within the limits of Degāṅv a series of cave temples. The easiest way for a visit on foot or horseback is to take the track to Degāṅv which branches from the tank in the village of Goḍolī south and east of the cantonment. From Degāṅv a path strikes to the south-east and winds up to a *khiṇḍ* or gorge from which by steps in places it proceeds at a very gentle incline for about three quarters of a mile along the hill side till the

Cave Temples.

temples are reached. Another way is to drive to Bhāratgāṅv on the Kolhāpūr road whence a two-mile walk leads to the *khiṇḍ* by the south side. Half-way[2] up the path the steps on the right lead to a large image of Gaṇapatī coloured red. At the end of the path is a hollow in which is a masonry pond measuring fifty-five feet by eighty with steps leading down to it from the middle of the north side. The hill slope runs close down to it at the north-west corner in which is a small cave ten feet square much choked up and containing a small image called the Margaḷ mhas of a lying

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 447.

[2] Compare Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples, 427.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

PATESHVAR.

Cave Temples.

buffalo with a *ling* on its back. To the east of the pond are some houses and a *math* belonging to the resident Gosāvī. From the south-east end of the pond a series of thirty-five low steps lead up a slight incline to a temple of Mahādev. The temple stands in a courtyard one hundred and thirty-five feet east to west by sixty-five north to south, partly if not entirely cut out of the hill side to a depth of ten feet. The entrance is on the north from the steps above mentioned and is flanked by four chambers each ten feet square. The chambers next to the doorway are empty and the further ones contain images, the east chamber of the god *Roḍkobā* and the west chamber of the man-eagle *Garuḍ*. The door-way is a small pointed arch about six feet by three. Immediately opposite the doorway is the *Nanḍī* canopy, ten feet square and twenty-seven high, facing the temple which fronts east. The latter is a modest structure, forty-eight feet long, consisting of an image-chamber and a hall. The hall is twenty-six broad and the image chamber (*gābhārā*) eighteen feet broad, the sides of the manḍap projecting about five feet on each side beyond those of the *gābhārā*. The front is a plain balustrade about five feet high and six feet broad, on each side of a three feet passage for entrance. The walls on each side are 5′ 6″ thick. The roof is of the lozenge pattern and supported by four pillars in the centre, a plain imitation of the Hemāḍpantī style. The whole is raised on a plinth three feet high. The wall to the roof is thirteen feet high with a three feet parapet. Over the image-chamber is the octagonal spire or *shikhar* of brick and stucco thirty-eight feet from the roof, and with a total height of fifty-four feet from the ground. The image—chamber, ten feet square, is entered by a low doorway with a stone tortoise in front. In the centre is the *ling* of Pāṭeśvar. Behind in the east corner is the water drain. In the centre of the north side are images of Gaṇapatī and Dāsmārutī both facing south, and on the south side facing north are images of Jaṭāshankar and Sheshashāyi or Vishṇu reclining upon the serpent Shesh. On either side of the east end of the temple are small shrines of an eight-handed Devī on the south and of Bhairav on the north. Behind the *Nandi* shrine to the north-east is the *tulsi* or basil platform and to the east two temples each eighteen feet high. The whole temple and courtyard is of good stone work but all modern, the work of Parashurām Nārāyan Angaḷ the great banker and temple-builder who lived in the time of Shāhū (1682-1749)[1]. In this group the only object of any age would seem to be the Margal Mhas cave. Passing about a hundred yards east four caves are reached all about ten feet square and facing about north-west. They have flat roofs about ten feet high and no signs of building in them. A number of *lings* are scattered about without any order. A little east of these is a small modern temple of Baḷibhadra or Agnī with a curious image of which the body from the neck back is a bull, tail and all. The face from the mouth upwards is human, the chin that of a bull. It has four horns growing out of the head, four hands on the right and three on the left, and

[1] See above.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PATESHVAR. Cave Temples.

three legs, two of a man and one of a bull. This image is typical of Agnī or the god of fire who is represented in the *Shāstrās* as having three legs, seven hands, two mouths, and four horns. On an oblong stone near the image are some well carved figures in relief of men and women. Next to Agnī's temple on the east is a temple of *Saṭvāi Devi* containing two small images of goddesses. Both the temples are modern. Five hundred paces east is a curious cave or group of caves known as the *Varāḍghar*. The southern side has a shrine about ten feet square. In the three sides are arched niches prettily sculptured with bead decorations. The southern niche contains a *liṅg* three feet high. The eastern niche has some figures of Ṛshis, and in the western niche is a long shaped stone with eight figures in relief though what the figures represent cannot be made out. Two pillars support the roof, one with a club figured on it in relief, the other with some indistinct letters of which *va sa* and *ha* can be made out. The part which opens west contains only a *liṅg*. Much of the original cave remains. It is about thirty-five feet deep, but too dark and impenetrable for taking exact measurements. A little to the east of this group is a small pond known as the Bhīm Kuṇḍ. The caves are plain flat-roofed cells without benches and originally without pillars.

PHALTAN. Population.

Phalṭan (17° 55′ N, 74° 25′ E; RS. Loṇand, 17 m. p. 12, 142). The population of the town according to the Census of 1951 was 12,144 of which the agricultural classes numbered 1,937 and non-agricultural 10,207. Of the latter, persons deriving their livelihood from production other than cultivation numbered 2,912; from commerce 2,198; from transport 325 and from other services and miscellaneous sources 4,772.

History.

Historically, Phalṭaṇ is a very ancient place famous for its Jain temples and the place is referred to as Palethaṇ in Mahānubhāv literature of the thirteenth century. Rav Nāik Nimbāḷkar, also known as Phalṭaṇrāv was the Nāik of Phalṭaṇ. His original surname was Pavār. He had taken the name of Nimbāḷkar from Nimbālik or Nimlak where the first Nimbāḷkar lived. The family is considered as one of the most ancient in Maharashtra as the Nimbaḷkar was made sardeshmukh of Phalṭaṇ before the middle of the seventeenth century by one of the Bijāpūr kings. The Deshmukh of Phalṭaṇ is said to have become a polygar or independent chief and to have repeatedly witheld the revenues of the district. Vāṅgojī or Jagpālrāv Nāik Nimbāḷkar who lived in the early part of the seventeenth century was notorious for his restless and predatory habits. Dipabāī the sister of Jagpālrāv was married to Mālojī Bhonsle, Shivājī's grandfather who was in the service of Nizāmshāhī kingdom of Ahmadnagar. One of the Phalṭaṇ Nāiks was killed in 1620 in a battle between Malik Ambar and the Moghals. Nimbāḷkar never exchanged his ancient title of Nāik for that of Rājā. In 1665 Shivājī, according to the treaty of Purandhar in the same year, co-operated with the army of the Moghals in a war against Bijāpūr, and attacked Phalṭaṇ, and reduced it. Bajājī Nimbāḷkar

who had earlier embraced Islam for the preservation of his Jagir was later on brought back to Hindu fold by Shivājī's mother Jījābāī who induced her son Shivājī to give his daughter Sakhubāī in marriage to Mahādjī the son of Bajājī Nimbāḷkar. The Nimbāḷkars continued to remain as rulers of Phalṭaṇ and they were attached to the Chhatrapati of Sātārā. After the extinction of the Marāṭhā rule, the State passed under the protection of the British, until it was finally merged with the Indian Union in 1947.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

Established in 1868, Phalṭaṇ municipality has an area of 4½ square miles. It is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. The municipal council has a total strength of 16 members. Of these 16 seats, two seats are reserved for women rotating in four wards and two seats for the Scheduled Castes. There are two sub-committees, the Managing Committee and the Sanitary Committee both functioning in their respective fields.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of the municipality for the year 1957-58 excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,51,750 under following heads: municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 1,21,727; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxes Rs. 24,867; grants and contributions Rs. 1,510; and miscellaneous Rs. 3,646. Expenditure incurred for the same year amounted to Rs. 1,60,455; the details were: general administration and collection charges Rs. 44,898; public safety Rs. 16, 521; public health and convenience Rs. 65,526; public works Rs. 19,652 and miscellaneous Rs. 13,858.

Water Supply and Drainage.

Drinking water is brought through the Nirā Right Bank Canal and is stored in a reservoir and then supplied to the town through pipe lines. It is proposed to construct one more reservoir for supplying water. There is no underground drainage system but there are stone lined gutters which serve the purpose.

Education.

Primary education is made compulsory in the town which is controlled by the District School Board. The municipality pays an yearly contribution of Rs. 12,000.

Medical Facilities.

The Government runs one dispensary located in Ravivār Peṭh. The district Local Board runs one veterinary dispensary in the town.

Miscellaneous.

The total length of roads in the municipal area is 15·4 miles; all the roads are unmetalled.

The municipality maintains three public gardens. No cremation and burial grounds are maintained by the municipality.

Jain Temples.

Of the famous Jain temples in Phalṭaṇ Jābāreshvar temple is centuries old. The temple is known for its architecture. On the entrance are carved images of the *Tirthankāras* while on the outer walls images of Indra and Indrāṇī—his wife—are carved out. Mudhojīrāv IV installed the image of God Mahādev in the temple.

Shri Chandraprabhū Mandir is another famous Jain temple. It dates back to the regime of Pratāpsinh of Phalṭaṇ (Saṁvat 1895). There are images of 24 *Tirthankāras*. The scenes depicting events from *Harivaṁsha Purāṇa, Mahābhārat, Sita Haraṇa*, 16 dreams of the

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PHALTAN.

Tirthankāras (Chandraprabhu's) mother and 16 dreams of Chandragupta adorn the temple walls. The scenes about the dreams depict the future of the universe.

Hindu Temples.

Of the Hindu temples, the temple of Dnyāneshvar is noteworthy The object of worship is a sitting image of Dnyāneshvar in meditation. The image made of crystal has a necklace of holy basil.

Shri Rām Mandir is another famous Hindu temple. The entrance of the temple is guarded by two carved images of *Rāmdūta* (*God Māruti*). The doors of the vestibule (*gābhārā*) are overlaid with sheets of silver and carved in artistic floral designs. Inside the vestibule are the images of Rām, Laxmaṇ and Sītā in a standing position. The *meghāḍambari* (dome) is made of silver. The *prabhāvaḷ* (hallow) is cast in silver and is very artistic. At the top of the *prabhāvaḷ* is *Kirtimukh* (an image of cobra having a hood) cast in silver. The *pādukās* (foot-prints) are also cast in silver.

Inspection Bungalow.

The bungalow constructed in 1918 is situated at a distance of nearly a mile and a half from the State Transport Motor Stand. The bungalow with two suites is surrounded by a beautiful garden.

Mudhoji College, Phaltan.

Mudhoji College of Phalṭaṇ was established in June 1957. It is now (1960) a full-fledged Degree College imparting instructions both in arts and science courses. It is affiliated to the University of Pooṇā. The motto of the college is an all-round development of its students, intellectual, physical and cultural. The college is financed by the Phalṭaṇ Education Society from its collections which include money collected by way of tuition fees, public donation and Government grants. The college received a grant of Rs. 1,37,500 from the University Grants Commission in 1960 and Rs. 1,00,000 from the State Government.

High School.

There is one high school *viz* Mudhoji High School run by the Shriram Education Society.

Sarvodaya Scheme.

After the merger of the princely States the moneys in the former State Treasury at Phalṭaṇ were spent on the all – round development (*Sarvodaya*) of the newly created Phalṭaṇ taluka of the Sātārā district. Out of the 80 villages comprising Phalṭaṇ taluka, 35 economically backward villages from the hilly areas were selected at the first instance. The main office of the scheme is at Phalṭaṇ. A number of activities have been started under the *sarvodaya* scheme in the Phalṭaṇ taluka e.g. sheep breeding and wool industry, building of approach roads, bunding of the farms and facilities of water pumps and plough, primary and adult education, construction of school buildings and wells, medical aid, arranging of cultural programmes such as *bhajani maṇḍaḷ*, village sanitation, social gatherings for women, co-operative societies etc.

Phalṭaṇ is known for its sugar plantations and sugar factories *viz* the Shrīrām Sahakārī Sākhar Kārkhānā Ltd., and Phalṭaṇ Sugar Works Ltd. Sugar from Phalṭaṇ is exported to Beḷgāṅv, Pooṇā and Bombay.

Places.
PIMPODA BUDRUK.

Pimpoḍā Budruk, (Koregāṅv T; 17° N, 74° E; RS Wāṭhār, 4, W; p. 3,340) a village about sixteen miles north of Sātārā and sixteen miles east of Wāī, was in 1830 the scene of the death of Nārāyaṇ Pavār a cultivator who at the age of nine became famous for his art in catching venomous snakes. It was given out that he was an incarnation of the deity Nārāyaṇ who was to rid the country of the English. Thousands flocked to see the new deity. The sick came to be healed and prophecies were found out about him. After six months the boy died of the bite of a serpent. He was expected to rise again, and besides in the Deccan the belief caused much excitement both in Bombay and Kolābā and Ratnāgirī districts[1]. The boy's tomb is still in good condition and a number of people visit it to make offerings and to fulfil vows.

PRATAPGAD FORT.

Pratāpgaḍ Fort, (Mahābaḷeśvar Peta; 17° 55′, N, 73° 35′ E; RS. Wāṭhār, 52 m.) 3,543 feet above sea level, twenty miles north-west of Meḍhā and by road eight miles west of Mahābaḷeśvar, is built on a range which forms a spur of the Mahābaḷeśvar hills and separates the villages of Pār and Kineśvar commanding the road between them. The fort from a distance looks like a round-topped hill, the walls of the lower fort forming a sort of bend or crown round the brow. It can be visited with great ease from Mālcolm Peṭh. Now the motar car goes right up to the top of the fort, near the main gate. An hour's drive down by the Fitz Gerald pass road brings the visitor to the pretty travellers' bungalow at Vāḍā or Āṁbenaḷī a small hamlet within the limits of Kumbhrośi village. Ponies or chairs with bearers are to be had here during the fair weather. About three quarters of an hour's easy climbing leads to the fort gateway, most of the pathway lying through small, but in places, thick forest. On passing the gateways, the outwork of Abdullā's tower lies to the right while the path to the upperfort is on the left. The temple of Bhavānī is on the eastern side of the lower fort. It consists of a hall which was rebuilt recently and a shrine, the hall with wooden pillars about 50′ long 30′ broad and 12′ high. The shrine is of stone. It contains a black stone image of Bhavānī with some fine clothes belonging to it. The roof of the temple is flat inside. Outside is a leaden covering put up by the Sātārā Rājā Pratāpsinh (1818-1839) and over the

[1] Oriental Christian Spectator, I (1830) 246-47, 279-281. The Rev. Mr. Nesbit wrote (Or. Chr. Spec. V. 185-186) of the boy's tomb in 1834: The boy is buried at the spot where he first received divine worship. His little cot is spread over the slightly elevated mound that surmounts his ashes; his shoes are placed at the lower end of it; and a piece of shining metal is put at the head to represent his face. The sticks he used to bear in his hand lie at the sides of the tomb; and thousands of boys, with which he was presented by his worshippers, are ranged at some distance behind him. Two Brahmans and a shepherd who has turned a devotee wait upon him continually with music singing and incense burning. A regular house is built over his tomb and a shopkeeper has built another close by where he disposes of such articles as may be required by those who come to make offerings or fulfil vows to the deceased god Compare Jour, Roy. As. Sec. VII (Old Series) 109-112.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. PRATAPGAD FORT.

shrine is a small spire or *shikhar*. The temple is in good repair but unattractive and only worth a visit on account of its historical associations.

The western and northern sides of the fort are gigantic cliffs with an almost vertical drop in many places of seven or eight hundred feet. The towers and bastions on the south and east are often thirty to forty feet high, while there is in most places a scarp of naked black rock not much lower. In an inspection report of 1842 Pratāpgaḍ is described as occupying the highest point of the range with a full and commanding view of the surrounding country. The west and north sides were very steep and inaccessible, both covered with huge masses and a vast precipice of trap rock. On the east and south the hills were more sloping and covered with a dense wood in contrast with the rocky west and north, and gradually descended to the valleys separating Mahābaḷeshvar and the Kineshvar range on the east and the Koṅkaṇ valley on the west. It consisted of two forts, an upper fort built on the crest of the hill and a lower fort immediately below on the south and east, both overlooking the surrounding country and guarding the passage to the hill on almost all sides. One approach, however, was not so strongly guarded as others, which, passing over an easy ground fit for a motar battery, led to a tower locally known as Abdullā's tower. From the tower the ascent ran up a steep and rugged pathway along the south of the outwork and completely defended by it. The pathway led to the entrance between two strong towers through two narrow and well built gates. From the lower to the upper fort were two entrances one of them on the north-east corner. It was a mere opening without a gateway between two towers very weak but for a precipice outside.

The fort walls varied in height according to the nature of the ground. The parapet wall was very slight and the rampart only three feet broad. The upper fort, built upon the crest of the hill, was 200 yards long by 200 broad and contained several permanent buildings for residence and a temple of Mahādev. Both the upper fort and the temple of Mahādev are in good condition even now. The lower fort, 350 yards long by 120 broad, was on the eastern and southern side of the hill. The southern side was rocky and precipitous, while the eastern side had a strong outwork ending in the tower above mentioned which commanded the approach to the place. The outwork was said to have been added by Shivāji after the entanglement with the Bijāpūr general Abdullā, properly Afzal, who died at the hands of Shivājī and whose head is buried beneath the tower which bears his name. At the end of the outwork, where it joins the lower fort, appears to have been a gateway now destroyed. The entrance to the fort lay on the south of the outwork, but the approach to it was completely commanded by the walls of the outwork which overlooked the path the whole way up to the entrance. The entrance was well protected and very strong, the space between

Places.

PRATAPGAD FORT.

the towers on each side not exceeding four feet, the pathway very steep and rugged, and a double gate or door way forming the actual entrance. The only buildings in the lower fort were a few ruined huts, some houses of Brāhmaṇs and a well furnished temple of Bhavānī. In 1882 Pratāpgaḍ is noted as a strong fort with ample water-supply and provisions. It was garrisoned by ten of the Sātārā police[1].

An old tank which was in disuse for a long time is now repaired and brought into use. However, water supply is scanty and not safe for drinking.

History.

Pratāpgaḍ was built in 1656 by the famous Brāhmaṇ minister Moro Trimbak Pingle at the command of Shivājī, who pitched upon this high rock near the source of the Kṛshṇā, thereby securing access to his possessions on the banks of the Nirā and the Koynā and strengthening the defences of the Pār pass.[2] In 1659, the foot of the hill was the scene of Shivājī's famous interview with the Bijāpūr general Afzalkhān and of Afzalkhān's death[3]. In the rains of 1661 Chhatrapati Shivājī, unable to visit the famous temple of Bhavānī at Tuḷjāpūr, dedicated with great solemnity a temple to Bhavānī on Pratāpgad fort.[4] In 1778 Sakhārām Bāpū, a famous Poonā minister, was confined by his rival Nānā Phaḍṇīs in Pratāpgaḍ and from here secretly removed from fort to fort until he perished miserably in Rāigaḍ. In 1796 Nana Phaḍṇīs, flying from the intrigues of Daulatrāv Shinde and his minister Bāḷobā to Wāī and the Konkaṇ, threw a strong garrison into Pratāpgaḍ and went to Mahāḍ.[5] In the Marāṭhā war of 1818 Pratāpgaḍ surrendered by private negotiation, though it was an important stronghold, had a large garrison, and could much annoy the country round Wāī.

A road was constructed by the then P. W. D. from the village Kumbhrośi up to the main door of the Fort in 1957. An equestrian bronze statue of Chhatrapati Shivājī Mahārāj was erected in the year 1957. The statue which measures 17 feet in height was unveiled by Pandit Javaharlal Nehru, Prime Minister of India on the 30th November 1957. The statue is placed on a square edifice which is 20 feet high. The management of the statue rests with the Pratāpgaḍ Shivsmārak Samitī.

A *dargā* of Afzalkhān is constructed a little away from the fort to the south-east of the Afzalkhān Buruj where an *urus* is held annually in the month of January or February. The management of the funds for the *urus* is in the hands of the Afzalkhān Tomb Committee.

A guest house and a national park have been recently (1960) built near the statue. The foot steps leading to the fort have been repaired recently.

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1 Government lists of Civil Forts (1862).

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 119.

3 Details of the interview and murder are given above.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 144.

5 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 261.

CHAPTER 19.
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Places.
PUSESAVLI.

Pusesāvli, (Khaṭāv T; 17° 25′ N, 74° 15′ E, RS Rahimatpūr 18 m. NW; p. 3,166) in Khaṭāv, is twelve miles south-west of Vaḍūj. It has a high school named Mahātmā Gāndhī High School run by the *Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṅsthā*. In 1818, while pursuing Bājīrāv, General Smith's division reached Pusesāvlī on the 27th of January[1].

RAHIMATPUR.

Rahimatpur, (Koregāṅv T; 17° 35′ N, 74° 10′ E; RS. p. 8,055) in Koregāṅv, on the Sātārā-Tasgāṅv road, seventeen miles south-east of Sātārā, seven miles south of Koregāṅv, and about three miles beyond the bridge on the Kṛshṇā at Dhāmner. Besides the municipality, Rahimatpūr has a civil court, a post and telegraph office, a training college for men, a market yard and a high-school. The chief object of interest in the town is a mosque and mausoleum, which with the name, show that Rahimatpūr was a head-quarter town under Muhammedan rule. The mosque which is still in a fair state of preservation is about forty feet long by twenty feet broad and opens to the east. The inner roof is divided into six vaulted divisions made by two lines of saracenic arches running from north to south and two from east to west. There is a good deal of ornamental work about the arches and walls. The shafts of the pillars supporting the arches are in a single rectangular course. The roof above is flat with a small parapet and projecting eaves supported by brackets at intervals. East of this is a raised stone platform forty-five feet square and three feet high with a projecting margin, and in the centre a pipe for a fountain. To the east of this again is a domed mausoleum about thirty feet square. The usual tomb inside the spring of the dome is about twenty feet off the ground and the whole about forty feet high. In the centre of each side is a small door about two feet by five broad. The mausoleum seems to have been built in honour of Raṇdullākhān, a distinguished Bijāpūr officer who flourished in the reign of the seventh Bijāpūr king Mahmud (1626-1656) He died about 1650 (H. 1053 or 1069). The mosque has four inscriptions one on each side which is quite legible even to this date (1960). The east side inscription runs : On the death of Raṇdullākhān Sāhib Bahādur he went to heaven on account of his merits. He was reckoned as one of the brave in the world. He died while speaking. The date of his death is 1053 H. Nothing like this ever happened. There was a saying in heaven that this man was one of the lords of the world. He obtained a place in the heaven of heavens near the gods. This is a wonderful occurrence.

Mosque.

The west side inscription runs :

This Raṇdullākhān was highly praised by people for his good acts, and because he assisted the kings' throne he was given the rank of minister. This chief got the victory over many forts, strong and fine in appearance. He was charitable, kind, strong, and at the same time learned; thus this man was known throughout his life for these qualities and his fame was spread throughout the world. This famous Vazir died with all his pomp, in the year 1059H.

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[1] Pendhari and Maratha War Papers, 200, 209.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
RAHIMATPUR.
Mosque.

The north side inscription runs :

This is the wonderful 'Ghumaṭ' of the holy Raṇdullākhān which is famous throughout the world. The air of this Ghumaṭ is excellent like heaven, and the Ghumaṭ being wide, looks beautiful. The chief, friendly to Raṇdullākhān, ordered this inscription to be written. While they were writing there was a word from God. There is no Ghumaṭ like this Ghumaṭ. Raṇdullākhān Sāhib whose body was like the sun, rested peacefully in this Ghumaṭ in 1059 H.

The south side inscription runs :

By the grace of God this man was blessed in his life as he was in a former state of existence. His body was handsome. He became victorious in every war and was very skilful in assaults and battles. Being inventive he had need of no one. He confided in no one and did every thing for himself. He conquered every famous place. He was the most valorous in the world, this Raṇdullākhān Sāhib.

About a hundred yards south-east of the mosque, on the south of the road, is a tower about fifty feet high with a slope bending down to the ground on the west. This is an elephant water-lift which supplied power for the mosque fountain. At Brahmapuri on the Kṛshṇā, three miles south-west of the town, is a Hindu temple of Viṭhobā, in whose honour a yearly fair lasting for a month is held in *Mārgshīrsh* or November-December and is attended by about 8,000 people. In April 1791 Major Price noticed Rahimatpūr as a considerable town marked by a mosque with a swelling dome[1]. While pursuing Bājīrāv, General Smith reached Rahimatpūr on the 6th of February, 1818 and here he was joined on the 7th by General Pritzler and the combined force went to Sātārā[2]. In 1827 Captain Clunes describes Rahimatpūr as a market town belonging to the Paṭvardhans with 500 houses, 110 shops, a water-course and wells[3].

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 8,055. Of this the agricultural classes numbered 4,722 and the non-agricultural classes 3,333. Of the latter, 1,192 persons derived their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 1,033 persons from commerce; 103 persons from transport; and 1,005 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality.
Constitution.

Rahimatpūr is a municipal town with an area of 12·3 sq. miles where municipality was established in 1953. It is governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901; the total number of members in the municipal council is 15. Two seats are reserved for women and one seat is reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Besides the managing committee there are committees for education and health.

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[1] Memoirs of a Field Officer, 260.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 489, Pendhari and Maratha War Papers, 213.

[3] Itinerary, 32.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

RAHIMATPUR.

Municipality.

Income and Expenditure.

The total income of the municipality for the year 1957-58, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 46,390, from municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 31,381; municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 2,813; grants, Rs. 10,844; and miscellaneous, Rs. 1,352. The total expenditure for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 41,610, general administration and collection charges being Rs. 8,058; public safety, Rs. 3,682; public instruction, Rs. 8,242, and miscellaneous, Rs. 3,367.

Medical Facilities.

The municipality runs a dispensary named as 'Rahimatpūr Municipal Dispensary' which gets a contribution from the Government. There is also a veterinary dispensary managed by the District Local Board to which the municipality pays a contribution and also provides a building.

Drainage.

There are *pacca* stone gutters on both the sides of the main road and all the rest are *kaccha* gutters.

Water Supply.

Wells and *nallas* form the main sources of water supply. All the wells are cleaned annually and proper care is taken to disinfect the water supplied.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town. The District School Board manages primary education towards which the municipality pays an annual contribution of five per cent. of the total annual letting value. The municipality does not maintain any high school but pays an annual grant to the high school conducted by the Rahimatpūr Pañchkroshī Shikshaṇ Maṇḍaḷ.

Miscellaneous.

The total length of the roads within the municipal area is eight miles, four furlongs and 222 feet. There are no asphalted roads, the metalled roads measuring one mile and four furlongs.

The municipality does not maintain any library but pays an annual contribution of Rs. 100 to the town library *viz.* 'Hindi Library'

SADASHIVGAD.

Sadāśivgaḍ, (Karāḍ T; 14° 50′ N, 74° 05′ E; RS. Karāḍ, 1 m. S; p. 5,173) four miles north-east of Karāḍ, is one of the chain forts built by Shivājī. Its defences consist of a low scarp of black rock with some light walls originally nine feet high now nearly in ruins. The ascent is by a very steep little frequented path from a hamlet of the same name on the south of the Karāḍ-Bijāpūr road. The top is about twenty-three acres in extent and uninhabited. On the north side is a high gateway fallen into a well and there were four high bastions which fell about 100 years ago. The fort has also some ponds dug in the soil but not built in with masonry and some cave ponds all empty. On the hill top is a small temple of Mahādev at which a fair is held on the last Monday of *Srāvaṇ* every year which is attended by about 4,000 to 5,000 people. In 1862, Sadāśivgaḍ was noted as a dismantled and ruined fort. It had no garrison and had no water or supplies[1]. A number of activities were undertaken in the village Sadāśivgaḍ

[1] Government List of Civil Forts (1862).

under the Community Development Schemes such as construction of a well for drinking water and buildings for primary schools and *Samāj Mandir.*

SATARA.

Sātārā, (Sātārā T; 17° 40′ N, 73° 50′ E; RS Sātārā Road 10 m. p. 4,103) so called from the seventeen or Satarā walls, towers and gates which the Sātārā fort was supposed to possess, is the head-quarters of the Sātārā district. With a height of 2,320 feet above sea level Sātārā is about sixty miles from the coast, sixty-nine miles south of Pooṇā and seventy-six miles north of Kolhāpūr. Sātārā town is bounded on the north by the Pooṇā-Sātārā road, on the west by the Yavteshvar hill, on the south by the fort, and on the east by an offshoot of the fort hill. Its greatest length from east to west is about two miles and from north to south about one and a half miles. Seen from a distance of nearly three miles on the new Pooṇā-Sātārā road, the town is situated at the base of the fort, and in a semicircular recess on the south-western border of the valley formed by the fort and the Yavteshver hill. It is built on the slope below a range of hills which form the end of a spur running down from the Sahyadris near the hill station of Mahābaḷeśvar which is twenty-nine miles to the north-west. This high situation has given a great advantage in health since all drainage goes to the Yennā on the north by means of many small brooks rising from the hills on its three sides. The tableland, which stretches along the summit of the Sahyādri hills as far as Mahābaḷeśvar, varies very much in width; at Sātārā it ends in a rock the highest peak of which is about 1,500 feet above the town. Close under the peak is the small but sacred temple of Yavteshvar. From the peak the range slopes rapidly down to the south-west corner of the town where it has been tunnelled to form a roadway.

Description.

In the vicinity of the tunnel, hydro-electric generation is made from the flow of water coming from the Kās Tank of the Sātārā City Municipality. The generation is made by a private company. Continuing its course to the south-east it rises again 900 feet above the plain and forms the steep flat-topped hill known as Maṅgḷāī Devī or the Sātārā fort. This dominates the south of the town. A bold spur jutting northward from Yavteshvar and a small shoulder projecting similarly from the fort form partial enclosures on the east, west and south. The best view of the town and neighbourhood is from the fort. Immediately below, the town is seen well wooded and partly sheltered on the north-west by a spur of the Yavteshwar range and completely so on the west and south by the connecting saddle-backed ridge and the fort which stands in a dilapidated condition. The different spurs running from the Sahyādris in a south-easterly direction stand out like giant buttresses enclosing between them rich valleys along the centre of which rivers, fed by the springs along the high land and by the rain falling on the neighbouring hills, run a rapid course and are discharged into the Kṛshṇā. On the north-east, at a distance of about

twelve or fifteen miles, is a spur of the Mahādev range of hills among which the hill forts of Chandan Vandan (3841) and Nandgiri (3537) stand out conspicuously; whilst the huge hill of Jaraṇḍā, sacred to God Hanumān, is seen raising its vast crest, about seven miles to the east of the town.

A visitor from Pooṇā will probably enter the municipal limits by the village of Karañjā. He may note just west of that village, north of the road, the small pillar which marks the site of Auraṅgzeb's encampment and victory in 1700. Passing the race course on the right, and leaving the main road a mile further on, he will continue his course to the travellers' bungalow. Thence meeting the old Pooṇā road he will start due south up the hill, till he again joins the main road at the post office, passing the treasury and head-quarter offices on his right. From the post office he will have choice of two roads for entering the town. Taking the lower which runs due west he will pass between the jail on the left and the Police head-quarters on the right. A quarter of a mile further are the live-stock and grain markets in an open space on the left and the vegetable and meat markets on the right. The street here turns south-west and meets the main thoroughfare of the city in the Bhavānī Peṭh. Turning again west, of the sixty yards passing between the Central office of the Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṅsthā and the chief constable's office, he will find himself in a square. The western side is lined with the old and new palaces of the Rājās Pratāpsinh and Āppā Sāheb, now the Pratāpsinh High School and District Judge's Court. In front of the High School the statue of Pratāpsinh Mahārāj has been erected at a cost of Rs. 12,000 on the occasion of the 1857 centenary celebrations to commemorate the part played by him in the upsurge. Its south-west corner contained the stables of the Rājā, and the north-west, the road leading to the *Jalmandir* or water pavilion. The water pavilion was built by Pratāpsinh in 1824-25. It then passed on to the British and was given by them to the Municipal committee for its office in 1876. Having seen these he will return to the square, and taking the road past the south wall of the High School, will pass Shupakar's Tank, and continuing west out of the city to the storage reservoirs. Returning again to the square and driving east he will go by the main thoroughfare past the Civil Hospital, and the principal mosque of Aminā Nāikiṇ, the Rotary Garden and the new *Datta Mandir* and meet the upper road which started from the post office junction. Turning up this to the right he will pass successively the Raṅgmahāl or private palace of the Rājās, the old Adālat vāḍā or public offices on the left and the Sachiv's and Daphḷe's mansions on the right. Passing this road, and keeping to the left, he will reach the tunnel by driving through which a fine view is obtained of Paraḷī and the Urmoḍi valley. In this manner most of the objects of interest will have been passed. The southern part of the town is most of it on a slope, some of it rather steep being the lower declivities of the fort hill. The centre of the town is fairly level and remarkably well wooded,

but a good deal cut up by the streamlets which run through it. The chief stream is the Kṛshṇeshvar which runs from Yavteshvar. The main street is a broad thoroughfare while the lower road is also wide. But the buildings in both are of small pretensions and there is little either picturesque or attractive in the streets, apart from the people and shops which impart plenty of life and variety. The square containing the old and new palaces is fairly large and the effect of the large buildings on its west is not unimposing though it is disfigured by the mean buildings on the eastern side. Altogether, the town, though pleasing when viewed from the fort and beautifully situated, hardly gains on acquaintance with the interior.

Climate.

The climate of Sātārā is one of the best in Western India. The hot season generally sets in about the beginning of March. Its beginning is sometime sudden and well marked, but more frequently gradual; and the heat of the weather increases pretty steadily during the month. The indoor thermometer reaches considerable elevation at an early period of the day not beginning to decline until eight in the evening. In ordinary years the heat reaches its maximum in April. In the early part of May the temperature somewhat declines; and after the middle of the month, westerly winds become more prevalent, and the air is cooled by the clouds which then begin to form on the neighbouring mountains. Throughout the hot season the early mornings are calm and serene and the air is cool and pleasant until about seven. After eight in the morning the heat rapidly increases. The early part of the day is generally still, or there is a light air veering from east to north. The exceptions to this generally occur in March, particularly about the period of the equinox (21st March), at which time a high hot land wind occasionally blows throughout the day. Soon after midday a strong westerly breeze sets in with a sudden gust, and continues to blow during the remainder of the day. This constitutes the hot wind of this part of the Deccan. It begins during March, between twelve and two at noon, and generally by midday in April and the first half of May, after which it is usually the prevailing wind throughout the twenty-four hours. It blows with considerable strength and is hot, dry, and disagreeable until sunset, when it becomes milder and less gusty, and towards dusk it gradually gets soft, cool and refreshing. When it does not set in, till after two, it generally, continues warm and unpleasant until late in the evening. In the early part of May it rarely retains its warmth beyond five in the evening, after which hour it is comparatively pleasant, and in the latter half of the month it gains a pleasant degree of wetness and an invigorating freshness, in its passages through the mists, fogs and clouds which at that time gather on the summits of the Sahyâdris. In the early part of the season the westerly wind usually blows till eight or nine in the evening when it shifts to the northward, and is occasionally followed by a closed night; but during April and May the sea breeze generally blows with greater or less strength until morning and thereby ensures cool nights. April is both thermometrically and to the feelings the hottest month, March is thermometrically the coolest, but the

CHAPTER 19.
—
Places.
SATARA.
Climate.

climate of May is more pleasant to the feelings than either of the other two months. Two or three heavy thunder-showers from the eastward generally fall towards the end of May and occasionally one or two showers in April. Though always preceded by a close atmosphere these showers are generally followed by a considerable abatement of the hot winds. The heat of Sātārā then is neither immoderate nor protracted. It is rarely very oppressive to the feelings, nor does the climate in the hot season prove so relaxing or exhausting to the system as might be expected from its abstract temperature. This arises partly from the dryness of the atmosphere, but chiefly from its rarefaction and from the regularity and strength of the sea breezes. In a substantially thatched house, with the doors shut and the windows closed and screened between the hours of from seven to nine in the morning and five in the evening, the temperature in the hottest month of season usually ranges between 24°C and 29°C. *Tattis* are neither absolutely necessary nor do they do much good. A single *tatti* put up in the afternoon is useful as a means of renewing the inner air, rather than of cooling the apartment, its effect being to elevate rather than to depress the thermometer, in consequence probably of the wind blowing at that time from the seaward. In the outer air the wind is felt to be unpleasantly hot, but the reflected heat is by no means so great as might be expected, or as it is found to be in less elevated and more inland parts of the State. The parched and brown appearance of the surrounding country is agreeably relieved by the fresh foliage of the surrounding trees.

During the first half of June a gradual change is felt from dry and unpleasant heat of the hot season to the soft and refreshing temperature of the monsoon. On some days there is a genial softness of the air with westerly breezes; on others, and these perhaps the most numerous, the atmosphere is close and hot in the early part of the day; soon after noon clouds begin to form on the eastern horizon, and the day closes in with a heavy thunder-shower from the same quarters. These thunder-showers vary much both in frequency and severity in different years. The date at which the south-west monsoon sets in, varies in different years but it generally begins between the tenth and twentieth of June. For one or two days the characteristic initiatory monsoon clouds are observed to cap the summits of the surrounding hills accompanied by a delicious freshness of the air, and at length the monsoon begins usually during the day, either with dense drizzling showers or with steady heavy rain continued for an entire day. The climate now gains the coolness characteristic of the Deccan monsoon; vegetation, which had partially sprung up under the influence of the preceding thunder-showers, now increases with astonishing rapidity, and in a few days the fields and surrounding hills assume the freshness and verdure of a northern spring. The weather throughout the remainder of June, and during the month of July and greater part of August, presents the same general character, modified to a certain extent by the relative quantity of rain. For about a fortnight in July the rain falls heavily. But during the rest of the monsoon there are two or

three heavy falls of a week or ten days each. The weather during these falls gets chilly and damp. The temperature is cool, equable, and very agreeable to the feelings, being alike removed from sultriness on the one hand and from unpleasant chilliness on the other; there is a pleasant alternation of dense dark gray sky with partial sunshine; a fresh breeze blows with scarcely any interruption from west-south-west and the rain chiefly falls in short though frequent showers, in the intervals of which exercise in the open air is very agreeable. The station is protected by the adjoining hills from the full violence of the rains and of the boisterous winds which prevail on the summits of these hills, and in a less degree on the narrow tract of country from their base to the sea-coast, while it is exempted from the scanty and uncertain falls and the frequent droughts of the inland country, only a few miles to the eastward. Although the occurrence of short and drizzling showers in the afternoon, which are generally most frequent in the scantiest monsoons, interferes with the evening exercise, no excessive dampness of the air is ever experienced indoors. Towards the end of August or beginning of September the showers become lighter, more partial, and of shorter duration; the air is sensibly drier and warmer but still pleasant, and the wind begins to shift at times to the northward of west, while clouds are again observed to rest on the tops of the higher hills, and occasionally in the morning to trail along their sides; and during the day elevated white fleecy clouds with large intervening patches of blue sky take the place of the darker and denser rain clouds of the previous months. During the latter half of the month (September) the air is at times close and sultry, but in general it is pleasantly moist and agreeable to the feelings. The winds are now light and variable, veering from north-west round by north to east. From the latter quarter proceed the thunder-showers that mark the close, as they usher in the beginning of the monsoon. Hailstorms too are occasionally experienced at this time.

The climate of the four monsoon months, which, but for the opportune fall of the periodical rains would prove the hottest part of the year, is in this part of the Deccan more agreeable than that of the cold season. The temperature in a house during three months of this period ranges generally from 22°C to 24°C; the atmospheric moisture is moderate, and exercise in the open air during the day may be indulged in with pleasure and greater impunity than during the months of the cold season. The rainfall at the civil hospital situated in the town usually exceeds that in the station situated a mile north-east by 15·24 to 20·32 cms. The month of October connects the rainy and cold seasons. During the first part of the month the sky is usually chequered with clouds; there are occasional short heavy showers, with or without thunder, from the eastward; the winds are light and changing, and the air is soft and occasionally close, though by no means unpleasantly warm. The atmosphere is without the bracing freshness so characteristic of the mountain air at this time; but, on the other hand, it does not partake of the oppressiveness which is felt on the coast. But when there is

CHAPTER 19.
—
Places.
SATARA.
Climate.

a deficiency of the late rains, a hot dry easterly wind sometimes prevails, succeeded by close nights. In the latter part of the month the sky is clear, and the air becomes dry and warm at midday. In the evening there is generally a light westerly wind and a heavy dew at night. The cold season, usually begins in the first week of November, after which, and during the two following months, the climate maintains a tolerably uniform and steady character. The mornings are still and cool, and frequently cold; and during November, but rarely afterwards, a smoky fog generally rests over the beds of the Yennā and the Kṛshṇā rivers until seven or eight. In the early part of the day, an easterly or north-easterly wind springs up, and blows with varying degrees of strength, but in general very moderately, until three or four in the afternoon, when it either subsides into a light easterly air, or draws to the southward, and is succeeded by a still night. In clear weather, during the early part of the season, there is a pretty copious deposit of dew. Towards the end of January the wind begins to draw westward in the evening, and in February the sea breeze generally sets in with great regularity between eleven and one and blows through the rest of the day, rendering the climate more agreeable than in the colder and drier months that precede it. Such is the prevailing character of the weather of the cold season. But there are frequent intervals of cloudy weather, which last for a week or ten days. The coldest weather is always experienced when the sky is perfectly clear, and the wind is either due east, or one or two points to the northward of east. A few showers of rain generally fall in the course of the cold months, but they are less frequent and less heavy at this station than in the district to the east. They occur most frequently in November, though occasionally at other times. A plentiful fall of the late autumnal rain is not less beneficial to the climate than it is to the crops of the cold season, and tends more particularly to temper the dryness and freshness of the east winds. The mean temperature in the four winter months, excluding October, usually averages from 20°c to 24°c, but though this is the coolest period of the year, the weather is not so pleasant as the monsoon climate. The air is often unpleasantly dry, particularly when the wind blows uninterruptedly from the east for several days in succession, without drawing round to the southward or westward. In the cold season the temperature sometimes varies as much as 22°c in twenty-four hours.

Soil.

The hills in the neighbourhood are composed of trap, capped in some places, as at Yavteshvar, with laterite. At Sātārā the soil varies in depth from two or three feet to perhaps fifteen or twenty and consists of soft, spongy, easily friable *murum* overlying the hard trap-rock.

Drainage.

Its situation on a hill-slope gives Sātārā excellent natural facilities for drainage. The slope is generally from south-west to north-east and the storm water is carried off from the west by the large Kṛshṇeshvar streamlet which rises in the hills beyond the Mahārdarā springs in the curve formed by the Yavteshvar range, whilst that

from the steep precipitous sides on the north of the fort is conveyed by six streamlets which flow through the town and, like the Kṛshneshvar, eventually discharge themselves into the Yennā. All these streams dry up after the rainy season is over.

Divisions.

Sātārā was first formally divided into seven divisions which are supposed to date from the reign of Shāhū I (1682-1749), who is reputed to have done much for the improvement of the town. The names were Ravīvār or Āditvār, Somvār, Maṅgaḷvār, Budhvār, Guruvār, Śukravār, and Śanivār, after the days of the week. There was also an independent division known as the Mācī close under the fort[1]. The village of Karañjā on the north and the suburb of Raghunāthpurā at its south-west corner; the quarter called Basāppā's Peṭh between Karañjā and the town, the village of *Goḍolī* three quarters of a mile east and the *Sadar Bazār* within the station from the Sātārā suburban municipality. The western and southern divisions, that is the Mācī and the Maṅgaḷvār and Śukravār peṭhs, are the oldest parts of the town proper, and probably all that existed up to the time when (1660) Shivājī, the Great, took up his residence in Sātārā and made it the seat of government. Each of the above divisions, though of unequal size, was compact and had tolerably regular boundaries. But they contained blocks or sub-divisions with distinct names. These blocks have since become separate divisions, and when such is the case the old names cling only to the remainder of the original divisions from which these blocks were formed. Hence the irregular shape and size of the present divisions of the town, which number twenty-three and together measure 725 acres.

Various sub-divisions of the *Peṭhs* which have now become separate divisions to form 23 divisions or *Peṭhs* are as follows :—

(1) Ravīvār Peṭh : *Pantācā Goṭ, Malhār Peṭh, Durgā Peṭh, Kesarkar Peṭh, Rājaspurā Peṭh.*

(2) Budhvār Peṭh : *Pratapgañj Peṭh, Sadāśiv Peṭh.*

(3) Somvār Peṭh : *Yādogopāl Peṭh.*

(4) Śukravar Peṭh : *Bhavānī (Gosāvipurā) Peṭh.*

(5) Maṅgaḷvār Peṭh : *Vyaṅkaṭpurā, Cimaṇāpurā* (Dhavalpurā), *Rāmācā Goṭ.*

(6) Guruvār Peṭh : *Basāppā Peṭh* (Nakaspurā).

(7) Śanivār Peṭh.

(8) Karañje Peṭh

(9) Raghunāthpurā Peṭh.

(10) Mācī Peṭh.

Of the eight original divisions or Peṭhs, Ravīvār Peṭh was the most easterly and was almost square, running through the whole length of the town. Next on its western side come a narrow strip,

[1] Māchī is the common name for hamlets attached to forts.

CHAPTER 19.
—
Places.
SATARA.
Divisions.

the Guruvār, then another narrow strip divided into two parts, that is the Budhvār or northern and the Śanivār or southern. West of the Budhvār division lay the Śukravār division of irregular shape and west of the Śanivār the Somvār division, another strip, and beyond it again, the Maṅgaḷvār division of irregular shape. To the south of the Maṅgaḷvār, Somvār, and Śanivār divisions was the Mācī.

The old Ravivār division contains the following blocks: In the north centre Pantācā Goṭ or Pant's shed, so called because it contained the residence of the Pant Pratinidhi. It has an area of ten acres. In the north-west the Malhār Peṭh has an area of ten acres. It was named after a faithful servant of Tārābāī named Malhār who looked after Rāmrājā. In the centre are Rājaspurā and Durgā Peṭh. Rājaspurā has an area of sixteen acres. Durgā Peṭh has an area of two acres. The south-west corner is named Kesarkar Peṭh and includes parts of the fort slopes. It has an area of twenty-seven acres. The area was named after Shāhū's teacher Jotyājī Kesarkar. There remains the present Ravivār division with an area of sixty-one acres. It has a large rest-house adjoining the Pooṇā-Kolhāpūr road. The Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṁsthā's buildings are located at the foot of the hill.

The Guruvār Peṭh has an area of twenty-seven acres.

The Śanivār Peṭh contains no separate blocks. It is the largest of all the divisions. The American Mission's Friendship Hall is located in the area.

The Budhvār Peṭh contains two blocks. The Pratāpgañj on the north-west, called after Rājā Pratāpsinh (1818-1839) has an area of twelve acres. Sadāśiv Peṭh on the south has an area of ten acres. It contains the meat and vegetable markets. There remains the Budhvār Peṭh with an area of thirty-four acres. It has rest-house built by the municipality in 1874 at a cost of Rs. 1,220 and a Government Agricultural School.

The Somvār Peṭh contains the Yādo Gopāḷ block, a narrow strip cut off from its south-west corner. It has an area of forty-seven acres and has a municipal primary school. The remainder or present Somvār Peṭh has an area of twenty-six acres. It has a big water tank divided in five parts and thus called as *Pañchpāḷā* tank. Also located are the New English High-School of the Deccan Education Society, the municipal maternity home and one municipal rest-house built in 1858.

The Śukravār Peṭh contained a block at its south-east corner, the present Bhavānī Peṭh which contains the old and new palaces and principal square of the city. It has an area of thirty-four acres. It has two reservoirs, two public gardens, a public hall, a veterinary dispensary, a library and the Union Club and the Western India Insurance Building. This is the busiest of all the Peṭhs and contains the District and Subordinate Judges' courts, head-quarter offices of the Assistant and Deputy Collectors and Magistrates, the principal

shops and banks of the town. The present Śukravār Peṭh has an area of 132 acres. This division contains the *Jalmandir* or water-pavilion, the Aryāṅgla Mahāvidyālaya, the Arkshāḷā and Koṭeshvar temple.

The western and large half of the old Mangalvār Peṭh contained the following blocks, now separate divisions, Vyaṅkaṭpurā, including a small block called Dhavalpurā has an area of twenty-six acres. South of Vyaṅkaṭpurā lies Cimaṇpurā with an area of sixty-five acres. East of Cimaṇpurā lies Rāmachā Goṭ with an area of forty-two acres. It has two water tanks in front of the Lakshmināräyaṇ temple. There remains the present Mangaḷvār Division with an area of eighty-six acres. It has two large ponds, a primary school of the Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṁsthā, a municipal rest house, two temples and a municipal open air theatre *viz*. Shri Shāhū Kalā Mandir.

The Mācī Peṭh contains no separate blocks. It has an area of twenty-seven acres, and has the *Raṅgmahāl*, *adālat*, the tunnel, a temple, a mosque and a *maṭh*.

Bassāppā's Peṭh is a detached sub-division about two hundred yards north of the Guruvār Peṭh. It has an area of two acres and was named after Shāhū's faithful store-keeper.

Raghunāthpurā the south-west corner of Karañjā has an area of eleven acres.

Karañjā Village, has an area of about half a square mile. It is the site of Aurangzeb's camp when he besieged Sātārā fort in 1700.

The Sadar Bazār, which belongs to the station but is under the municipality, has an area of twenty-eight acres. There are four private rest-houses and four schools three of them private and one Mission.

Roads.

A large portion of the town was originally laid out by the late Major-General Briggs a former Resident at the court of the late Rājā, and broad roads running from south to north and east to west were constructed as the principal thoroughfares. Twenty-eight miles and two furlongs of made roads are kept out of municipal funds.

The principal outlets from the town are, one at the post office where a large rest-house is situated on the Pooṇā Baṅgalore road, and whence branch roads, to Paṇḍharpūr by Māhulī and Koregaṅv, to Tasgāṅv by Rahimatpūr the old Pooṇā road, another by the tunnel at the south-west angle of the town which communicates with Paraḷī fort and by a cross road with the Baṅgalore road further south; and a third by the road running north from the Bhavānī Peṭh which joins the new Pooṇā and Mahābaḷeśvar roads about a mile from the town. From the post office a large street runs west to the Bhavānī Peṭh and another along the south of the town to the tunnel has not much traffic. From this another street branches west to the Bhavānī Peṭh. This is the broadest street in the town and contains the principal shops. There are two principal streets running from south to north, the one from

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SATARA. Roads.

the Adālat Vāḍā to Motī Cauk and so on through the length of the town, the other from the tunnel turning to the Bhavānī Peṭh. From the Bhavānī Peṭh also branch two main streets, the one northwards to the Poonā road and the other west-wards through the Mangaḷvār and Vyankaṭpurā divisions.

Tunnel.

The tunnel is cut through the base of an offshoot of the hill to the south of the town for securing communication with the roads leading to Karāḍ in the south-east and to the fort of Paraḷī in the south-west, the burial place of Rāmdās Svāmī. It was dug in 1855, soon after the death of the last Rājā of Sātārā, under the direction of Captain P. L. Hart. A tablet built at the entrance shows that the tunnel was completed in 1855 at a cost of Rs. 29,000.

Houses.

The better class of houses are, as a general rule, built upon a plinth of well chiselled cut-stones with a superstructure of burnt bricks and roofed with good seasoned wood sometimes with an upper storey. The outer walls of the principal houses of this class are strongly built with a gateway leading into an open court-yard with a verandah running all round the main building. The rooms and upper storeys have generally windows facing the courtyard. The roofs of the houses are invariably covered with the flat brick tiles made in the town. The front storeys have in some cases balconies facing the roads which add to the appearance of the building.

The houses of the poorer sort have generally a coarse rubble plinth and are built with sun-dried bricks, the walls being in many cases plastered with mud. They have only groundfloor, and when they have an upper storey or loft it is generally set apart as a lumber room. They have the doors generally opening into the streets, and in some instances a row of small windows. The ventilation of these houses is very defective as it is only from the low doorway opening into the street by which air finds admittance into the house in the daytime, while during the night the door being closed, ventilation is obstructed. All these buildings are also covered with tiles. The internal arrangement of these houses is generally regulated according to the social position, means, and the religious prejudices of the owners. Houses of the better sort, belonging to well-to-do contain generally a separate god-room, cook-room, sleeping room, store-room, and a hall, the hall being generally more spacious and open to light than the other apartments. The rooms for the female members of the family and bathing rooms are also provided for in the rear of the building. Privies, cattle-sheds and stables are detached from the main building. Poor houses cannot afford such conveniences, but when the owner of such a house happens to be a Brāhmaṇ these objects are attained by the use of reed or bamboo partition walls plastered with mud. If, however, the house is sufficiently large, mud-walls are built to form the requisite number of rooms for accommodation. Some of the newly built houses have been provided with means of ventilation and the old practice of carving the figures of animals of any mythological characters on the wood work of the

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
SATARA.
Houses.

building has died out. Except the figures of such mythological characters as are considered both devotional and virtuous, coloured paintings on the walls are replaced by yellow, blue and pink paints.

The houses of Muhammedans have the halls and the female apartments more spacious and well ventilated, the rest of the internal arrangements of the buildings being the same as observed in Hindu houses. The Parsees, who form but a very small portion of the community have their houses built entirely after European fashion.

Management.

Sātārā is throughout the year the seat of the Judge and Civil Surgeon, and of the Collector, the Assistant and Deputy Collectors, the Police Superintendent, District Forest Officer and District Engineers for irrigation and public works. It is also the headquarters of the District Agricultural Officer, Assistant Registrar Co-operative Department, Marketing Inspector, Sales Tax and Income Tax Officers, Excise Superintendent, District Statistical Officer, Chief Revenue and Police Offices of the Sātārā taluka. There are also located in the city municipality, a church, a jail, a court-house, a civil hospital, a high school, a civil jail, post, telegraph and telephone offices, the offices of the staff officer, a travellers' bungalow, and fort.

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 38,521. Of this the agricultural classes numbered 2,672 and the non-agricultural classes 25,849. Of the latter, 6,768 persons derived their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 8,348 persons from commerce; 1,340 persons from transport; and 19,398 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

City Municipality.
Constitution.

At Sātārā a municipality was established on August 1, 1853 which was declared as town municipality in 1873 and which subsequently became city municipality in March, 1884. Sātārā City Borough Municipality covers an area of 1·3 sq. miles. It is now governed under the Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act, 1925. There were in 1957-58, 33 members in the municipal council. Three seats are reserved for women and three for scheduled castes, and the principle of rotation is followed. There are in all seven executive committees *viz.* (1) Standing Committee; (2) Public Works Committee; (3) Sanitary and Drainage Committee; (4) Water Works Committee; (5) Maternity Hospital Committee, (6) Finance Committee and (7) Law and General Reference Committee, each dealing with matters in the respective fields.

The income of the municipality for the year 1957-58 amounted to Rs. 6,32,987, from municipal rates and taxes Rs. 3,99,556; from municipal property and powers apart from taxes Rs. 68.103; from grants and contributions for general and special purposes Rs. 1,52,770 and from miscellaneous and other receipts Rs. 12,558. The total expenditure incurred for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt expenditure amounted to Rs. 8,84,286 comprising general administration and collection charges, Rs. 83,216; public safety, Rs. 23,394; public health, Rs. 4,51,490; public instruction, Rs. 23,394 and miscellaneous and other expenditure, Rs. 1,51,912.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

SATARA.

City Municipality.

Administrative Organisation.

The administrative organisation of the municipality is as follows :—

	Department		Designation of the Head
1.	Office Department	..	Chief Officer and Engineer.
2.	Collection Department	..	Vasuli Superintendent.
3.	Octroi Department	..	Octroi Superintendent.
4.	Sanitary Department	..	Sanitary Inspector.
5.	Public Works Department.		Engineer.
6.	Water Works Department.		Engineer.
7.	Maternity Hospital Department.		Lady Doctor in charge.

These departments carry out the following functions *viz.*, to look after general administration; to recover all the taxes and fees under municipal rules and bye-laws; to recover octroi on the imported goods within the municipal limits as per rules; to keep the sanitation of the city in order and to take necessary measures in epidemics for general health of the citizens; to maintain municipal buildings, parks and roads in good order; to arrange for adequate water supply to the city and to provide for maternity patients respectively.

Medical Facilities.

There is no dispensary maintained by this municipality, except the Pūjya Kasturbā Maternity Hospital, Sātārā. The Civil Hospital, Sātārā, located in Guruvār Peṭh is a Government Hospital. There is one veterinary dispensary named N. M. Wadia Veterinary Dispensary run by the District Local Board. The municipality pays an annual contribution on the basis of average animal patients treated in the area coming under the municipal limits. On an average the contribution comes to about Rs. 500 a year.

Drainage System.

The city surface water and all waste water is mostly carried out through the open drains on either side of the roads into ten *nallas*. The essentially sloping situation of the city is favourably suited to such surface drainage.

Nightsoil is removed from the town by motors. The filth is taken to the Geṇḍā Māḷ, an open space to the north, where it is stored in pits dug in the ground. Here are also removed and buried all dead animals.

Water Supply.

For the water supply of the city the Kās Tank was constructed by the municipality in 1886.

The water of about thirty springs issuing forth on the Yavteshvar hill was brought to the town by masonry channel built in Chhatrapati Shāhū's times (1682-1749). The same scheme was improved upon by his successors. However, due to the uncertainty of rains the supply was not sufficient. The Kās Tank scheme was thus undertaken in 1881 and by 1886 the Kās Tank and the canal were built by the municipality at a cost of Rs. 3,69,164. The water from the Yavteshvar springs is also tapped along with the Kās water. Kās Tank lies on a hill at a distance of 13 miles to the west of the town. It is 3,670 feet above sea level and has a catchment area of 2·75 sq. miles. The dam is 714 feet long and 5½ high. The tank at its full

City Municipality.
Water Supply.

capacity holds 7,37,37,000 sq. feet of water. Water is allowed to pass at 80 sq. feet per second through the sluice-gate. Then it is taken through the canal 15·25 miles long to the Yavteshvar Filter. Here the water of the Yavteshvar springs is collected and taken through pipes to the settling tank at Sambarvāḍi. After treating with alum the water is taken in pipes to the Power House at the foot of the hill. The tail water from the power house is chlorinated and taken through pipes to the town.

The Mahādare Tank was built by Chhatrapatī Pratāpsinh. It is 260 feet long, 257 broad and 29 and a half deep. The water of the tank is taken in pipes to Bhavānī, Mangaḷvār, Chimaṇpurā, Vyankatpurā, Sadāshiv, Pratāpganj, Budhavār and Karañja divisions.

Besides these major water-supply schemes there are 57 public tanks. five tanks for animals and some wells in the town.

Education.

The primary education is managed by the City Municipality through its School Board. As regards primary education the municipality has been declared as an authorised municipality since 1925. It maintains 17 primary schools within its limits. The net expenditure incurred by the municipality during 1957-58 was Rs. 1,56,936 including Government grants on primary education. Total grants received during the same year amounted to Rs. 92,161. In the same year the total number of teachers was 125 and that of pupils 6,570.

Roads.

The total length of roads within the municipal area is 28·25 miles of which 2·37 miles are asphalted, 13·63 miles are metalled and 12·25 miles are unmetalled.

Names and the length of the main roads are as follows :—

	Name of the road	Length in feet
1.	Bhavānī Peṭh main road- Javāhar garden to Povaī Nākā (*via* Civil Hospital).	6,200
2.	Sadāśiv Peṭh Road Motī—Cauk to Povaī Nākā *via* Police Headquarters.	5,600
3.	Povaī Nākā to tunnel *via* Adālat Vāḍā.	9,400
4.	Yādogopāḷ Peṭh Road, Mirekar Cauk to Old City Post.	2,250
5.	Kamānī Haud to Rang Mahāl Road.	1,600
6.	Jail to Pooṇā-Bangalore Road *via* Phalṭaṇ Nākā.	2,060.

The municipality maintains no special fire-fighting equipment except one fire-fighter-*cum*-water-sprinkler motor truck.

Other Amenities.

Both the cremation and burial places are outside the municipal limits. The cremation place is on the bank of the river Kṛshṇā at a distance of three miles from the city. There are two burial places

CHAPTER 19. Places. SATARA. City Municipality.

at a distance of about one mile to the north of the city, one is reserved for Muhammedans and the other for non-Muhammedans. The municipality maintains a vegetable and fruit market where bazar is held twice a week.

Markets.

The municipal market in Sadāśiv Peṭh has three distinct buildings for fruits and vegetables, meat and fish. In the vegetable market there are 72 built stalls, 20 tin sheds, six plinths where 114 sellers can sit and also some open space which is also rented by the municipality. The mutton market is a separate building with 25 stalls. The fish market has five stalls.

The fruit market in Bhavānī Peṭh has 12 built stalls, nine tin sheds and a plinth to accommodate 15 sellers.

Besides, there are two open market places in the town. On every Sunday traders in grains gather in the open space in front of the Palace and on Thursdays grains and animals are brought for sale near 'Paraj' or jail.

The municipality has constructed one open air theatre 'Shri Shāhū Kalā Mandir' at a cost of about Rs. 3,200. It accommodates about 3,000 persons at a time. The theatre is well equipped with a green room and a make up room and all the stage equipment and furniture, curtains etc. It has been provided with electric lighting arrangements. It is made available to all at very moderate charges.

There are four municipal gardens in the city *viz.*, the Pratāpsinh Udyān and the Javāhar Garden in Bhavāni Peṭh, the Shāhu Udyān in Guruvār peṭh and the Rotary Garden in the Durgā Peṭh. The Pratāpsinh Udyān is reserved for women and children while the other three are open to all. All of them are provided with benches and playing instruments for children.

The municipality also maintains a swimming pool.

The municipality does not maintain any library but it pays an annual grant of Rs. 100 to the local general library known as "Nagar Vāchanālaya".

There are two co-operative societies of the municipal employees, one is known as Udār Co-operative Credit Society and the other as Ekvichār Co-operative Society, Limited.

Satara Suburban Municipality.

Sātārā Suburban Municipality with an area of four square miles was established in 1890 and is now governed under the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. The Municipal council is composed of 12 members. One seat is reserved for women and three seats for the Scheduled Castes. There are three committees *viz.*, the Managing Committee, the Garden Committee and the Works Committee. The administrative organisation is composed of the Municipal Secretary as the head, and the Vasuli department and other departments for octroi, sanitation and dispensary.

Constitution.

Places.
SATARA.
Suburban Municipality.
Income and Expenditure.

The income of the municipality for the year 1958-59 excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 69,748·20nPs, municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 55,254·77 nPs ; realisations under special acts, Rs. 714·93 nPs ; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 3,500·27 nPs ; grants and contributions, Rs. 4,441·74 nPs, and miscellaneous, Rs. 5,836·49 nPs. Expenditure incurred for the same year excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 60,806·43 nPs ; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 16,792·40 nPs ; public safety, Rs. 84·00 nPs. ; public health and convenience, Rs. 21,801·64 nPs. ; public works Rs. 4,589·33 nPs ; and miscellaneous Rs. 17,539·06 nPs.

Water Supply.

The Sātārā City Borough Municipality supplies tap-water to the suburban municipal area through the Government.

Drainage System.

At present there is no special drainage system for the town. Water flows through stone lined and *kachha* gutters. The municipality has formulated a scheme for the construction of new pucca gutters at a cost of Rs. 20,000.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town and is managed by the District School Board. The municipality pays its contribution at the rate of 5 per cent on the rental value of the property.

Medical Facilities.

The municipality runs two dispensaries, one in Goḍolī and the other in Sadar Bazār. The municipality has a scheme for constructing a maternity ward which will cost Rs. 20,000.

Other Amenities

There is a mutton market, a beef market and two slaughter houses managed by the municipality.

For fire emergency, the municipality has one hand pump loaded on a water tank.

Within the municipal limits there are five miles of asphalted roads, three miles of metalled and two miles of unmetalled roads. A scheme costing Rs. 20,000 is chalked out by the municipality for the construction of new roads.

Cremation and burial places are managed by the respective communities. Muhammedans have their burial ground within camp area.

The municipality maintains two gardens. At present work is going on for setting up a children's park. For street lighting the municipality has mercury vapour lights at nine prominent places and 75 electric lamp posts.

Gardens.

Most of the vegetable and fruit gardens are to the north of the Budhvār Peth between Sātārā and Karañjā and are worked by the Māḷis of Raghunāthpurā.

The station has a fair collection of roses and other plants at the recreation ground, while there is also a Government recreation ground supported partly by voluntary subscriptions.

CHAPTER 19.
—
Places.
SATARA.
Objects.

As explained above, most of the ancient town was under the fort walls. According to tradition Shivājī used to reside principally in the fort. He and his successors used the old Adālat Vāḍā as a court for the transaction of business. The Peshvās afterwards kept it entirely to their own use. The Raṅg Mahāl was used as a pleasure house and on the shoulder of the fort was the Rāṇīs' pleasure house, principally used by them for witnessing the *Dasarā* processions. Neither these nor any other of the old buildings seem to have been remarkable for elaborate carving or for architectural decorations. The rooms were low and the court-yards the reverse of spacious. Nothing of an imposing nature seems to have been attempted till Rājā Pratāpsinh built the old palace in 1824. Out of these, the Adālat Vāḍā is still in sound condition being under regular maintenance and is used as residence by the Rājā of Sātārā. Raṅg Mahāl is in dilapidated condition and is not inhabited and of the Rāṇīs' pleasure house only the four walls now remain called *Cārbhinti*. On the occasion of the centenary of the freedom movement of 1857 a cemented post measuring 27′ high was erected at the centre of the *Chār bhinti* in memory of the martyrs. The cost of construction was Rs. 3,500. At the base on one side is an image of the late Rāṇī of Jhānsī with a sword and a shield. On the other side is an image of Raṅgo Bāpūjī the last statesman of the Marāṭhās. Raṇgo Bāpūjī Gupte fought for Chhatrapatī Pratāpsinh for thirteen years and actively participated in the 1857 freedom movement.

Adālat Vāḍā.

The Adālat Vāḍā is situated at the base of the fort walls not far from the post office junction on the road to the tunnel. Its plinth is about ten feet high on the outside and was so built in order to obtain a level basement as the slope of the hill is considerable. The gateway is plain; a flight of a dozen steps leads to the court which is as usual rectangular about 50 feet square surrounded by buildings, mostly inhabited only in the upper storeys, the lower being long verandahs opening on to the courts. Behind this is a solid block of buildings. The whole covers about 225 feet by 160. The civil courts were held in this building till the new palace was appropriated by Government in 1876. The *Adālat Vāḍā* is the abode of the descendants of the Sātārā Rājās at present.

Raṅg Mahal.

The Raṅg Mahāl, about 220 yards east of the Adālat Vāḍā, was originally a rectangular building facing north about 100 feet long and 50 feet wide on an enclosure 150 feet wide. It was burnt in 1874, when the high school which had been held in it since 1849, was transferred to the old palace. Shāhū I died at the Raṅg Mahāl which therefore must date from at least as early as his reign. Directly in front of it is a large enclosure known as the mansion of the *Senāpati* or Commander-in-chief. The walls have all been pulled down since its confiscation at the banishment of the Senāpati with the Rājā Pratāpsinh. The enclosure was nearly 350 feet square.

North of this is a rectangular building with two wings which used to be the elephant stable in the days when a number of them were required for State purposes. North of this again was the Mamlatdar's

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
SATARA.
Objects.

Kacheri or office. It consisted of the eastern half of a mansion which originally belonged to the Shirkes, one of the most ancient Marāṭhā families, and was confiscated by Government after the upsurge in 1857, on proof of the association of the elder Shirke.

Daphle's Mansion.

About a hundred and twenty yards beyond the turn to the Sachīv's mansion is that of the Daphḷe, another of the principal feudatories and Chief of Jath. It is of about the same size as the Sachīv's mansion and has a plantain and palm garden to the north. The descendants of late have been residing pretty constantly in this mansion. About eighty yards north of the Sachiv's mansion along the same street is Nātū's mansion, belonging to the descendants of Baḷvantrāv Nātū, one of the principal adherents of Rājā Shahājī. This mansion is noteworthy as being much used in former days by the Peshvās as their private residence.

Pant Pratinidhi's Mansion.

The Pant Pratinidhi's mansion is situated in the Pant's Goṭ and is not in any way remarkable. Adjoining it in the south is a large set of stables. The treasury and account offices with those of the permanent head-quarters of Magistrate and Deputy Collector are situated in a block of buildings known as the *Hajiri* bungalow. They are north of the Pooṇā road close to the post office junction. The treasury is in a two-storeyed block in the centre. The other, Central Excise and Soil Conservation offices are in buildings lining the sides of the enclosure. A broad causeway leads on to the large open space forming the present race course. The name of this set of buildings is taken from the fact that it was the head-quarters and muster or *hajiri* ground of the army in Marāṭha times. The buildings occupy a space of about 200 feet square. The present buildings were erected by Daulat Khān, the commandant of the cavalry or *risālā* under the last two Rājās, out of savings accumulated from the sale of stable manure.

The police head-quarters are directly opposite the jail and about equal in size to the Hajiri bungalow. They were originally the head-quarters of the cavalry belonging to the last two Rājās.

Dasarā Sports.

On a shoulder of the fort-hill are the vestiges which speak little about the small palace once used by the Rāṇīs as a pleasure-house, and principally for viewing the Dasarā sports. These sports were one of the principal institutions under Marāṭhā rule. They were held in honour of the slaughter of a demon named *Mahishāsūr*, by the *devī* who was created by Shiv at the intercession of the minor deities on account of the devastations caused by the demon. This demon had the form of a buffalo centaur. The ceremonies, therefore, commenced with the slaughter of a buffalo before the shrine of Bhavānī, the patron goddess of the Marāṭhās, the fatal blow being given by the Rājā himself. But first the buffalo was taken in procession round the city very much in the character of the Jewish scape-goat as a victim to carry away the sins and evils, bodily or spiritual of the city. This slaughter was an act of merit, though no Hindu

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SATARA. Objects. *Dasarā Sports.*

will eat his flesh which was given to the outcastes. On the same day an unlimited number of sheep and goats were also sacrificed in honour of Bhavānī. Great veneration was paid to horses who were decorated in fantastic fashion and also formed a principal part of the procession. The forehead of every horse was anointed with the blood of the sheep or goat, and after that the flesh was eaten by the grooms or horse-keepers. The next ceremony after the slaughter of the buffalo, which took place generally towards evening, used to be the great procession headed by the Rājā and followed by all his nobles. In this procession it was a point of honour that the nobles should bear all their insignia and come in the highest state for which they were entitled. For instance, a noble entitled to sit in a *pālkhi* would be bound so to appear, and his appearance on horseback would be disrespectful. About the neighbourhood of the Hajiri Bungalow were planted numerous *āpṭā* trees typical again of the demon who was slain on the day. The procession over, the Rājā struck the first tree and his followers the rest. The leaves of the tree were then gathered by the populace as the spoil of the demon. They were considered typical of gold pieces, and were afterwards given to friends as complimentary presents and wishes of good luck. The day terminated with the chief *darbār* or State assemblage of the year on which offerings were made to the reigning prince who in his turn bestowed dresses of honour, titles and rewards[1]. The only other buildings of Marāṭhā times worth mentioning are the Farās Khānā or store-house of camp equipage and the *pāgā* or Rājā's stables both adjoining the large square.

Water Pavilions.

In the Bhavānī Peṭh are two water pavilions or *jalmandirs*, the old and the new. The old pavilion, which was laid out by Rājā Pratāpsinh in 1824-25, is a plain one-storeyed building and had one room of which the walls and ceilings were covered with looking-glass. It is occupied by the local municipality by whom the building and a small garden attached to it have been repaired recently. A pretty little pond between the municipal office and the garden adds to the attraction of the place. The new water pavilion owned by Ābā Sāheb Bhonsle was laid out by Rājā Pratāpsinh's brother much about the same time as the old building. It has a large and beautiful garden divided into two parts, the upper or western and the lower or eastern. The upper part contains the water pavilion, which is two-storeyed and built on a pavement in the centre of a small tank. It had also a mirror-room of two apartments, one containing pictures of Indian and Anglo-Indian celebrities. The walls and ceiling of the other were completely covered with mirrors. The garden contains a large number of cocoa and betel palms and other fruit trees besides a good number of flower plants. It is intersected with parallel paths paved with well chiselled stones. The lower or eastern portion of the garden contains a pleasure-house. The buildings, and gardens are up to the present time well taken care of and are frequented by people.

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[1] For details see Old Satara Gazetteer, Appendix D.

The palace in the Bhavānī Peṭh, which is a good specimen of Indian architecture, is a four-cornered block of buildings, occupying several acres of ground and the large open space in front admits of its being seen to advantage. There is nothing very imposing about the facade, the white plastered surface of which is only broken by numerous large windows and their wooden framework. A low verandah on wooden pillars runs along the ground floor. There is some carving about the wood-work, but it is too minute to produce any general effect on the building. The palace is in two blocks, one block called the old and another called the new. The old palace built in 1824, by Rājā Pratāpsinh can be seen to advantage from a distance of more than a mile in the east, while its terrace at the top fifty feet from the ground commands a full and extensive view of the whole town up to the base of the surrounding hills. Its right wing contains a large cistern for the use of the inmates of the palace. The front hall has two balconies on either side of the gateway from which the chiefs and the royal family used to look at the sports in the large open space below. This palace is occupied by the local high school and was used as a relief house during the 1876-77 famine. The old palace is now used for housing the Government High School *viz.*, Pratāpsinh High School. The balconies are used for Primary School, Municipal School Board Office and some Government departments. The other block of the building, that is, the new palace which had the paintings of Jay and Vijay (symbols on the Hindu temple doors) is an improvement upon the old one and was built by Rājā Shahājī in 1838, to supersede the Rang Mahāl, a building of less pretensions immediately under the fort. A large portion of the building containing fifty-two rooms consisted of women's quarters. The most distinguishing feature of the building is its solid structure. A gateway leads into a court-yard surrounded by a broad colonnade. The paintings of mythological subjects and hunting scenes once spread over the wall have almost faded away. The audience hall at the upper end on the western side of the courtyard dedicated to Bhavānī, the patron goddess of the Marāṭhās, was built by Rājā Shahājī in 1844. The hall is eighty-three feet long, forty-five broad and twenty-five high. The roof is supported on two parallel longitudinal rows of teak beams, sixteen in each row with scollopped horse-shoe arches between the pillars. The pillars during the Rājā's time were covered with tapestry consisting of rich brocade with profuse gold embroidery and spangles, while the sides of the hall were hung with costly materials of brilliant coloured Ghazni silk. The hall is surrounded on three sides by rows of fountains, which when in play threw up jets of water nearly twenty-five feet high. In a small but richly carved room opening from the colonnade was the royal throne. Near the throne-room is another in which Bhavānī, the far-famed sword of Shivājī, was kept. In the times of the late Rājā, during the *Navrātra* holidays in Āśvin (September-October), the shrine of Bhavānī in the palace was much thronged with visitors from the town and the district, especially by the relatives, dependents, and retainers of the Marāṭhā nobles. In 1876, the palace was taken possession of by the British Government

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SATARA. Objects.

and the audience hall, together with a part of the colonnade on either side, was occupied by the courts of the district and subordinate judges and of the higher district officers. The hall was used as an audience and reception hall on occasions of grand state ceremonies. At present in addition to the District and Junior Courts it is used to accommodate the Mamlatdar's Office, Treasury, State Bank, Sātārā City Survey Office, Divisional Forest Office etc.

Frere Almshouse.

The charitable institution called the Frere *Annachhatra* or Almshouse was founded on the 17th of September. 1854 under Government authority to commemorate the services rendered by the late Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere when Commissioner of Sātārā between 1848 and 1850. A fund was raised by voluntary contributions and was distributed every Sunday, Tuesday and Thursday morning among the blind, the lame, and the helpless. At a place to the east of the town and north of the Povaī nākā is a tree near which the charity distribution of grains took place twice a week. The tree has a stone-work or *pār* round it bearing a Marāṭhī and an English inscription. The English inscription runs :

> "This Testimonial in conjunction with a charitable institution has been erected in the year 1865 by subscription of *Jāgirdārs* and others as a respectful tribute of gratitude and memory of His late Highness Shahājī Rājā of Sātārā and of H.B.E. Frere Esquire, the British Commissioner, Sātārā."

Jail.

A large building in Sanivār Peṭh, built originally for a jail by the Rājā Shahājī, was used for that purpose till 1864. Owing to its defective arrangements a new jail covering six acres of land was built in 1864 in Malhār Peṭh on the site occupied by the Rājā's arsenals, opposite the police head-quarters. The jail buildings were built by a gang of nearly 150 Chinese convicts. It is a sub-jail, accommodating about 160 persons. There are eight barracks and 21 cells. There is a small detached building in the jail used as a hospital. Within the jail is one cistern supplied with cooking and drinking water from the Mahārdārā reservoir. There is also a pond which serves as a reservoir for rain and spring water, ordinarily used for watering the jail garden, and in the hot season when the supply at the cistern is generally scanty, for cooking and washing. The pond is the result of quarrying for the outer jail walls. Within the walls is a small garden where country and European vegetables are grown. The other buildings are the office of the jail superintendent who is the civil surgeon and the manufactory. Among the articles turned out by convict labour are tapes, ropes, trouser cloth, towels, napkins, table-cloth, blankets, and cane work.

Civil Hospital

The Civil Hospital established in 1940 is situated in the Durgā Peṭh on the south of the large thoroughfare connecting Bhavānī Peṭh with the tunnel road. The enclosure covers some 3·05 acres. Since the Civil Hospital has taken possession of these buildings formerly occupied by the Mahārājā of Sātārā as stables for his horses and elephants and for housing his army men, a number of

ancillary buildings have been erected to accommodate medical and surgical wards, operation theatre, record and store room, lunatic cells etc. These spacious though plain structures are built in brick masonry and provided with Mangalore tiled roofing.

Municipal Office.

The municipal building is on the north-east corner of the new palace, and consists of the old Jalmandīr. The frontage of the municipal building is an addition to the old Jalmandīr. It is conveniently situated adjoining the most busy quarters of the town.

Nagar Vāchanālaya.

The *Nagar Vāchanālaya* is at the south-east corner of the Bhavānī square. It has English, Marāṭhī, Sanskṛt and Hindi books and it subscribes to the daily, weekly and monthly papers, vernacular and English and is much used as a reading room by the people.

Maṅgaḷvār Taḷe.

Maṅgaḷvār Taḷe is situated in Maṅgaḷvār Peṭh and was formerly known as *Shripatrāv Taḷe* after Shripatrāv Pant Pratinidhi. In the temple on the western bank are the shrines of God Mārutī and Bhavānī Devī. The latter dates back to Shri Shāhū Chhatrapatī.

Schools and Colleges.

Besides the 17 municipal primary schools and the Government Pratāpsinh High School and the Technical High School-*cum*-Industrial School there are a number of schools in the city. These are the New English High School, the Popular English School, Bhavānī Vidyālaya, the Mahātmā Phule Adhyāpak Vidyālaya, the Aryāṅgla Mahāvidyālaya, the Sayājirāv High School the Kanyā Shāḷā the Rāshtra Bhāshā Vidyālaya, the Krāntī Smṛtī Vidyā Mandir and the Jijāmāṭā Adhyāpikā Vidyālaya. For college education there is the Chhatrapatī Shivājī College with faculties in arts and science and a training college *viz*., the Āzād Training College.

Temples.

None of the Sātārā temple buildings are of any beauty or antiquity[1]. Some of these were built by the Sātārā chiefs and some by private persons. Only a few temples deserve a mention in the Gazetteer. The *Gārechā Gaṇapatī* in Chimanpurā receives an annual Government grant of Rs. 80. The *Bhavānī*, the *Kāḷārām* and the Viṭhobā temples are in the Maṅgaḷvār peth. Of these the *Bhavānī* temple dates back to the reign of Chhatrapati Shāhū (1682-1749) and receives an annual grant of Rs. 45. The *Kāḷārām Mandir* is called after the black stone image of the God and Kaḷambī village is allotted for its maintenance. The temple of *Ḍholyā Gaṇapati* in Māchī has a huge image as is suggested by the name and receives an annual grant of Rs. 48. The *MāṭyāñchāRām*, the *Kāsūrdevī* and the *Māruti Mandīr* are in the Shanivār peṭh. The *Gorerām Mandīr Pratāpgañj*, the *Kṛshṇeshvar* temple in Sadāśiv and the *Koṭeshvar* temple in Śukravār are worth mentioning.

Mosques.

Of the mosques, the important are the Khatiba mosque in Mācī, the Śanivār mosque in Guruvār peṭh, the Daulatkhan mosque in Ravivār, the Aminā mosque in Durgā and the Mhatba mosque in

[1] The Satara city temples are so poor because Mahuli, three miles to the east is the place of devotion for Satara and contains all the best temples. Details are given above under Mahuli.

CHAPTER 19.
—
Places.
SATARA.
Objects.
Mosques.

Budhvār. The costliest of these mosques is in the Dargā built at a cost of Rs. 1,00,000 by the late Rājā Pratāpsinh at the request of Aminā, a dancing girl. It is a plain domed whitewashed building about fifty feet by forty and fifteen feet high. The building fronts east with four saracenic arches, another row running down the centre of the building. The arches are ornamented in floral patterns of tolerable workmanship.

Station.

The station, ten miles immediately east of the town, has an area of three and a half square miles. It is situated very pleasingly on high ground about a mile from the right bank of the Yennā at the point where the stream reaches the more open vale of the Kṛshṇā into which it falls two miles lower down at Māhulī. Owing to the less confined position of the station, the amphitheatre of hills rising from the borders of the two rivers are seen to much greater advantage than from the town. Some of the hills in question, among which Candan Vandan, Jaraṇḍā, Yavteshvar, and the hill fort of Sātārā stand prominent, show in their most striking forms the distinctive features of the secondary trap formation and give a character of peculiar beauty to the scenery of the Sātārā valley. These hills form most striking objects in the landscape from their boldness and variety in shape and colour. They environ the station on the north south, and west in distances varying from two to eight or nine miles and reach heights approximately from 1000 to 1300 feet above the plain, the forms most general in them being table-shaped and hog-backed.

The surface of the station is well wooded and contains a large extent of grazing ground cut by several natural streamlets carrying the drainage into the Yennā. The soil immediately round is very shallow and consists chiefly of a light friable yellowish red *murum* formed from the decomposed trap with very little alluvial soil. But the black mould gradually deepens as it approaches the Yennā From the rapidity with which the porous substratum of the soil soaks moisture and from the sloping nature of the ground the surface very soon dries after the heaviest monsoon rains. There is very little watered land around and the neighbourhood is free from malarious influences. The station is most excellently provided with roads which intersect in all directions and in many places are beautifully shaded. The old Pooṇā road over the Nīrā bridge skirts the camp limits on the north west and the road to Kolhāpūr, which is part of the Pooṇā-Bangalore road. skirts its southern boundary above which lies Goḍolī village which is included in the camp limits. The road to Rahimatpūr, which is part of the Sātārā-Bangalore road, runs south-west through the station, while that to Māhulī which is part of the Sātārā-Paṇḍharpūr road, passes nearly due east through its upper part. In the hot weather the aspect of the station is bare and brown as is inevitable. But the abundant rainfall in the monsoon clothes the surrounding hills and large open spaces with brilliant green and gives a park-like appearance to the whole landscape. There are few who will not be struck with the unusual verdure of

Sātārā during the rains as compared with most Indian stations. This lasts usually well over October and seldom entirely fades till late in November, when occasionally it is restored by a late fall of rain. The surrounding country is not good for riding and there is but little game. But the drives are excellent. Few views are more beautiful than those of the Kṛshṇā at Māhulī and Vaḍuth, and of the Urmoḍī valley looking either south-west from the *Khind*, a small opening in the hills three miles south along the Pooṇā road.

The magnificent avenues of trees on the old Pooṇā road are a sight in themselves, and delightful views of the hills are to be had up the Yennā valley by driving either along the Mahābaḷeshvar road as far as the shoulder which runs out to the north-east of the town or along the new Pooṇā road to the Yennā bridge. The race course, too, is a fine open space whence the country round is excellently viewed.

Proceeding down the Māhuli road from the post office junction, the first building on the right is the Executive Engineer's office. A little further to that on the same side are the Collector's office and the Collector's bungalow known as the Residency, in the premises of which are the District Sailors', Soldiers' and Airmen's Board, the District Pañchāyat Office and the Development office. Just behind the Collector's Bungalow is the Chhatrapatī Shīvājī College of the Rayat Shikshaṇ Saṁsthā of Karmavīr Bhāūrāv Pāṭīl. To the north is the District Local Board Office. A few hundred yards to the north of the Residency is the Inspection Bungalow of the Buildings and Communications department. Inspection bungalow has now been occupied by the *Sainik* school and the travellers bungalow has temporarily been converted into an Inspection bungalow. A further on is a building belonging to the Central Government and known as the parole camp. It is occupied by the Police department for training Police recruits. The Sātārā Suburban Municipal Office comes next and then the Sadar bazār or the camp area. Opposite the Inspection Bungalow another road turns almost due west following which for 100 yards is reached the municipal garden on the right and further 150 yards on the same side is the Church. The parade ground lies between the polytechnic and the camp area.

The station has a church of St. Thomas besides two chapels situated in the camp area. None among these structures have a claim to architectural beauty.

Fort.

The chief places of interest within easy reach of Sātārā are Paraḷi, Pāṭeshvar, Yavteshvar,[1] and the fort. The steep-sided and flat-topped hill fort of Sātārā lies to the south of the town and at the end of one of the many Sahyadri spurs jutting south-east along the Yennā valley. It rises rather abruptly to the height of about 900 feet and commands the town and the view of a most extensive and superb panorama of hills among them Candan and Vandan and the lofty ridge of Jarandā on the east, Yavteshvar and other hills on the west, and

[1] Details are given above under Parali and Pateshvar and below under Yavteshvar.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.
SATARA.
Objects.
Fort.

Paraḷī to the South-west. It stretches for about 1,100 yards from east to west and 600 yards from north to south. Its summit is shaped like a triangle, the eastern portion of the rampart with a strong tower in the north stretching from the north-eastern to the south-eastern angle forming its base. It is defended by a steep perpendicular precipice of black rock about forty feet high surmounted by a masonry stone work and breast-works with loopholes for defence. There are only two gates one in the north 150 yards from the north-west angle and the other a mere sallyport on the south side, the same distance from the south-east angle. The approach to the last is almost inaccessible from steepness. That to the other is by an excellent path from the station. This path is about eight feet wide. It is about two miles long and starting from Goḍolī village strikes the shoulder of the fort hill on which a pillar has been erected on the occasion of the centenary of the war of Independence of 1857. It crosses the shoulder about half a mile further on and at a gentle gradient follows the northern slope of the hill till within about 250 feet of the top and directly under the western angle. It then turns sharp round to the east and becoming steeper runs up to within fifty feet of the northern gate, where it again turns south. Outside the gate is a small hamlet. Bastions at the western angle and at an angle a hundred yards north-east of the gate command this path on two sides. The old paths connecting the fort with the town are very steep and zigzag to the gate where they join the present path. the one from the junction of the tunnel road. Very recently a path which joins the point of *Kirti Stambha* with the street which runs to Bhavānī Peṭh and the other about a hundred yards east of the Adālat Vāḍā has been widened. The path up to the gateway is within the range of gunshot from the rampart above, and the nearer it approaches the gateway the more vertical to the base of the rampart are the loopholes till within but a few yards of the entrance door where the way is exposed to fire from the bastion in the north-east. The walls are of various materials from the huge boulders of pre-Muhāmmeḍan times to the small masonry of the later Marāṭhā. They are generally not less than ten feet thick with a parapet two or three feet thick and much the same in height.

There remain on the top a few barren ponds, a dilapidated palace built by the last Peshvā Bājirāv (1796-1817) and other small constructions. In the north-eastern angle just on the brow of the strong tower is a temple of Mangḷāī Devī, the guardian deity of the fort. Out of these buildings only the temple of Mangaḷādevī is maintained and is in good condition. Other buildings have been demolished except a small one. After the 1857 uprising it was thought necessary to garrison the fort with a small number of European troops but after a time this practice was discontinued. The nearest hill commanding it is that of Yavteshvar within 3500 yards. All the slopes within 2000 yards were cleared of forest and the slopes on the south and north-east, which belonged to Ābā Sāheb Bhonsle were purchased for that purpose.

CHAPTER 19.
Places.
SATARA.
Objects.
Fort.

About 1190 A. D. the fort is said to have been built by the Kolhāpūr Silāhāra Chief Bhoj II. (1178-1193), better known as Bhoj Rājā of Panhāḷā in Kolhāpūr, and at the time of its building two Mahārs, one a boy and the other a girl, are said to have been offered to the place-spirit and buried alive at the west gates. Satārā fort was always kept in excellent order by the Bijāpūr Government and used as a State prison. Here were imprisoned Chāṅdbibī, widow of Ali Ādilshāh I (1557-1580) in 1580 and Dilāvar Khān, a Bijāpūr nobleman, in 1592. Shivājī captured it after a three months' siege in September, 1673. It was besieged by Auraṅgzeb and taken after five months' siege in April, 1700, but retaken in 1706 by a stratagem, Chandāsāheb. son of the Nawab of Arkot, was confined here on his capture by the Marāṭhā force which invaded the Madrās Karṇāṭak in 1747. Since 1749 it was used as a prison for the Rājās of Sātārā when under the domination of the Peshvās. Once only did the Rājā rise in 1798 and used the fort as a stronghold, but finding it destitute of provisions he surrendered to Parashurām Bhāū Paṭvardhan who took possession of it. The Peshvās occupied it till the 7th February, 1818 when it surrendered to General Smith.

History.

The earliest mention of Sātārā appears to be in the reign of the fourth Bahamani king Muhammad Shah (1358-1375) when with other forts Sātārā fort is said to have probably been built.[1] In 1579 the Bijāpūr minister Kishvar Khān falsely accused Chāndbibī, the dowager queen, of instigating her brother Murtazā Nizām Shah, king of Ahmadnagar, to invade Bijāpūr, and sent her a prisoner to Sātārā after subjecting her to many indignities.[2] But in the same year, on Kishvar Khān's fall, Chāṅdbibī was released.[3] In 1592 Dilāvar Khān, the Bijāpūr regent, was sent a prisoner to Sātārā where shortly after he died.[4] In 1673, after the capture of Paraḷī Shivājī laid siege to Sātārā fort which had been kept in good order by the Bijāpūr Government, and took it after a siege of several months.[5] In 1686, Shārzā Khān of Bijāpūr, who was sent by Auraṅgzeb to invade Sambhājī's districts marched towards Sātārā.[6] In 1692, Rāmchandrapant Bāvḍekar, one of Rājārām's high officers, fixed his residence at Sātārā where by the aid of his head writer Shaṅkrājī Nārāyaṇ he not only attended to every military disposition but regulated the revenue and established order.[7]

In 1699, at the recommendation of Rāmchandrapant, Rājārām made Sātārā the seat of the Marāṭhā Government[8]. In 1700, while the Marāṭhās were directing all their preparations towards the defence of Panhāḷā in Kolhāpūr, Auraṅgzeb appeared suddenly before the fort of Sātārā, and pitched his tents to the north on the site of Karañjā village. Āzam Shah, Auraṅgzeb's son, was

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II 325-326.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III 148.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III 150.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, III 172-73.
[5] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 202.
[6] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 262.
[7] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 285.
[8] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 294.

stationed at a village on the west side which has since borne the name of Śahāpūr. Shārzā Khān invested the south side and Tarbiyat Khān occupied the eastern quarter; and chains of posts between the different camps effectually secured the blockade. The fort, with provisions hardly enough to stand a two months' siege, was defended by Prayāgjī Prabhu Havāldār who had been reared in Shivājī's service. He vigorously opposed the Moghals and disputed every foot of ground as they pushed forward their advanced posts. As soon as they began to gain any part of the hill he withdrew his troops into the fort and rolled huge stones from the rock above which did great execution and, until they threw up cover, were as destructive as artillery. In spite of Prayāgjī's efforts the blockade was completed, all communication with the country round was cut off, and as the small stock of grain was soon exhausted, the besieged must have been forced to surrender had not Parashurām Trimbak Pratinidhi, who had thrown himself into the fort of Paraḷī, bought the connivance of Āzam Shah and brought provisions to the besieged. The grand attack was directed against the north-east angle, one of the strongest points with a total height of sixty-seven feet of which forty-two were rock and twenty-five masonry. Tarbiyat Khān undertook to mine this angle and at the end of four months and a half completed two mines. The besieging party was so confident of success that Aurangzeb was invited to view the spectacles, who marched from that side in such a grand procession that when the match was ready, hundreds of Marāṭhās and among them Prayagjī, drawn by the splendid retinue, crowded to the rampart. The first mine was fired. It burst several fissures in the rock and caused so violent a shock that a great part of the masonry was thrown inwards and crushed many of the garrison in the ruin with Prayāgjī the commandant, who was afterwards dug out alive. The storming party in their eagerness advanced nearer when the match was applied to the train of the second and larger mine, but it was wrongly laid and burst out with a dreadful explosion destroying about 2,000 Moghals on the spot. Prayāgjī's escape was considered a lucky omen, and under other circumstances might have done much to inspirit the garrison to prolong the defence. But as Āzam Shāh could no longer be persuaded to allow grain to pass into the fort, proposals of surrender were made through him, and the honour of the capture, which he so ill deserved, was not only assigned to him but the place received his name and was called by the emperor Āzam Tarā[1]. About this time the news of Rājārām's death, which happened a month before the fall of Sātārā, was received in the emperor's camp with great rejoicing.[2] In 1706, Sātārā was surprised and re-taken from the Moghals by Parashurām Trimbak Pratinidhi by the artifice of a Brāhmaṇ named Āṇṇājīpant. This man, who had escaped from prison at Jiñjī in Tañjore and assumed the character of a mendicant devotee, fell in with a party of Moghal infantry marching to relieve the Sātārā garrison. He amused them with stories and songs, obtained alms from them and so ingratiated

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Elliot and Dowson, VII 367-368.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 300.

himself with all that they brought him with them, admitted him into the fort, and, in reward for his wit, allowed him to live there. Aṇṇājīpant, who had been a writer attached to a body of Mārāṭhā infantry saw that, with the aid of a few of his old friends, the place might be surprised. He watched his chance, told Parashurām Trimbak of his design, and having introduced a body of Marāṭhā soldiers into the fort, the enterprising and remorseless Brāhmaṇ put every man of the garrison to the sword[1]. In the confusion which followed the release of Shāhū in 1707, the Pratinidhi took possession of Sātārā fort. Shāhū, joined by Dhanājī his general, sent an order to Parashurām Trimbak to surrender Sātārā. Parashurām disobeyed but Shaikh Mirā, a subordinate Muhammedan officer, confined him and gave up the fort[2]. On gaining possession of Sātārā, Shāhū formally seated himself on the throne in March, 1708. In the end of 1709, Shāhu, who had been out to renew the war, returned to Sātārā and married two wives one from the Mohite and the other from the Shirke family[3]. In 1713, an expedition under the Peshvā Bahiropant Piṅgḷe sent from Sātārā by Shāhū against Āṅgre failed. Bahiropant was defeated and taken prisoner by Āṅgre who threatened to march on Sātārā. All the force that could be spared was gathered to oppose him and placed under Bāḷājī Vishvanāth whose former connection with Āṅgre would, it was hoped, lead to some settlement. Bāḷājī's negotiations were successful and on his return to Sātārā in reward for his services he was appointed Peshvā[4]. In 1716, Khaṇḍerāv Dābhāḍe defeated two large Moghal armies, went to Sātārā, paid his respects to Shāhū, and was raised to the rank of *Senāpati* or general of the *Marāṭhā* empire.[5] About 1730, Sambhājī Rājā of Kolhāpūr encamped on the north side of the Vārṇā with his baggage, women, and equipment and began to plunder the country. The Pratinidhi surprised Sambhājī's camp and took many prisoners, among others Tārābāī, Rājārām's widow, and her daughter-in-law Rājasbāī, the widow of Shivājī of Kolhāpūr who were both placed in confinement in the fort of Sātārā[6]. In 1732, Bājīrāv, the second Peshvā assumed the command of the army in Māḷvā, and sent back his brother Chimājī and Pilājī Jādhav to Sātārā to maintain his influence at court and to concert measures for settling the Koṅkaṇ which was in a very disturbed state[7].

During the Peshvā's absence Kānhojī Bhonsle, the *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, was accused of disobedience and confined at Sātārā. Shripatrāv Pratinidhi, who was a friend of Kānhojī, endeavoured to obtain some mitigation of his sentence, but failed, and the brave Kānhojī died, after having lived there many years a prisoner at large[8]. In 1735, after Bājīrāv's successful return to Sātārā from his

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 308.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I 315.
[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 319.
[4] Grand Duff's Marathas, Vol I, 328.
[5] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 333.
[6] Grand Duff's Marathas, Vol. I. 375
[7] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. 1, 360.
[8] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 385.

campaign against the Sidis of Jañjirā, he was appointed *Subhedār* of the late acquisitions[1]. On receiving the news of Bajirāv's death in 1740, Chimājī Āppā and his nephew, who were in the Konkaṇ, returned to Sātārā after the usual mourning. Raguhjī Bhonsle, the Marāṭhā General, also came to Sātārā and prevented Bāḷājī Bājīrāv's succession as Peshvā, proposing for the vacant office Bābujī Nāik, a rich banker of Bārāmaṭī in Pooṇā and a connection, but an enemy, of the late Peshvā. Raghujī offered large sums to Shāhū on condition of Bābujī's being raised to the vacant Peshvāship. The Pratinidhi, although averse from the supremacy of the Peshvā, was still more hostile to the pretensions of Raghujī and, as he did not engage in the intrigue, Bālājī Bājīrāv aided by his uncle Chimājī was at last invested in August, 1740. On 26th of March Trichinopoly was taken by Raghujī and Chandā Sāheb the well known aspirant to the Madrās Karṇāṭak Navābship, was brought a prisoner to Sātārā where he remained in the custody of an agent of Raghujī Bhonsle till he was set free in 1748[2]. On the death of his uncle Chimājī Āppā, which happened in the end of January, 1741, Bāḷājī Peshvā returned from the northern districts and spent nearly a year in civil arrangements at Pooṇā and Sātārā and obtained from Shāhū a large grant of territory and revenues[3]. In 1743 after his Beṅgāl campaign, Bālājī returned to Sātārā, paid his respects to Shāhū and went through the form of producing his accounts of the revenue which were made up by himself as a General in command of a body of the Rājā's troops[4]. In 1749, Shahū died but not without a great trouble about his succession and the grant of a deed to Bāḷāji empowering him to manage the whole government of the Marāṭhā empire. Scarcely had Shāhū ceased to breathe when a body of horse gallopped into the town of Sātārā, surrounded and seized the Pratinidhi and his deputy Yamājī Shivdev, placed them in irons, and sent them off strongly escorted to distant hill forts. Every avenue about the town was occupied by troops and a garrison of the Peshvā's was placed in the fort, while a party was selected to reinforce the escort of Rām Rājā who had not arrived when Shāhū died. After making arrangements at Sātārā, Bāḷājī left (1750) for Pooṇā and henceforward Sātārā ceased to be the capital of the Mārāṭhā empire. Rām Rājā who had accompanied Bhāū, the Peshvā's cousin, to Sāṅgolā in Solāpūr, agreed to renounce the entire power and to lend his sanction to whatever measures the Peshvā might pursue provided a small tract round Sātārā was assigned to his own management, conditions to which Bāḷājī subscribed but which actually were never realised. The Rājā under a strong escort returned to Sātārā. The Peshvā in order to conciliate Tarābāī, Rām Rājā's grandmother,

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 389.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 422. Chanda Saheb was better known in the Deccan by his less familiar name of Husain Dost Khan. He does not appear to have been confined in the fort nor to have endured a close confinement. Ditto, footnote 3.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 424.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 430.

whose great age did not render her less active and intriguing, incautiously removed his troops from the fort of Sātārā and having placed in it the *gaḍkaris* and old retainers, who had great respect for Tārābāī, gave up the entire management to her. The Rājā was kept with a separate establishment in the town of Sātārā, but perfectly at large and a splendid provision was assigned to him and his officers, the expense of which amounted to the yearly sum of 65 lakhs of rupees.[1]

About this time, the French missionary Tieffenthaler describes Sātārā as a great city, the capital of the Marāṭhā Chief, a Rajput of the Sisodian family. On the back of a hill was a fine fortress with walls that looked like a hill as the rocks were used as a wall. On this wall of rock worked with the chisel was raised a wall of stone nine yards high. The fort had rich springs. It was taken by Auraṅgzeb but went back to the Marāṭhās.[2]

In 1751 after the Peshvā left for Auraṅgābād Tārābāī finding Rām Rājā unfit for her purpose sent messengers to Damājī Gāikvāḍ to march to Sātārā to rescue the Rājā and the Marāṭhā State from the Brāhmaṇs. Damājī at once acted on this request, and Tārābāī, as soon as certain accounts were received of the Gāikvaḍ's approach, invited the Rājā into the fort of Sātārā and made him prisoner. Trimbakpant Purandhare, Govindrāv Chitnīs, and other of the Peshvā's officers at Sātārā were at first disposed to ridicule this attempt of Tārābāī as that of a mad old woman. But on hearing of Damājī's approach from Songaḍ fort on the Gāikvāḍ-Khāndesh frontier they quitted the town and collected troops at the village of Ārle seven miles north-east of Sātārā. The next day they were defeated by Damājī who went to Sātārā to pay his respects to Tārābāī and several forts in the neighbourhood were given to her. Sātārā was well stored with provisions and the Pratinidhi promised to aid Tārābāī's cause. News of these proceedings recalled Bāḷājī. In the meantime Damājī was totally defeated and sent a messenger to treat with Bāḷājī. Bāḷājī solemnly agreed to abide by the terms proposed by Damājī and enticed him to encamp in the neighbourhood. As soon as Bāḷājī got him into his power, he took him a prisoner and sent him to Pooṇā[3]. The Peshvā then tried to induce Tārābāī to give up the fort and the Rājā. Some of the Peshvā's troops were impressed with the idea that Tārābāī was a *dev* or good spirit and others that she was *daitya* or evil spirit, but the Marāṭhās thought that she was a rightful regent. Under these circumstances Bālājī thought it safe to leave her unmolested. Tārābāī confined Rām Rājā in the fort in a damp stone dungeon giving him food of the coarsest grain. During the absence of Bāḷājī in Aurangābād Tārābāī occupied the districts of Sātārā and Wāī and large force was sent to Sātārā to starve her into submission. Ānandrāv Jādhav, the commandant of the fort, convinced of the folly of resistance formed the design of carrying the Rājā out of her

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, 272.
[2] Description Historique et Geographique de l'Inde, I 487
[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 413.

power. On learning this she ordered him to be beheaded and appointed one Bāburāv Jādhav, a person unconnected with the late commandant, to the command of the fort. In 1753 the Peshvā on his march to the Karnāṭak sent to assure Tārābāī that, if she would submit, the control of the Rājā's person and establishment should remain at her disposal. To this Tārābāī would not listen unless Bāḷājī Bājīrāv would come to Sātāra, acknowledge her authority and give such personal assurances as would satisfy her, but on assurances of safety and protection from the Peshvā she left the garrison of Sātārā and the custody of Rām Rājā's person to Bāburāv Jādhav and repaired to Pooṇā.[1] In 1772 after Mādhavrāv's death, his younger brother Nārāyaṇrāv repaired to Satārā where he was invested as Peshvā by the Rājā. But in the same year Nārāyaṇrāv was murdered and Amṛtrāv, the adopted son of Rāghunāthrāv, attended by Bajaba Purandhare was sent to Satara for the robes of office for Raghunāthrāv, which were accordingly given [2]. In 1774, after the birth of a son and heir to Gaṅgābāī, widow of Nārāyaṇrāv, the Sātārā Raja sent the robes of the Peshvā's office for her son in charge of Madhavrāv Niḷkaṇṭh from whom they were received by Sakhārām Bāpu and Nānā Phaḍṇīs who were deputed by Gaṅgābāī for that purpose.[3] At the close of 1777 Rām Rājā died at Sātārā having previously adopted a son of Trimbakji Rājā Bhonsle a *Pātil* and a descendant of Viṭhojī, the brother of Māḷojī, the grandfather of the great Shivājī. In a revenue statement of about 1790 Sātārā appears as the head-quarters of a *paragaṇā* in the Nahisdurg *sarkār* with a revenue of Rs. 60,000.[4] During the whole of 1792, owing to the dread that Mahādjī Shinde intended to make the Rājā an instrument for suppressing the Peshvās and Brahmanical ascendancy, Nānā Phaḍṇis almost entirely confined the Rājā to the fort of Sātārā, where not even his relations were allowed to visit him. After Savai Mādhavrāv's[5] suicide in 1795 disorder prevailed in Pooṇā for a time and Daulatrāv Shinde advanced with an army.[4] Nānā Phaḍṇis repaired in alarm to Sātārā with some idea of resorting the Rājā to supremacy. But owing to his recent treatment of him Shāhū had no confidence in Nānā and Nānā retired to Wāī. From Wāi he returned to Sātārā to receive the robes of investiture for Chimājī Āppā, the Peshvā set up by Shinde's' general Bāḷobā Tātyā as a rival to Bājirāv Rughunāth, but suspecting designs against him on the part of Bāḷobā he remained at Wāi.[6] In 1798 Shāhū rose and used the fort as a stronghold, but finding it destitute of provisions he surrendered to Parashurām Bhāū Paṭvardhan of Tāsgāṅv. In the last Marāṭhā war on the 8th of March 1818 the united army of General Smith and General Pritzler went to Sātārā and the fort surrendered on the 10th. The British colours were hoisted but only to be replaced by the *Bhagvā Jheṇḍā* or orche-coloured standard of

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas I, 472.
2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 6-7.
3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 16.
4 Warring's Marathas 240.
5 Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. II, 258.
6 Grant Duff's Marathas Vol. II, 259.

Shivājī. In accordance with Mr. Elphinstone's manifesto Rājā Pratāpsinh was established in Sātārā and Captain Grant Duff, the author of the History of the Marāṭhās, was placed with him to aid his councils and direct his conduct. On the 29th March Mr. Elphinstone rode with the Rājā through the Sātārā valley to Satara, which Pratapsinh entered with the pomp of a prince and the delight of a school-boy.[1] After taking Vāsoṭā, the British army returned to Sātārā, having on their way reduced the fort of Paraḷī. Strong military forces were stationed at Sātārā and Karāḍ. Shortly after a conspiracy was discovered for the release of Chitursinh, the murder of all Europeans at Sātārā and Poonā, the surprise of some of the principal forts, and the possession of the Rājā's person. The plot was suppressed and some of the conspirators executed. A treaty was made on the 25th of September 1819 under the terms of which Pratāpsinh was formally installed ruler. He supplied the city with Yavteshvar water and built some large public offices and a fine palace and pleasure grounds. On the 5th September 1839 Rājā Pratāpsinh was deposed for treason against the ex-British Government. His younger brother Shahājī was appointed his successor. He built and supported a civil hospital and schools and was liberal in expenditure on roads, bridges and other public works, especially the city water-works. He also finished the magnificent court-room and building known as the New Palace. Shahājī died in April 1848 without issue and on financial, military and political grounds it was decided to annex the State.

During the 1857 upsurge no outbreak occurred at Sātārā but evidence was discovered of a widespread conspiracy only a week before the date fixed for the rising. Measures were taken against any attempt at rising and on the 6th of August 1857, by order of Government, Shāhu the adopted son, the two Rāṇīs of Pratāpsinh, the adopted son of Bāḷāsāheb Senāpatī, and cousin of Shāhū were removed for confinement to Butcher's Island in Bombay Harbour. Guns were taken to and pointed on the palace in the early morning and the family were removed in closed carriages. Shāhū was afterwards allowed to return to Sātārā.

SHINGNAPUR

Siṅgṇāpūr (Mān T; 17° 59′ N, 74° 35′ E; RS Koregānv 53 m. SW; p. 1,145) in Māṇ, thirteen miles north-east of Dahivaḍi, is a famous place of pilgrimage situated in a nook of the Shikhar Shiṅgṇāpūr hills The hill, crowned by a temple of Mahadev to which the village owes its celebrity, appears at a distance like the points of a very obtuse-angled cone. It is the highest point for many miles and can be seen all the way from Dahivaḍi and from other parts of the Māṇ taluka. It is reached by a poor local fund road unbridged and undrained. But the main difficulties, namely the negotiation of the precipitous sides of the two valleys of the Māṇ and one of its tributaries, are made surmountable by passes,

[1] Colebrook's Elphinstone II, 30.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SHINGNAPUR.

though not of the best and the surface is passable for *tongās* or pony carts and country carts. The rains too are so light and intermittent in this part of the district that little difficulty would be experienced in visiting Śiṅgṇāpūr even during the monsoon, after reaching the irrigation bungalow of Gondvale, three miles south-east of Dahivadi. Nine miles north-east on the Śiṅgṇapūr road will be met the village of Vāvarhirā in one of the Māṇ ravines and here may be visited a curious old temple of Mahādev on the right as the eastern pass is ascended. The temple on the site of a fine spring is very rude but probably old. Six miles further north-east is Śiṅgṇāpūr. The tower and lamp-pillar of the great temple stand out distinct flashing against the glary sky. The hills look hopelessly bare and wretched. A mile from the village the road takes a turn to the south-east and then again resuming its north-east course runs through an opening of what turns out to be a cluster of hills into a space opposite the municipal bungalow. The road turns again at right angles to the westward and makes for the temple steps and a very pleasant camp is reached opposite a municipal rest-house. The neighbourhood is studded with tamarinds on all sides, and consists of a basin of land, shut in with low round-topped hills except at the south-east where is an opening, occupied by the village itself and some more mango and tamarind trees. At the foot of the eastern hills and the lowest point of this basin lies a great pond, T-shaped, the cross stretching north and south, and the stem, which is very short, to the west. Except where there are openings the pond is completely enclosed by walls. The walls are highest and strongest at the opening before mentioned where they constitute a masonry dam to the streams which could otherwise pour their waters away from those hills in a south-easterly direction. The wall at this part was quite ten feet out of the water and therefore probably twenty feet high at least. Its breadth here as every where else, it about five feet, while nowhere does the masonry appear to have given way. The flood-mark of the water appears at four feet from the wall top; and the leakage from the pond is very great. On the south where lies the village is a set of bathing *ghats* or steps. These, with the solid and square built houses of the village which give it almost a fortified appearance, have a very picturesque aspect viewed from the north end of the pond. The wall is everywhere studded with projecting stones to enable bathers or others to climb up and down. At the east end is a sluice through which water is let out to garden lands, while in the north-east corner and the centre of the north bank are two water-lifts by which water is drawn from wells dug in the sides of the pond.

The pond covers an area of about forty acres, and were it made properly watertight would apparently hold a good deal of water. This is curious as the catchment area is very small indeed, and the rainfall light and capricious. There is also no side of the pond left open letting in rain torrents. Any such waters must either filter in under the wall or get in through the small openings which are placed

haphazard and at intervals for the entrance of bathers and the like. Thus the pond would seem to have been formed merely to retain whatever water fell immediately over it, and from that point of view it certainly holds a surprising amount. Soil has accumulated behind the walls which block the chief water-courses and thence are formed the plots on the north and the north-east irrigated by the water-lifts, while on the west is a similar accumulation of soil which produces excellent grass till late in the hot weather. To reach the temple the way passes west of the camp along the municipal road. After about two hundred yards, the first hundred of them on a rude pavement, begin the steps very rough and varying in breadth. After the first thirty steps comes a small temple of Mahādev standing right in the centre of the causeway. It is a small modern temple about fifteen feet long by six feet broad and ornamented with a small tower. A little further on is a small shrine of Khaḍkeshvar Mahādev and from here an ascent of one hundred and fifteen steps, the last few of them rather steep, leads to the first gateway. This gateway was built about two hundred and thirty years ago by a *Dhangar* of Nājhra village ten miles south-west of Sāngolā in Sholāpūr. and consists of a rectangular building forty-two feet high, forty-one feet two inches broad, and fifteen feet nine inches thick, with a single pointed arch about thirty-two feet high and fourteen feet ten inches cut through it.

The building has a flat wide roof and stone eaves, about two feet broad and resting on twenty-two brackets, project horizontally from it. In the side walls of the arch are chambers seven feet square and about six feet high vaulted and with sides open to the west and to the interior of the large archway. Each contains the image of an elephant roughly worked in stone, and from each staircases lead up to the roof. Two-thirds of the way up are arched windows looking east. The threshold is a foot high from the ground, and at the centre is cylindrical block girded with a coil of ornamental chain work raised in relief. This seems intended to receive the bolts of folding doors which should have been fitted to the archway. On each side of this block are two rough bits of carving which may be intended for the satyr-like masks usually placed at the entrance of the temples and public buildings. Water is always poured on the centre block by worshippers. On the outer or eastern side are two platforms or plinths one on each side of the entrance eleven feet two inches long and thirteen feet eight inches broad and three feet nine inches high. The whole building is made of small rectangular blocks of stone roughly cut and set in mortar. Immediately inside the arch on the left hand is a small niche containing a rough slab of black stone which is an image of Māngobā, the god of the Māngs. The steps for some sixty yards are very broad and the rise is scarcely felt. It then steepens for about another 150 steps till the second gateway is reached which forms the entrance to the court-yard of the great temple. This gate-way the court-yard and the temple itself were built by the great Shivājī (1630-80). The lower gateway is rather larger than this but mere copy of it. This

gateway is thirty-four feet wide, thirty-eight feet high, and thirteen feet thick. The arch is pointed as on the lower gateway and is about twenty-six feet high by fourteen feet two inches broad. There are windows in the front and eaves to the roof as in the lower gateway. The eaves rest on twenty brackets.

On the front, about twenty feet from the ground, four lotus-like ornaments are cut in relief, two on each side of the arch. The inside ornaments are on the left wall a relief of three knotted cobras and on the right one of Kṛshṇā riding on a five-hooded cobra. As in the lower gateway there are vaulted chambers on the sides with stone elephants, one of which is evidently an object of worship. There is also in the centre the raised threshold with a cylindrical block decorated with chain work and flanked with mask-like ornaments. Eleven more steps lead to the terrace on which the temple court is built. About ten yards to the right of these is a chamber built in the terrace which contains the footprints of Mahādev. The terrace is ascended by about twenty steps cut in the masonry, the rise of each step being about one foot. The walls on each side of this entrance are over eight feet above the level of the court-yard and were evidently intended to support another arch which however was never built. On the left of this entrance is a projection with five small lamp-pillars or *dīpmāḷs* These steps lead on to the south-east end of the court. Immediately on the right is the largest and finest lamp-pillar, not less than forty feet high. It is made of cut-stones well set together and the innumerable branches for holding the small lights are shaped each with a graceful curve upwards, while the small base and fine tapering of the column gives it a light and elegant appearance, which contrasts finely with the other clumsy structures round it. The court is about thirty-seven yards long east to west by twenty-seven yards broad and paved throughout with large rectangular slabs of trap. Its walls vary in height from six to eight feet.

There are four entrances, one noticed above at the south-east, another from the north at the north-west corner, a third from the west and overlooking the edge of the hills rather north of the middle of the western side, and the fourth from the south at the middle of the southern side of the court. The second of these is a mere rectangular opening in the terrace wall, not more than five feet high. It communicates directly with the temple of Baḷi Mahādev[1]. The third is an archway similar to Shivājī's archway outside the eastern entrance, and communicates with a basil altar and two small temples at the very edge of the cliff where the marriage ceremony of the God is celebrated during the fair. The courtyard wall on each side of this gateway has been made into small cloisters with a promenade on the top. The horses belonging to the God are kept in these, and other parts are used for dwelling and storing purposes by the temple establishment. The southern

[1] See below.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

SHINGNAPUR.

entrance is about ten feet broad and communicates with the tombs of Rājā Sambhājī and two other celebrities and a group of buildings situated on the southern end of the ridge on which the temple stands. There is no archway here but a small rest-house was built on the right just outside this entrance, while on the left is a well about twenty feet in diameter and twenty feet deep surrounded with a wretched plaster parapet. This entrance is flanked by two large and rather ugly lamp-pillars. Between this and the eastern entrance in the south-east corner of the court-yard is the music-chamber or *nagārkhānā* where the daily services of pipes and drums is performed.

In the centre is situated the great temple itself. In front of it is a canopy with four pillars and a flat roof about six feet square and ten feet high, in which, upon a plinth three feet high, is a stone Nandī. Two bells, with the date 1720 in Roman letters engraved on them and probably brought from some Portuguese church in the Konkan, hang from the roof. A special interest may be said to attach to this temple, at least to the whole of its stone work, as although built by the great Shivājī and therefore not much more than three and a half centuries old, the ancient Hemāḍpanti style has been adhered to throughout its structure and it seems likely from a comparison with the remains of the original temple which this was intended to replace, that this temple must have been in great part a restoration, though perhaps an enlarged one of the original structure. The style seems to be exactly the cut-corner, Chālukyan both in the centre hall or *manḍap* and shrine or *gābhārā* and matches closely with that of the temple of Baḷi Mahādev which is both said to be and evidently is Hemāḍpanti. The remains alluded to lie just inside the southern entrance on the way to Sambhājī's tomb. There are parts of the eaves of the pillars, brackets, the cross beams, all enormous slabs of stone evidently put together without mortar. The pillars and brackets show carvings of exactly the same pattern and in some cases decidedly superior in workmanship to that of the pillars belonging to the present structure. The designs of the eaves and roofing were evidently exactly the same. The modern workmanship however is unusually good, and very different from the imitations of Hemāḍpanti work in other parts of the district.

The work was carried out by a banker named Balvantrav to whom Chhatrapati Shivājī furnished the funds. The *manḍap* is nearer cruciform than anything else, while the *gābhārā* is almost star-shaped. The whole pile stands on a solid stone plinth with overhanging rims. The plinth projects everywhere three feet beyond the rest of the building and is three feet high. The roof of the *manḍap* is not supported by walls, but by pillars originally eighteen, though now, owing to the numerous cracks in the roof, many small pillars of the poorest workmanship have been put up as additional props. The roof overhangs the outer pillars by some three feet with heavy stone

eaves. The pillars, including the capital brackets, are nine feet six inches high. But the sides are partly filled up by a sort of balustrade, five feet two inches high. Three feet from the ground on the inside of this is a seat two feet wide and running round the *mandap*. The inside of the balustrade is curved so as to form a comfortable lean-back, while the whole arrangement is in solid stone. But the only support given to the roof in all this comes from the embedding of the lowest three feet of fourteen out of the eighteen pillars in the stone work of the bench. The other four pillars form a square in the middle of the *mandap* under which are placed three Nandīs covered with brass and copper and of poor workmanship. The pillars are remarkably handsome. Excluding the brackets which support the roof the shafts are seven feet nine inches high each made out of a single block of stone. This is cut in five sections, the first section or basement being rectangular, two feet square by one and a half high. On this is another rectangular block one foot eight inches square and two feet two inches high. The third is an octagon one foot eight inches in diameter and one foot five inches high. Upon this is another rectangular block, base two feet square and height one foot three inches. Upon this is a cylinder, one foot eight inches in diameter and one foot five inches high. The carving on the fourth section consists of figures in bas relief representing a variety of subjects, dancing, eating, duelling, a great deal of hunting and fighting, but little if any of mythological subjects. In one, women are represented tiger hunting. Generally the animal used for hunting is the dog. The favourite weapon in fighting and hunting is the spear though in several the bow appears. In one fighting picture a man is shown using a gun. The other sections are carved with floral and bead patterns. Here and there the work is pierced, but all is beautifully defined and clear cut. The brackets rest on the upper section of the shaft and branch out on four sides about two feet out from the centre. They are solid blocks of stone, shaped like female torsos. The faces are fairly well carved, but without particular expression in the features. The brackets support horizontal stone beams, on which the roof consisting of flat stone slabs is placed. Inside, the space between the centre pillars has been carved into a flat dome. In the spaces between the other pillars the roofing is cut into a favourite pattern made by three slabs one below the other. Each side of the rectangular space formed by the beams is bisected by the corners of a lozenge, cut out of the centre of the first slab, while the second slab has a square, cut out of its centre similarly inscribed in the lozenge of the first. The third or top slab is ornamented with a disc in the centre florally carved in relief. The *mandap* roof is flat on the top and surrounded by a plain parapet about a foot high.

It has four small *shikhars* or spires one in the centre about six feet high of plain stone and pyramidal in shape. The other spires are of about the same height, canopy-shaped and made of painted stucco, elaborately ornamented, and situated one on each outer side

and one on the front wing of the *maṇḍap*. The *gābhāra* is surmounted by the great spire of the temple which is about sixty feet high. It is a twelve-sided pyramid, with the usual *kalash* or urn-shaped ornament at the top, now much broken down and generally disfigured. It is in eight storeys, gradually lessening in size, and giving the effect of steps up the sides. At the four sides are a sort of arms which run up as far as the *kalash*. Their summits are pointed and curve inwards towards the tower, suggesting the idea of four cobras erect with their faces inward. The spire is made of brick covered with stucco. The whole is elaborately carved and painted especially in front where the structure is brought on to the roof of the *gābhārā* vestibule. The twelve faces of the first two storeys contain niches mostly containing images of Hindu deities in relief. Above this the remainder is nearly all ornament mostly of a sort of rail pattern with various fanciful decorations. The style of the whole resembles that of the towers which crown the southern *gopurs*[1], and it was very probably like the rest of the temple a copy of something more ancient.

To the south of the temple, about a hundred yards along the edge of the hill, lies a block of buildings which includes three mausoleums. They are in a line facing south-wards and on the east and west sides the building projects beyond the edge of the hill and is built up by strong masonry walls in places over thirty feet high. The centre mausoleum is of Shahājī the father of Shivājī. It consists of three divisions separated by plain pillars with pointed arches in front. It is eighteen feet six inches long, thirty feet broad and about eight feet high. On the west is the mausoleum of Shivājī and Hirābāī of Kolhāpur nine feet long by twenty-five feet broad and seven feet nine inches high with similar pillars. To the east is the chief mausoleum of Sambhajī the son of Shivājī, nearly fifty feet long by thirty six feet broad. The *maṇḍap* is divided by ten pillars into five divisions and leads to a shrine with a *liṅg* in its case or *Shaluṅkha*. The court is flanked on the east by cloisters in eight pointed arches fifty-eight feet long by eight feet deep and about seven feet high. Deep windows are pierced in the walls, which are over four feet thick. Sambhājī was executed by Auraṅgzeb in August 1689, and this mausoleum was afterwards set up to him by Chhatrapati Shāhū.

Next to the great temple, or perhaps even greater in interest, is the temple of Amṛteshvar, known as Baḷi Mahādev. It is reached direct by a road which turns off to the right from the steps about a hundred feet below the great temple; or it can be reached from the great temple by the south-east gateway. About twenty yards further on a turn to the right leads down twenty small steps to the chief gateway, an archway of the ogee pattern about twenty-five feet high and otherwise similar to the main gateway of the great

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[1] The *gopur* is a large and lofty gateway. Compare the Gadag *gopur* in Bombay Gazetteer, XXII 716.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SHINGNAPUR.

temple. The temple is in a courtyard eight feet below the level of the gateway and more or less in a pit. It may be described as a miniature of the great temple, though of far ruder and plainer workmanship. The walls of the courtyard are very large blocks of stone, here and there repaired with mortar. The central hall or *maṇḍap* with the shrine vestibule, forms a rectangle from which there are three porches on the west, north and east. The sides of the *maṇḍap* are open and the roof is supported by the pillars, which including the outer pillars of the porches, are sixteen in number and form thus three divisions or *khaṇs.* The southern division is the vestibule to the shrine and is closed up all except a narrow door in the centre. The pillars are shaped as those in the great temple and the roofing inside is of the same pattern. The carving though well executed is much less elaborated. Affixed to the vestibule by a closed passage is the shrine or *gābhārā,* star-shaped and much as in the great temple. The *maṇḍap* and vestibule are about forty-two feet long by thirty-two feet broad, and the extreme length and breadth of the *gābhārā* about twenty-three feet. The spire is modern and covered with stucco work in apparent imitation of the main temple though it is locally believed to be of the same age with the temple. This pattern of ornament is a sort of rail and tooth work. The tower is ten-storeyed and about forty feet high. As in the larger temple there are also arms at the four sides bending over the top of the tower like erect cobras. There is a small pyramidal stone turret in the centre of the *maṇḍap* which is disfigured by an ugly urn or *kalash* with which it is surmounted. The towers of this temple are grossly disfigured by white washing, and the stucco painting has entirely faded. The roof and eaves are of stone slabs, adorned and worked as in the larger temple. There are special festivities during the festival of *Shivrātra* in February-March. The great fair or *jatrā* is held from the bright fifth to the full moon of *Chaitra* in March-April. The attendance varies between 90 to 95 thousand. During the fair the masks of the God are paraded in procession. The offerings at the fair are almost solely in money. Some of them are made for the benefit of the temple. These are administered by a committee appointed by Government. The worship, however, is conducted by Baḍve Brāhmaṇs and Guravs who receive many private contributions from the visitors. The permanent income of the temple from alienated villages and other sources is spent in establishment and the *Shivrātra* festivities.

Great care is taken as to the sanitary arrangements during the fair. Government provides a hospital assistant at the expense of the municipality. Sweepers and trenches are provided for latrine purposes and care is taken to prevent the water from pollution. Some excellent wells have been dug in various parts of the locality, notably one the gift of Ahalyābāi Hoḷkar, the great temple-building princess of Indore (1735-1795). The usual small merchandise is sold at the fair. The transactions are valued at about Rs. 50,000.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. SHINGNAPUR.

The name Śingṇāpur would seem, almost certainly, to have been derived from the Devgiri Yādav king Siṅghāṇ (1210-47) whose name so often occurs in the district. In the course of his wars with Bhojarājā of Kolhāpūr Shiṅghāṇ is said to have encamped in this place. Mālojī, the grandfather of Shivājī (1630), caused a tank to be constructed here and restore the temple to its former condition by making repairs for the comfort of pilgrims (1600). The village was subsequently conferred as a hereditary possession by one of the Ghāṭges on Shahājī Bhonsle, the father of Shivājī,[1] whose devotion in building the Mahādev temple is thus explained. It was in this place that Jījābāī, the mother of Shivājī, took the lead in bringing about the reconversion of Bajājī Nimbāḷkar who had embraced Islam and was subsequently made a Hindu sometime after he returned from Bijāpūr in 1651[3]. The neighbourhood is some of the wildest part of the Mahādev range, named no doubt from this temple, and has been the resort of turbulent characters from the earliest times. In January 1817, after having effected his escape from the Ṭhāṇā jail where he was confined, Trimbakjī Deṅgḷe retired to the Śingṇāpūr hills and collected 1800 men in the neighbourhood. But in April 1818 the operations of General Smith's force drove the insurgents from their haunts in Śiṅgṇāpur.[2]

TAMBI.

Tāmbi a village, (Jāvḷi T; 17° 40′ N, 73° 45′ E; RS Sātārā Road 37 m. NE; p. 346) lies on the right bank of the Koynā about sixteen miles west of Sātārā with which it is connected by the Āmbā pass by an old pack-bullock path over the lofty Dātegaḍ spur which forms the eastern wall of the valley. It is on the main bullock track from Heḷvāk up the Koynā valley to Mahābaḷeśvar and was a market village in the past. It forms the head-quarters of a small petty division or administrative centre, probably connected with Vāsoṭā fort.

TAMKANE.

Tamkaṇe, (Pāṭaṇ T; RS Masūr 13 m. E; p. 274) a small hill village three miles north-west of Pāṭaṇ, has in a hill to the west, two small Buddhist caves, a chapel, and a dwelling cave. The village is easily reached by the bullock-path from Pāṭaṇ up the Kerā valley. A climb of a quarter of a mile up the bed of the chief stream leads to the two caves which are on its both sides. Both the caves are of the plainest type and could be entered from the east. The chapel or *Chaitya* 16′ long 12′ broad and 8′ high contains at the west end a relic-shrine or *daghobā* 9′ in circumference and surmounted by an umbrella capital. Almost adjoining the chapel, on the other side of the stream, is the dwelling cave or *Vihār* 19′ long by 17′ broad and 9′ high. At the north-west and south-west corners are two small chambers five feet square. Adjoining the south-west chamber is a bench two feet high. The caves would appear to be of the same period as the early Buddhist caves at Karāḍ, but there are no

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol I, 231.

[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 445, 448.

[3] Shivaji's Souvenir Marathi Section, page 9.

CHAPTER 19. — Places.

sculptures or inscriptions giving any clue as to their probable date.[1] These caves are visited by the people of the neighbouring areas.

TARGAON.

Tārgāṅv (Koregāṅv T; 18° N. 74° E RS. p. 3,677) lies on the left bank of the Kṛshṇā seven miles south of Rahimatpur. A cleared local fund tract connects Tārgāṅv with Masūr and Karāḍ. Tārgāṅv is one of the stations on the Pooṇā-Bangalore Railway, thirteen miles south of Koregāṅv. It was formerly a place of some importance being a *kasbā* or market town, and the head-quarters of a revenue sub-division. It is now nothing more than a well-to-do agricultural village with a middle school. A public well and latrines were built at Tārgāṅv under the Local Development Works Scheme.

TARLA

Tārlā, (Pāṭaṇ T; 17° 25′ N, 73° 55′ E; RS Masūr 15 m. SE; p. 3,804) about ten miles north-east of Pāṭaṇ is an alienated village. The village is connected to Pāṭaṇ by a motorable road which goes *via* Umbraj. It is the chief trading village in the valley of the Tārli. There is another short cut to Heḷvāk which can be used for bullocks and ponies going by Nivkāṇe. Karvat, and Vājegāṅv. The Tārli valley grows a great deal of rice and some wheat and sugarcane most of which comes to the Tārlā market before export to Cipḷūṇ. The water-supply of the town is taken from an excellent spring in a small tributary of the Tārlī, over which a temple of God Mahādev has been built. The temple is neither old nor noteworthy, but the spring water is very good for drinking. Another spring flows on the other side of the temple and its water is used for washing and bathing. Both the springs have ample supply of water but their only defect is that they have stone steps facilitating their indiscriminate use by the people and thus leading sometimes to pollution.

The village was alienated to the Mahāḍik family, a Marāṭhā house of distinction and one of the branches of which was connected by marriage with the line of Shivājī. During the 1857 rebellion a member of the Mahāḍik family was concerned in the Sātārā plot, and his share in the family possessions was confiscated. The neighbourhood of Tārlā was considered a fit site for one of the large irrigation schemes. It was proposed to make here a storage pond which would increase the supply for the Kṛshṇā canal and give enough water for another canal on the right bank.

TATHAVADE OR SANTOSHGAD HILL FORT.

Tāthavaḍe or *Santoshgaḍ hill fort* (Phalṭaṇ T; 17° 57′ N, 74° 20′ E; RS. Lonand, 2·9 m.) lies in the north-west corner of the Phalṭaṇ taluka, about 12 miles south-west of Phalṭaṇ, the taluka headquarters. The fort is now easily approachable throughout the year as the Public Works Department has recently constructed a *puccā* road from village Tāthavaḍe lying at the foot of the hill. The fort is roughly triangular in shape. The hill on which it stands is a little lower than the main range. The apices of the triangle are north-west and south-east making it nearly equilateral. At the foot on the northern side lies the village of Tāthavaḍe (p. 1,001) with people nearly all cultivators mostly Rāmoshis and Marāṭhās. The defences consist of three

[1] Compare Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples of India, 212.

walls, the top wall going all round the hill and forming what may be called the citadel. It surmounts a perpendicular scarp of black rock about thirty feet high, and is itself about fifteen feet higher. In thickness it is twenty feet and had originally a parapet about six feet high and three feet thick, all of which has broken down. It is made of laterite blocks from one or two cubic feet each, and solidly set in mortar, lined with small stones and mud. It is carefully provided at intervals with secret escape doors for the garrison should the fort be successfully taken. It is especially strong at the three angles from which project triangular outworks about sixty feet lower than the citadel. The outworks are of unequal size, but built of the same materials and more strongly even than the citadel. The sides of the south-west out-work are not more than thirty yards long but it is perhaps the most solid of the three; the sides of the north-east out-work are about fifty yards, and those of the north-west out-work about seventy yards long. The first two out-works communicated with the citadel by a small door not more than two feet wide built through the walls, which led on to the steps cut in the scarp. The citadel wall has a gap at the north-west angle which formed the communication with the north-west out-work. On the north-east side of this was the main gateway about five feet wide, also made of laterite, of beautifully cut massive masonry. It faced, and was sheltered by a projecting bastion. The north side of the hill was partly protected for about a hundred feet by two lower walls or terraces, the one below the other with bastions at intervals. They are of much lighter workmanship than the blocks in rough mortar and the lining of uncut stones and mud. These walls both run east and west along the entire length of the northern face of the hill. They then turn through an angle of over 90 degrees, and are taken up the hill to meet the walls above them. The upper of the two is broken by a gateway of trap facing east, like the upper gateway, similarly sheltered, and otherwise like it, but of far less strength and of much rougher workmanship. The lowest wall is divided by a gap of full thirty feet in the centre flanked by two strong bastions, but no gateway. The ascent between these three entrances and from the north-west out-work on to the citadel is by a winding path with steps at intervals where, not unfrequently, the naked scarp of the rock has to be surmounted. The steps are nearly everywhere broken down and the way generally blocked with prickly pear. The above description will show that the hill was unprotected below the citadel and its out-works on the south-west and south-east sides, and that elaborate care was taken to protect the north side. There seems to be no special reason for this difference except that the entrance and therefore the weakest point of the citadel was on the north side. By making the two gateways face east and protecting them with projections of the wall, their assault was impeded while it was impossible to hit them directly with cannon shot from the plain below, which, according to tradition, was a special point in the fortification of the day. In sieges it was apparently the fashion to direct a cannonade first against the gate and to provide a force to rush through if the besiegers succeeded in bursting it. The difficulties of elsewhere

CHAPTER 19.
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Places.
TATHAVADE OR SANTOSHGAD FORT.

penetrating or escalading hill forts such as these, were probably and not wrongly thought insuperable, bribery and stratagem apart. The citadel is not more than 600 yards round and its area not much more than twenty acres. There were originally but few buildings. The head-quarters or *sadar* was a building about fifty feet by thirty feet including its two *oṭās* or verandahs. It opened to the north and besides accommodating the treasury, was used as a sort of court-house for the *subhedār* in charge of the fort. Next to it on the west was a stone building about forty feet by twenty, with walls three feet thick, and a roof on the south side made of brick coated with cement. It contained three chambers for storage of grain, treasure and gunpowder. The east chamber still remains. Immediately south of the east chamber is the great pond, cut some sixty to seventy feet down into the rock, and the sides smoothed off with great care. It holds a tolerable supply of water, but is fed by no spring. It is about twenty-five to thirty feet square and has steps on the eastern side leading down to the water's edge. Halfway down at a landing and turn of the steps is a small temple of Tātobā Mahādev from whom the fort takes its name. This large pond was apparently the only source of the water-supply of the citadel. It has been much choked with silt, and is said to hold much less water than before, much probably leaking down through the laterite. The rest of the citadel is so blocked with prickly pear that no other buildings can be distinguished. The hill top has room only for very few. One is a mosque for Musalmans. The north-east out-work has some buildings while, inside the two lower walls, are others all in ruins. Outside the lowest entrance is pointed out the side of the elephant-house, fit for not more than two beasts. On the saddle back between the southern angle and the main range of hills has been cut a gap with remains of buildings said to have been the grass stacks of the fort. The grass was supplied chiefly from lands on the plateau above the Mahādev range and brought for storage to this spot. It is more than two hundred yards from the fort and is hardly convenient than the village itself which is at least as accessible as the fort. Immediately inside and directely facing the lowest entrance is a large cave pond Its mouth has been almost wholly blocked with rubbish. A descent of some six feet is therefore necessary to reach the water. The excavation is partly natural but evidently enlarged artificially. The exact size of the cave pond cannot be made out. Three massive pillars appear supporting the roof. The rock is laterite and hence no doubt the abundant supply of excellent water filters from above. The upper fort is nearly all made of laterite with no traces of quarrying about. It seems therefore not improbable that the ponds were excavated by the fort builders and the stone used for the fort walls. There are four other similar ponds completely blocked up. Their stone and that of the big pond on the top would amply suffice for the external work considerable as it is. The mildew of this laterite is used by the people as a tonic for women after child-birth. It probably contains some principle of

iron. It is a belief in the village that the large pond in the citadel and this cave pond are connected by a passage now choked up, and that a lemon thrown into the water of the one used in former times to appear on the surface of the other. These ponds show that the hill internally is made of laterite with an outer coating of trap, thin at the sides but on the top some forty feet thick.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

TATHAVADE OR SANTOSHGAD FORT.

The name of this village is traditionally derived from Tātobā, a sage who took up his abode on the fort hill. The cave pond is said to have been made by him, and the small temple of Mahādev in the big pond is named after him. The local tradition is that this fort was built by Shivājī the Great (1630-80). In 1666 it was in the hands of Bajājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar. In the same year Chhatrapati Shivājī after the treaty of Purandhar served under Jaysiṅg, the Rajput general of Auraṅgzeb's army, against Bijāpūr and with his Mavḷās escaladed Tāthavaḍe[1]. The Bijāpūr Government again apparently got it back from the Moghals probably by treaty. Chhatrapati Shivājī retook it for himself in 1673[2] and in 1676 he had to retake the open country in its neighbourhood, the estate-holders of which were always ready to rebel against him[3]. The fort was taken by the Moghals in 1689[4] but was ceded to Shahū in 1720 in the imperial grants made to him in that year[5]. In a revenue statement of about 1790 Tathorā appears as the head of a sub-division in the Nahisdurg *sarkār* with a revenue of Rs. 1,120[6]. The fort remained in the hands of the Marāṭhās till 1818 when it was shelled by a detachment of General Pritzler's army from the plateau and a spur pointed out about half a mile to the west. A good many of the buildings and part of the walls are said to have been injured by the shelling. The commandant fled at the first few shots, the garrison followed, and the fort was taken. Its elaborate design and considerable strength for the times in which it was built may be explained by the fact that it was close to the Nizām Shāhī frontier and of some importance therefore to the Bijāpūr government, while the constant disturbances in the neighbourhood in Chhatrapati Shivājī's time would amply account for any additions he made to it.

A story is told that the famous dacoit Umāji Nāik (1827) was resting at a spring in the ravine which leads down to the fort from the plateau and that a Brahman on his way to Tāthavaḍ passed by with a little grain given him in charity Umaji called on him to stand and give up what he had. But when he learnt that it was only grain sent him off in peace, entreated his blessings, and gave him Rs. 25.

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[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 165.
[2] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 202
[3] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 209.
[4] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 273.
[5] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 339.
[6] Waring's Marathas, 244.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

UMBRAJ

Umbraj village, (Karāḍ T ; 17° 20′ N, 74° 05′ E ; RS Masūr 3 m. E ; p. 4,507) lies on the Pooṇā-Belgāṅv mail road ten miles north-west of Karāḍ and twenty-four miles south-east of Sātārā on the right bank of the Kṛshnā just below its junction with the Tārlī which is bridged at this point. The Māṇḍ also flows into the Kṛshṇā at this point, and from here an unmetalled road branches to Malhār Peṭh in Pāṭaṇ where it meets the State Highway to Chipḷūṇ. This continues east to Paṇḍharpūr by the Shāmgāṅv gorge, Māyṇi and Kaleḍhon pass through Āṭpāḍī in Saṅgli district. The road is not motorable throughout the year. Umbraj is a village with a trade in groundnuts on a large scale and some wholesale trade in food grains. It has a large market-yard flanked with shops running east to west, and one of the oldest and chief banking houses in the district. In 1827 Captain Clunes noticed it as a *kasbā* or market town with 150 houses and thirty-two shops.[1] Recently a number of activities were carried on in the village under the Block Development Scheme *viz.*, construction of a school building, running of carpentry and smithy classes, adult literacy classes and a veterinary stockman centre.

VADUJ.

Vaḍūj (Khaṭāv T ; 17° 35′ N, 74° 25′ E ; RS Koregāṅv 23 m. NW ; p. 6,838) on the Pusesāvli-Siṅgṇāpur road, thirty-one miles south-east of Sātārā, is the headquarters of the Khaṭāv taluka. Besides the sub-divisional revenue and police offices on the standard Government plan, Vaḍūj has a post office and a vernacular school in a good Government building. There are two high schools at Vaḍūj. There it little trade and the place does not seem to have been very important at any time. The Yerlā runs close to the south-west corner of the town, and gives an unfailing supply of good water. About a mile north-west of the town is a pleasant camp. In a revenue statement of about 1790 Varuja (Vadūj) appears as the head of a *pargaṇā* in the Rāybāg *sarkār* with a revenue of Rs. 37,000[2].

VAIRATGAD FORT.

Vairatgaḍ Fort (Wāi T ; 17° 50′ N, 73° 50′ E ; RS. Wāṭhār, 21 m ;) in Wāi 3,939 feet above sea level, lies nine miles north-east of Meḍhā and six miles south-east of Wāi, on a spur of the main Sahyādri range which branches nearly due east for about twenty miles from Mālcolm Peṭh by Pañcgaṇī. It is a prominent object east of Wāi between the Khāmbāṭkī pass and the gorge by which the Pooṇā-Baṅgalore road passes into the Sātārā taluka. The villages of Vyājvāḍī and Jāmbuḷṇe on the north and Mhāsve on the south all touch the fort, the greater part of which is in Vyājvāḍī. The ascent can be made either from Mhāsve village or Bāvdhan. The easiest way is to climb by the gorge separating Mhāsve and Bāvdhan up the west phase of the hill, along the northern ridge of the Jāmbuḷṇe village till the hamlet of Vyājvāḍī is reached lying close beneath the fort gate. The fort is about 1,000 feet above the plain and the ascent is about two miles. It would be about half a mile less, but much steeper direct from Mhāsve. The fort has a vertical scarp of black rock, thirty feet high, surrounded by about seven feet of wall

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1 Itinerary, 34.

2 Warring's Marathas, 244.

Places.

VAIRATGAD FORT.

loopholed for musketry. The lower parts of the wall are of large rectangular unmortared stones. The upper part is mortared and of smaller material. There are remains of the head-quarters buildings and some quarters for sepoys, all modern. Inside the fort are five stone ponds none of them more than forty feet in diameter, and outside is one cave pond. The fort is one of those said to have been built by Bhoj Rājā, the Kolhāpūr Silāhāra chief Bhoja II. (1178-1193) of Panhāḷā, and its name is locally derived from the Vairāts, a wild tribe supposed to have dwelt in this neighbourhood, who were subdued by the Paṇḍavās. The fort is partly commanded by the heights of Bāvdhan three miles to the west. The view on all sides is very fine and extends on the west to Mālcolm Peṭh.

Banyan Trees.

At the foot of Vairātgaḍ within the limits of Mhāsve village are two banyan trees, the larger of them shading an area of three quarters of an acre. The space covered by it is a very symmetrical oval. There is no brushwood underneath, nor aught to impede the view save the stems of the shoots from the parent tree which has decayed.[1]

VARDHANGAD FORT.

Vardhangaḍ hill fort (Khaṭāv T ; 17° 40′ N, 74° 15′ E ; RS. Koregāṅv, 9 m. W ; p. 1,686) lies on the Bhāḍle-Kuṇḍlā spur of the Mahādev range at a point of it on the boundary between the Koregāṅv and Khaṭāv talukas, seven miles north-east of Koregāṅv and nine miles north-east of Sātārā. It is a round-topped hill rising about 900 feet above the plain below on the west or Koregāṅv side and about 700 feet on the east or Khaṭāv side. The ascent to the fort is from a *vāḍī* or hamlet at its foot on the Khaṭāv side. This is easily reached from the Sātārā-Pandharpur road, which winds up the southern slope of the fort hill to a hill close to which on the north lies the fort hamlet. The way takes off from Māruti temple in Vardhangaḍ village. The approach to the fort can be made also from the village Pāñcgaṇi-vāḍī. Both ways are easy. The top of the fort can be reached within 15 to 20 minutes. There is also an approach from Cimaṇgānv. As one climbs halfway, one meets with an image of Maruti. A legend about this Maruti is that he brings relief to the person who is bitten by a snake. The person is taken around the image after giving him a juice of Nimb leaves. The person becomes giddy and vomits the poison, according to the legend. Two large ponds attributed to the Musalmāns lie about two hundred

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[1] Murray's Bombay Handbook, 195; the late Mr. S. H. Little. C. S., First Assistant Collector, Satara · Bombay Literary Magazine, 292-293. Lady Falkland writes (Chow, Chow. I, 206-207) . The shade was so complete, I could sit in the middle of the day without any covering on my head. The tree was of such a size, that separate picnic parties might take place under it, and not interfere with each other There were countless avenues, or rather aisles, like those of a church, the pale gray stems being the columns, which, as the sun fell on them, glistened in parts like silver; and here and there were little recesses like chapels, where on the roots from the boughs formed themselves into delicate clustering pillars, up and down which little squirrels were chasing each other, while large monkeys were jumping from bough to bough, the boughs cracking and creaking as if both monkeys and bough would fall on my head.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. VARDHANGAD FORT.

yards off to the south of the road. The path from the hamlet takes about half an hour to ascend with ease and goes diagonally up the south slope, till it reaches the middle of the south side where is the only gateway reached by a turn to the south-west. The gate is in good condition. After crossing the gate, a little further up one comes across a small temple of Mahādev. The top of the temple is dilapidated. The base of the temple is built of stones and is in good condition. Near the temple is a banyan tree. To the south of the temple are two ponds. The water in them is not potable.

As we climb a little further on the left side of the Mahādev temple, there is a temple of Vardhinidevī. On the outer side of the temple is a hall, the roof of which is being repaired by the Grampañchāyat. A fair is held here on every Dasarā day. Outside the temple is a dipmāḷ, in front of the standing idol facing east. The base of the temple is built of stone and the upper part is built of bricks. There is an idol of Parashurām in the hall. It is said that, there is a tunnel leading to Mahimāngaḍ. The door of the tunnel is now covered with prickly pear and stones. The wall on each side juts out so that the gateway can be sighted only through a narrow passage from the north-east. It consists of a pointed arch and wooden doorway close outside which is shown the mark of a cannon shot fired when the fort was attacked by Fattesingh Māne (1805). The fort sloping all round from the sides to the top is round at the summit, and covers about twenty acres. On the east is a hollow, where are two ponds and the site of the garrison's quarters, now thickly covered with prickly pear, and the buildings in ruins. Only two small guns remain among the rubbish. The fort has but little scarp, the wall crowning a ridge of black rock protruding abruptly from the sides of the hill which though steep are covered with loose shallow soil. The walls with parapet vary from ten to fifteen feet on the outside, and follow the contour of the ridge, the hollows being filled up with strong masonry. They are about sixteen and a half feet thick, with a parapet, two feet high on the inside. The height is generally about six feet from the ground close under them. The ground rises so abruptly behind them that at any distance they would give no shelter, and the fort is commanded on the north from a hill in Lālguṇ, and on the south from the hill of Rāmeshvar, each about 2,000 yards distant, with perfectly possible ascents at any side. The masonry of the walls is mostly small and put together with mortar only in a few places. The gate and its neighbourhood are the strongest points. The fort wall has fallen down at a number of places. On the north side was a pond now empty. The east is the only side where water is constantly found, but that in small quantities.

History.

The construction of the fort was undertaken in 1673 by Chhatrapati Shivāji and was finished in 1674. It was used as an outpost guarding the east frontier of his newly acquired territory. In 1800, the fort, then in the hands of the Pratinidhi, was invested by Mahādji Shinde's force with 25,000 men. The Rāmoshis in the south-west māchi were attacked and killed the horse of Muzafarkhān one of Shinde's

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

VARDHANGAD FORT.

generals. The *māchis* were then sacked and burnt. Further havoc was stopped by the influence of the *Sarnobat* Ghorpaḍe's wife who was sister to the wife of Shinde. In 1803, Balvantrāv Bakshi, the commandant of the fort, fought here a battle with Yesāi Sāheb Firaṅgi. The fort was shelled, the *māchis* sacked, and a contribution of Rs. 3,000 levied. In 1805 the fort was attacked by Fattesingh Māne. The *Korkhānis* and other officers were killed and Fattesingh took many horses in the neighbourhood. But was himself killed soon afterwards in a battle fought with Baḷvantrāv Phaḍṇis, the *Mutālik* of pratinidhī who was assisted by the troops of Chintāmaṇrāv Paṭwardhan.[1] In 1807 after the battle of Vasantgaḍ,[2] Bāpu Gokhale brought the Pant Pratinidhi to Cimaṇgāṅv, a Koregāṅv village close to the north of the fort, and the fort was then surrendered to him. He administered it for five years till 1811 when the Peshvā took charge of it[3]. It appears to have surrendered in 1818.

VARUGAD FORT.

Varugad Fort (Māṇ T; 18° 00′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS Lonand 22 m. NW; p. 880), in Māṇ lies, as the crow flies, about twelve miles north-west of Dahivaḍī, within the limits of Panvan village. The best way to it is to camp at Piṅgli Budrukh four miles south-west of Dahivaḍī and to travel thence by the Tasgāṅv-Mograla road for about ten miles to Jadhavvadi, a hamlet of Bijvadi village lying almost a quarter of a mile east and within sight of the road; from here a well marked track due west goes to the village of Toṇḍle, and from Toṇḍle a path leads direct to the fort over rough ground broken but perfectly passable by a pony, and skirting the northern base of the long plateau of Panvan. The direction of the path is generally a little north of west and it crosses innumerable small ravines and water-courses which lead through rough hill tracts to the edge of the plateau of which the Māṇ taluka chiefly consists. These streams pour down the bare sides of the main hill range, here some 1,000 to 1,500 feet high, on to the plain of Girvi adjoining the Phalṭaṇ taluka. The country all the way from Piṅgli is terribly bare and rocky. Here the stony hills and ravines are interrupted by fairly level plateaus with tolerable soil and good sites for cultivation and grazing. A few small deer and *chinkhara* will probably be seen, while cattle are everywhere browsing in considerable numbers. Three hamlets, one of them known as Ghoḍavaḍi, are reached, and some well-to-do cultivators will probably meet the visitor and turn out to be *Gaḍkaris* or descendants of the ancient hereditary fort garrison. The hamlet is situated on a projection between the two ravines, and has been built on a hill of a truncated conical shape.

The hill rises about 250 feet above the level of the plateau, which itself constitutes the summit of the Mahādev range at this point. The cone with the walls on it is seen from a great distance and appears very small indeed. But on near approach it is seen to be but the inner citadel of a place of considerable size and

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1 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 413.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 413.

3 Papers in possession of the fort Sabnis.

strength for the times in which it was built. On the south-west the outer wall or enceinte is entered by a rude gateway of a single pointed arch about eight feet high and five feet broad. As usual there is a curtain of solid masonry inside. The gate lies about 150 yards east of the edge of the plateau, which there terminates in an almost unbroken vertical precipice of several hundred feet in height and receding in a north-easterly direction. No wall was built along about three hundred yards of this part which is absolutely unscalable, but for the rest of the way the walling is continued along the edge of the cliff in a north-east direction for about another three hundred yards. Here it turns still following the cliff to the south-east for another seven hundred yards, and then gradually rounds to the westward covering four hundred and fifty yards more till it meets the gateway. But for the break of the inaccessible precipice this outer wall would form a nearly equilateral triangle with the corners rounded off, the side being of some six hundred and fifty yards. Facing nearly north, about fifty yards from the north-east angle, is a gateway with a couple of curtains in solid masonry. This entrance is cut in the sides of the cliff about twenty feet below the top which is reached by some dozen steps. It consisted as usual of a pointed arch, the top fallen in, about ten feet high by five broad. It leads out to the path down to Girvi, a village in the plains below and it probably formed the communication with Phalṭaṇ. This road winds down the face of the range for some five hundred feet till it hits the shoulder of a spur which it then follows to the base. The walling on the south side, from the edge of the cliff to some hundred yards east of the southern gate, is not more than a couple of feet in thickness and consists of all-fitting stones unmortared. The rest is massive and well mortared and still fairly preserved. The average height is from seven to ten feet. In the south-east angle is a rude temple of Bhairavnāth and a few houses with the remains of many more. On the right side of the southern gate is a well preserved stone pond about thirty yards square with steps leading down to it. Next to and on the north of Bhairavnāth's temple is another pond. The way up to the fort proper or upper and lower citadels is from the north side. The path up the hill side, which is steep but with grass and soil left in many places, is almost destroyed. About 150 feet up is the outer citadel built on a sort of shoulder of the hill and facing almost due west. It contains two massive bastions of excellent masonry looking north-west and south-west so that guns planted on them could command respectively the north and south gateways. This citadel was connected with the main wall by a cross wall running across the whole breadth of the fort from east to west. Its entrance lies close below that to the upper citadel. A masonry curtain projects so as to hide the arch itself, which is not more than seven feet high by three broad, and has to be entered from due east. On the south side the walls are carried right up to the scarp of the upper citadel and are some ten feet high, so that to take the lower citadel in rear or flank must have been difficult. The upper

VARUGAD FORT.

citadel is above a vertical scarp some thirty feet high. The entrance to it lies some thirty feet above that to the lower citadel, and is cut in the rock about eight feet wide. There is a gateway of a pointed arch with the top fallen in and twenty odd steps leading up to it and ten more cut out of the rock, and winding up past the inside curtain on to the top. The walls of this upper citadel are still in tolerable preservation. They were originally about ten feet high and built of fair masonry. There is a large turret on the south-west corner, evidently meant to command the southern gate. About ten yards to the east of this turret is a new looking building which was the head-quarters or *sadar*. Immediately east of this and below it is a great pit about thirty feet square and equally deep roughly cut in the rock and said by the people to be a dungeon. Next to it on the south is a small pond evenly cut and lined with mortar used for storing water. There are some remains of sepoys' houses, and, near the turret, a small stone wheel said to belong to a gun. The outer walls east of the gates have bastions at every turn of the cliffs, and the masonry here is particularly strong and well preserved. It would appear that attacks were dreaded chiefly from the plain below. The assailants could either come up the spur towards the north entrance or they might attempt the spurs on the other side of the eastern ravine and attack the southern gateway. Hence apparently the reason for strengthening the walls of the enceinte on this side. After passing the southern gateway the assailants would be commanded from the lower citadel. They would then be encountered by the cross wall. If that obstacle was overcome the besieged would run round the east side and into the two citadels. The appearance from the fort of the plain in the north is most formidable. The Panvan plateau completely commands and indeed almost overhangs it. The fort is believed to have been built by Shivāji to resist the Moghals whose attacks he must have dreaded from the plain below. The *Kārkhānis* or Superintendent of the fort was a Prabhu. The fort garrison consisted of 200 Rāmoshis, Mahārs, and other hereditary *Gadkaris* besides sepoys. It was surrendered in 1818 to Viṭṭhal Pant Phadnis of the Rājā of Sātārā left in charge of the town. He detached 200 men to take possession, being part of a force then raised to protect the town from the enterprizes of Bājirāv's garrisons then in the neighbourhood[1].

VASOTA FORT.

Vāsoṭā hill fort, also called Vyāghragāḍ (Jāvḷi T; 17° 35′ N, 73° 40′ E; Rs Sātārā Road 32 m. NE; p. 156) in Jāvḷi is situated five miles west-north-west of Tāmbī, at the head of a small valley which branches west from the Koynā. At the mouth of the valley is a village named Vāsoṭe, but the fort is within the limits of the Meṭ Indavli village, and on the very edge of the Sahyādris. It is a flat-topped hill nearly oval in shape and about 800 feet above the valley. The height on the other or Konkaṇ side is probably some 3.700 feet. The first clear drop is perhaps 1,500 feet, which, Arthur's Seat

[1] Elphinstone in Pendhari and Maratha War Papers, 245.

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

VASOTA FORT.

excepted, is one of the sheerest on the Sahyādris. The ascent was made from Meṭ Indavli village. The first half was through dense forest apparently primeval, a block specially preserved to increase the difficulties of approaching the fort. Emerging from this by the path which was here and there cut into steps and getting steeper every yard there was a *kārvi* grove which was nasty to get through, but quite commanded from the fort. Further on was a perfectly bare piece of rock with rude steps cut in it. This led to the double gateway at the northern end of the eastern face along a causeway made for about twenty yards on a ridge below the scarp. To enter this the path, here much blocked up with fallen debris, turned right round to the south, and by some thirty steps cut in the rock emerged on to the plateau above. There were three massive masonry arches set in mortar and apparently of Musalmān type. The space on the top was some fifteen acres in extent. On reaching the top and turning to the north close by was the temple of Chaṇḍkāi a small plain stone structure. Fifty yards further was a large pond forty feet square and fifty feet deep. Besides this was another pond holding good water. It was built of large blocks of dry stone, each block projecting about two inches below the one above, a very ancient type. Further on was a temple of Mahādev with an image-chamber and a small hall completely modernised. It had a small whitewashed spire with an urn-like top. There were remains of the headquarters or *Sadar,* a building about fifty feet square with walls about fifteen feet high and three feet thick, modern but of finely hewn stone. The plinth and first three feet of the walls were partly of large dry stone blocks and might be much older. To this building was attached an inner dwelling house or *mājghar* with a court about thirty feet square, on the west of which was the powder magazine. The defences consisted of a vertical scarp varying in height from thirty to sixty feet, crowned by a well and parapet from six to eight feet high and loopholed at intervals. The principal portion of this wall was of huge boulders of dry stone, but it was added to by different masters of the fort, who mostly used mortar and smaller masonry. To the north was a small detached head, used apparently as an outpost. It was connected with the fort by narrow neck which dipped some thirty feet below the general level of fort. This was filled up with immensely strong mortared masonry, while the walls of this head, though mostly modern, were in very good condition. The rest were much fallen in. On the south of the fort was a gorge, on the other side of which rose what was known as the old fort. This was about 300 yards distant, and, like the hills to the north about 1,000 yards distant, completely commanded the present fort. Remains of the batteries of the British attacking force were to be seen on the brow of the old fort. But there were no other buildings or trace of fortifications on it, nor was any reason given why it was so named. The cliff to the west of the gorge has a sheer drop of 1,500 feet if not more. It was known as the Bābukhāḍā and was used as a place of execution for

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

VASOTA FORT.

criminals or offenders who used to be hurled down the cliff. The west face of the fort was only a degree less abrupt, and a loose block or boulder of the old wall, if tumbled down the cliff, might be seen bounding from ledge with increasing violence and speed for an extraordinary distance. The face of the cliff to the south is in three concave stretches and a shout or whistle gives three or sometimes four beautifully distinct echoes. The view to the north is fine, including Makrandgaḍ or the *Saddleback* and the fine group of steep hills about Kaṇḍāt and the Pār pass. The view south is shut out by the Bābukhāḍā, but the west gives an extensive prospect over the rugged Koṅkaṇ down to the sea.

History.

The fort of Vāsoṭā is the most ancient in the hill districts. It is attributed to the Kolhāpur Silāhāra chief Bhoja II (1178-1193) of Panhāḷā and, from the Cyclopean blocks of unmortared trap which formed the pond and older portions of the wall, appears undoubtedly to be of great antiquity. The gateway looked Musalmān, but it is doubtful whether any Muhammedans ever came so far. The Shirkes and Mores possessed the fort till it was taken by Shivājī in 1655 after the murder and conquest of the Jāvḷi chief. Shivājī named the fort Vyāghragāḍ which name it has not retained. The name of Vāsoṭā was seen permanently associated with Tāi Teliṇ, a mistress of Pant Pratinidhi who was undergoing imprisonment at Masūr in 1806 under Bājīrāv I. During his absence Tāi Teliṇ obtained the possession of Vāsoṭā and had the dash and courage to release her paramour.[1] Pratinidhi declared himself the servant of the Rājā of Sātārā, and broke off relations with the Peshvā. He was, however, soon overpowered at Vasantgaḍ by Bāpu Gokhale, the former General of Peshvā. Tāi Teliṇ, however, continued to fight the Gokhale for over eight months at Vāsoṭā; but had to surrender in consequence of a fire which destroyed her granary.[2] Since then it was chiefly used as a State prison. Early after his defeat at Kirkee (5th November 1817) Bājīrāv sent the Sātārā Rājā and his family into confinement at Vāsoṭā, but before the end of the month the princes were brought away and sent to join his camp on march from Paṇḍharpur to the Junnar hills. The wives and families with him remained till the following April. About the same time Cornets Hunter and Morrison of the Madrās establishment, on their way from Hyderābād to Pooṇā with a small escort, were captured by the Peshvā's forces at Uruḷi about fifteen miles east of Pooṇā, sent first to Kaṅgori fort in Kolābā[3] and thence to Vāsoṭā. At Vāsoṭā they were lodged in a single room in the head-quarter buildings. A man named Mhātārjī Kānhojī Chavhāṇ looked after them and was rewarded by the ex-Government for his attentions. Their human treatment was due to the special orders of Bāpu Gokhale. The British force advanced from Meḍhā by Bāmṇoli and Tāmbī, driving in outposts at Vāsotō and met at Indavli. Negotiations were opened

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 414.

[2] Grant Duffs' Marathas. Vol. II, 415.

[3] Compare Bom. Gazetteer, XI 323, 471-72.

CHAPTER 19.
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Places.
VASOTA FORT.

with the commandant one Bhāskar Pant, but he obstinately refused to surrender. The British forces then advanced a detachment under cover of the thick forest before mentioned to positions in the kirvi grove where they dug up shelters for themselves in the hill side. A battery was set on the old fort. The local story is that negotiations proceeded seven days, when at last it was decided to bombard. The first shot fell over in the Konkaṇ, the next in the powder magazine which it blew up, the third in the temple of Chaṇḍkāī. and the fourth in the middle of the head-quarter on which the commandant surrendered. According to Grant Duff, the bombardment lasted twenty hours[1]. The prize property amounted to about 2 *lakhs* and the Sātārā Rājā recovered family jewels worth Rs. 3 *lakhs*.

At Present (1960), the fort stands in a dilapidated condition amidst a thick jungle. There is no path through the jungle leading to the fort-hill and then to the fort. The fort is difficult of access. Nothing remains of the temple of Mahādev.

WAI.

Wāi (Wāi T; 18° 05′ N, 74° 00′ E; RS Wāṭhār 16 m. SE; p. 16,099) on the left bank of the Kṛshṇā, twenty-one miles north-west of Sātārā, is a holy town, the head-quarters of the Wāi taluka. The town lies fifty-six miles south-east of Pooṇā with which it is connected by a metalled road which branches off from the Pooṇā-Bangalore Road at Surur seven miles east of Wāi and forty-eight miles south of Pooṇā Wāi is one of the most sacred places on the Kṛshṇā, and is thickly populated. At the west end of the town the river forms a pool partly by the aid of a stone weir built from the steps about fifty yards above a large temple of Gaṇapati. The face of the river for half a mile is lined with steps, and for an hour after dawn and before sunset people are incessantly engaged in their ablutions and clothe-washing. The river banks are low and overhung with grass and trees. The country round is beautifully wooded with mangoes, and the Pasarṇi and Pāṇḍavgaḍ ranges form a noble background to the smiling valley viewed either from north or south, while to the west the Sahyādri range rises blue in the distance, and south the Kṛshṇā winds on ever-widening and deepening, its banks clothed with fertile-soil and verdure. Wāi has a big vegetable market.

Temples.

Beginning[2] from above, the first group of buildings is on the north bank of the Kṛshṇā, and consists of a *ghāṭ* or steps, a *vāḍā* or mansion, and a temple. The *ghāṭ* goes by the name of Gaṅgāpuri and is a flight of twelve steps. The first portion 200 feet long was built of cut-stone by Gaṅgādhar Rāste in 1789. To this one Bhāu Joshi added seventy-six feet and Bājīrāv II. (1796-1817), eighty feet, making an unbroken length of 356 feet. At the back of the steps is a plain brick wall through which a door opens into the street with the Gaṅgāpuri *vāḍā* now the sub-judge's court on the left and the

[1] Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 517-18.
[2] Temple accounts are from the M. S. paper of the late Mr. E. H. Little C. S.

temple of Umāmaheshvar Pāñchāyatan on the right. The temple on the right like the *ghāṭ* was built by Gaṅgādhar Rāste in 1784. It consists of a vestibule and shrine and is about forty feet high. It has all the Muhammedan forms of architecture common at the period. In the four corners are separate shrines dedicated to Vishṇu, Lakshmī, Gaṇapati, and Sūrya. Vishṇu's shrine is on the left on entering and has a wooden hall or *manḍap*, the back wall of which is covered with figures as are also the outer walls. The great cluster of river temples begins at some distance nearly opposite the travellers' bungalow. The first on a low *ghāṭ* seventy-five feet long is a domed shrine containing a marble *Nandi* and the image of Dhākḷeshvar Mahādev. In a line with it, but near the bank on an upper ledge of the same *ghāṭ*, is the temple of Gaṅgārāmeshvar Mahādev built by Gaṅgādhar Rāste about 1780. It is built of basalt and consists of an open verandah with three scolloped arches and a shrine. The breadth in front is thirty-two feet and the length from front to back about twenty-six feet; while the height, including the dome of brick and stucco with blank panels, is not less than forty feet. In front is *Nāndi* under a plain canopy. The next is a temple of Gaṇapati built by Gaṇpatrāv Bhikājī Rāste in 1762 at a cost of Rs. 1,60,000 near a *ghāṭ* 163 feet long built by Gāṇpatrāv's brother Anandrāv Bhikājī. Besides the usual verandah and shrine in which is a huge black basalt image of Gaṇapati painted red, the temple has a covered court or *manḍap* (60′ × 30′). The roof is flat and composed of square cut-stones cemented with mortar. The walls have the unusual thickness of four feet which gives considerable dignity to the small arches five on a side and three at the end with which they are pierced. Except the dome which is pyramidal or conical and of brick covered with plaster and fluted, the material used is gray basalt. The total height is over seventy feet.

Ascending the bank but hidden from view by the huge Gaṇapati temple is the Kāshivishveshvar temple perhaps the best group of buildings in Wāi. Surrounded by a wall, the temple stands in a quadrangular court 216′ by 95′. It was built in 1757 by Anandrāv Bhikājī Rāste and consists of a shrine and a vestibule with a total length from front to back of forty-nine feet and a facade of about twenty-eight feet from side to side. A notable part of the building is a covered court called *kuṇḍ manḍap* at the east entrance with a lamp-pillar or *dipmāḷ* on each side. The *manḍap* is about forty feet square, and its flat roof is of square stone cemented with mortar and supported on sixteen lofty pillars in four rows of four each with neat semicircular moulded arches between them. The pillars about 1′ 6″ in diameter and about 15′ high, make three parallel arches whether looked at from north to south or from east to west. In the style, Muhammedan forms largely prevail. The spire is twelve-sided, with, like the Lakshmi tower, three tiers with rows of figures and a Muhammedan dome; the temple *manḍap* is domed and there are four pinnacles at the corners. The large bull or Nandī in front, under a plain canopy with plain scolloped arches, is carved out of a magnificent piece of black basalt. The bells and

CHAPTER 19. — Places. WAI. Temples.

flowers with which it is adorned are very beautifully cut. The whole temple structure is of basalt and the pillars originally black are polished to the brightness of a mirror. There is a little ornamentation at the spring of the arches and on the facade but none elsewhere. But the exquisite fineness of the stone work and material and its general lightness make the building the best sight in Wāi. The next, away from the river on the east side of the market, is a temple of Mahālakshmi built in 1778 by Ānandrāv Bhikājī Rāste at a cost of Rs. 2,75,630. The temple, about seventy feet high, consists of a vestibule and a shrine, which together measure about seventy feet from back to front. The facade is about forty feet from side to side. The vestibule is open in front with two pillars and pilasters *in antis*. The corners at the top are rounded by scolloped work. In the floor is a trap door and the roof is formed of large slabs stretching from lintel to lintel. The *manḍap* has two doors on each side, five pillars in depth with two in width, and on a lower step an additional range over a stylobate approached by three steps. The whole looks heavy and dark. The beauty of the Lakshmi temple is its gracefully tapering spire which has a square base with a handsome frieze above which are five dodecagonal tiers surmounted by an urn or *kalaś*. The whole is about fifty-six feet high.

Off the west side of the street leading to the market, in a garden (200′ × 100′) enclosed by a high stone wall, is the temple of Vishṇu built in 1774 by Ānandrāv Bhikājī Rāste at a cost of Rs. 2,16,250. A covered court or *manḍap* (48′ × 18′) of five round arches, supported by square-based massive pillars five feet thick with a cut-stone roof without intermediate support, leads to a raised verandah with three small Muhammedan saracenic arches[1] behind which is the shrine. The walls are very thick, with five scolloped arches on each side and three in front. The roof facade is worked in arabesques. The spire is roofed, and consists of three octagonal tiers. The whole about fifteen feet high is of beautifully cut gray stone and excepting the spire, very handsome. The *manḍap* or hall is the best in Wāi. There are ten other temples on the river bank of no special note, eight of them dedicated to Mahādev, one to Dattātraya, and one to Viṭhobā. The eight Mahādev temples built by various private individuals vary in date from 1740 to 1854[2]. The temple of Dattatraya was built in 1861 by a mendicant named Vyaṅkobā Bāvā on a *ghāṭ* or landing made in 1785 by Ānandrāv Rāste. The temple of Viṭhobā was built by Tāi Sāheb the great-grandmother of the Bhor chief.

Besides the temples the chief objects of interest in and about the town are Rāste's *vāḍās* or mansions, an old Peshvā bridge, and Buddhist caves in Lohāre village about four miles to the north. Of

[1] The pillars supporting the arches are of plated work in beautifully polished black stone.

[2] The temple dates are 1740, 1744, 1760, 1760, 1760, 1808, and 1854. The date of one is not known.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. WAI.

Rāste's mansions there are several in and about the town. The chief of them is the Moti Bāgh in a large garden with water tower and fountains about a mile and a half west of Wāi. The mansion was built about 1789 by Ānandrāv Bhikājī Rāste at a cost of Rs. 1,02,000. The interior walls are covered with paintings whose colour is fast fading away.

Old Bridge.

The Peshvā bridge is to the south of the town about a hundred yards below the new Kṛshṇā bridge. It is said to have been built in the time of the Peshvā government, and the inhabitants of Wāi know from hearsay that wayfarers used to cross the river on planks fixed between the piers. There are eight piers remaining but the original number would seem to have been ten. The piers are irregular in size and shape and situated at irregular intervals. They stand on the rock of the river and are mostly nine feet high. They are formed by a wall of rough masonry and excellent mortar built in the shape of an oval. This was filled in with stones and plastered over with cement. The piers vary in girth from fifty-six to sixty-nine feet and the short diameters average thirteen feet. The intervals vary from fourteen to nineteen feet. So far as known the gridge was merely built to join Wāi with the opposite river bank, and it did not form part of any particular line of communications[1].

Caves.

Four[2] miles north of Wāi, in the village of Lohāre and near Sultānpur, is a group of eight excavations cut in soft trap rock, running from south-east to north-west and facing south-west. The first from the south-east is a plain dwelling cave or *vihāra* about 27′ by 21′ with three cells and a pond near it. The second and chief cave has a hall 31′ by 29′ 6″ and 8′ 6″ high with a bench along the left side and along parts of the front and back; four cells on the right side with bench-beds and small windows; while in the back are two more similar cells with a *daghobā* shrine between them. The shrine 16′ square had originally a door and two windows to admit light The capital of the *daghobā* or relic shrine has been destroyed to convert it into a huge *liṅg* 6′ 4″ high and 8′ in diameter called Pāḷkeshvar or Pālkobā. To the left of this chief cave is a much ruined excavation. Two hundred yards north-west of this is another dwelling cave or *vihāra* of which the hall is about the same size as the hall of the chief cave and has a bench round the sides and back and four cells in the back and one on the left side, also an entrance made in the right wall running up to what may have been intended for a chamber over the roof of the cave but never finished. The roof is supported by six octagonal pillars in two rows from front to back with a stone joist running through the heads of each row, but only fragments of them are left. On the right hand wall near the back are the remains of some human figures, apparently two standing females and two seated males, all now headless and otherwise mutilated. The other caves are smaller and not of much interest.

[1] Mr. H. R. Cooke, C. S.

[2] Fergusson and Burgess' Cave Temples of India, 212-213. The caves were first described by the late Sir Bartle Frere about 1850 when Commissioner of Satara, Journal Bomb. Branch Roy. As. Soc. III. Part II. 55.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. WAI. History.

Its position on the Krshṇā in a beautiful valley and the Buddhist caves in its neighbourhood,[1] show Wāi to have been a holy town and an old Buddhist settlement. Wāi is locally believed to be Virāṭnagari[2] the scene of the thirteenth year of exile of the Pāṇḍavās[3]. Nothing further is known of Wāi until Musalmān times. In 1429 Malik-ut-Tujjar, the Bahamani governor of Daulatābād, after subduing the Rāmoshis and other banditti of Khaṭāv and the Mahādev hills, marched to Wāi[4]. Between 1453 and 1480 Wāi is mentioned as a military post of the Bahamanis from where troops were ordered in expedition[5]. About 1648 Wāi was the head-quarters of Bijāpur *mokāsādār* or manager[6]. Afzal Khān, the famous General of Bijāpur was for some time the subhedar of Wāi. When Shivāji declared independence for the Marāṭhā territory, he took possession of Wāi and Wāi was the scene of the last halt of Afzalkhān, before he was killed in his encounter with Shivāji at Pratāpgad in 1659, and his expedition[7]. From this time Wāi passed to the Marāṭhās. In 1687 it was attacked by the Bijāpūr general Sharjākhān who suffered here a defeat at the hands of the able Marāṭhā general Hambirrāv Mohite who however was killed on the occasion. This victory enabled the Marāṭhās to occupy much of the open country they had previously lost to the Moghals[8]. The latter got possession of Wāi again in 1690 in the reign of Rājārām (1689-1700), but it was regained for the Marāṭhās in the same reign by Santājī Ghorpade the oldest representative of the Kāpshi Ghorpaḍe family. Rāmchandrapant, one of the chief men of the time, and afterwards made minister or *amāṭya*, proposed a stratagem whereby Santājī managed to completely surprise the *faujdār* of Wāi, took him prisoner with all his troops, and established a Marāṭhā post or *thāṇā* in the town. On its capture the Wāi district was given in charge of Shankrājī Nārāyan a clerk of Rāmchandrapant who retook from the Moghals the important fortress of Rājgaḍ in the then Bhor State[9]. Wāi then fell into the hands of the Peshvās, but in 1753 was occupied by Rājārām's widow Tārābāi with the aid of 5,000 *Rāmoshis* and Marāṭhās[10]. About 1774 Rām Shāstri, the spiritual and legal adviser at the Poonā court, retired from the government in disgust to a sequestered place near Wāi on hearing that Raghunāthrāv finally connived at the murder of his nephew Nārāyaṇrāv Peshvā[11]. About 1790 the Rāste family of Wāi first began to rise to influence at the Peshvā's court at Pooṇā where they sided with the ministerial party against the encroachments of Mahādjī Shinde[12]. In October 1791

1 Dr. Burgess' Antiquarian Lists, 58-59.
2 Hence the name Vairatgad given to the fort in the neighbourhood.
3 Lady Falkland's Chow Chow, 191-192.
4 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 50.
5 Briggs' Ferishta, II 483.
6 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 109.
7 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 131.
8 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 267..
9 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 280.
10 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. I, 463.
11 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol II, 6.
12 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 220.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. WAI. History.

Major Price, describes Wāi as a town of great importance, the property of the elder brother of the Rāste family who had built several neat stuccoed temples. The town was locally believed to be the scene of the exploits of the Pāṇḍav brothers, one of whom slew in battle the giant Kichak and dragged the body to the summit of the eminence hard, by now named Pāṇḍavgaḍ and the toe of the giant was so large that, in tearing it along, it ploughed up the very deep ravine which terminates near the entrance of the town from the eastward. The large tumulus on the hill north-east of Wāi, with a temple on its top, was said to be formed of the body of the monster and three of his companions burnt to ashes by the conqueror[1]. In 1796 when Nānā Phaḍṇis found Bājīrāv Peshvā siding with Shinde to compass his ruin he retired to Wāi[2]. The next year Haripant Phaḍke, the Peshvā general was sent to bring Nānā back to Pooṇā. But as he advanced with 4,000 horses Nānā took alarm and fled to the Koṅkaṇ[3]. In 1798 Parashurām Bhāu Paṭvardhan of Tāsgāṅv was confined at Wāi, but soon released on quelling some disturbances in the neighbourhood[4]. In 1827 Captain Clunes notices Wāi as a town with a large population, formerly belonging to the Rāste and still their residence. About 1850 Lady Falkland (1848-1854) writes of Wāi, 'I know nowhere a more lovely spot than Wāi, and although I often visited it during my stay in India, I saw new beauties every time. Here, there is grand scenery, as well as pleasing quiet spots and charming bits. The view from the travellers' bungalow is perfectly beautiful. Behind the city rise hills of all the shapes which are peculiar to the mountains in the Deccan. There are round, peaked, flat-topped hills; some covered with rocks, looking from a distance like forts and castles'[5].

Population.

The population of the town according to 1951 Census was 16,099. Of this the agricultural classes numbered 4,786 and the non-agricultural classes 11,313. Of the latter, 2,497 persons derived their principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation; 2,414 persons from commerce; 579 persons from transport; and 5,823 persons from other services and miscellaneous sources.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

Wāi is a municipal town with an area of 1·25 square miles; the municipality was established in 1856. It is now governed by the Bombay District Municipal Act, 1901. Fifteen members make up its municipal council, in which one seat is reserved for women and one for the scheduled castes. Besides the managing committee, there are committees for sanitation, education and health.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of the municipality for the year 1957-58, excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,78,562, municipal rates and taxes being Rs. 1,26,933; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxes Rs 19,329, grants and contributions Rs. 29,067 and miscellaneous Rs. 3,233. The expenditure

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1 Memoirs, 275-276.

2 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 259.

3 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 261.

4 Grant Duff's Marathas, Vol. II, 278.

5 Chow Chow, I, 188; Murray's Bombay Handbook, 194-195.

CHAPTER 19. — Places. WAI. Municipality.

incurred for the same year came to Rs. 1,59,283; general administration and collection charges being Rs. 46,276; public safety Rs. 7,287; public health and covenience Rs. 85,311; public instruction Rs. 13,937; and miscellaneous Rs. 6,472.

Water Supply.

Well water and river Kṛshṇā form the main sources of water supply for the people. There are two public wells and nearly 700 private wells. Water from the river is used for road-watering. A water supply scheme was prepared in 1954-55 at an estimated cost of over Rs. 6 lakhs.

Drainage System.

There is no underground drainage in the town. At present there are *kaccha* drains in the town. Sullage water is allowed to collect in cesspools and is periodically cleared by the municipality.

Roads.

There are three miles of asphalted roads, two miles four furlongs of metalled roads and eight miles of unmetalled roads in Wāi.

Market.

The municipality has constructed one vegetable market at a cost of Rs. 32,000. The market consists of 57 stalls. The municipality has provided shops in the grain bazar, built at a cost of Rs. 36,000. There is also a mutton market with ten stalls.

There is a bridge on the Kṛshṇā which passes through Wāi.

Education.

The District School Board manages primary education. The municipality pays an annual contribution of Rs. 1,400 based on the percentage of annual letting value to the District School Board. There are three High Schools viz., The Draviḍ High School, The Kanyā Shāḷā and the Maharshi Shinde High School. The municipality gives a contribution of Rs. 100 each to the last two. The Mahilā Mandir of Wāi runs a Montessori School which gets a grant of Rs. 400 from the municipality. There is one Government Training College for men, and one private library called Tilak Granth Sangrahālaya, to which an amount of Rs. 125 is paid by the municipality as contribution every year.

Medical Facilities.

The municipality runs one dispensary situated in Madhali Wāi. The District Local Board gives grant-in-aid to this dispensary. One veterinary dispensary is run by the District Local Board. A contribution of Rs. 1,200 is paid to it by the municipality. In case of epidemics prompt measures are carried out by the municipality. The municipality runs a family planning centre towards which the State Government pays an annual grant. The scheme for distribution of milk to the under-nourished children was started in October 1958 with the help of the local social workers. The municipality has started a scheme for distributing medicines free of cost to poor patients.

Other Amenities.

Two hand pumps are kept ready in case of fire emergency.

The municipality maintains two parks in the town and has a playground for children.

Cremation and burial places are managed by private bodies.

Prajnya Pathashala.

Wāi has become a notable centre of culture on account of the Prājnya Pāṭhashāḷā established by the late Svāmī Kevalānanda

The Kevalānanda Smārak Mandir was recently opened there by the President of India. The Pāṭhashāḷā is engaged in preparing the *Dharma Kosha* and is publishing the *Meemansā Kosha* prepared by the Svāmī, runs a press known as Prājnya Mudraṇālaya, publishes a Marathi monthly periodical known as Navabhārata, and conducts the Ekalavya Vasatigṛha, a hostel where students of all castes and creeds are housed. Among the other activities of the Pāṭhashāḷā are a spinning class and a hand paper making centre.

Yavteshwar.

Yavteshwar, (Sātārā T; 17° 40′ N, 73° 55′ E; RS. Sātārā Road 13 m. NE; p. 643) is a small village on the plateau to the north-west of the summit of the Yavteshwar hill, about two miles west of Sātārā. The plateau is reached by a good bridle path branching off from the tunnel at Sātārā or by the steps which climb straight up the hill side. It is 1,100 feet above the plain and pleasantly cool at all times of the year, though a little hot wind is sometimes felt. During the hot weather it is not unfrequently used as a health-resort. The village contains a temple of Yavteshwar and close to the south further up the slope were the two bungalows, of which only foundations remain.

The temple which is a stone structure built in hemāḍpanti style is an old one built during the reign of Chhatrapati Shāhū Māhārāj. The revenue of the village is assigned to the temple. In the rear of the temple is a tank known as *Devāche Tāḷē* (God's Tank). A number of rooms that surround the temple are used to house the pilgrims at the annual fair held on *Kartik Sud 1*. About three to four hundred people attend the fair. There is also a *dharmashāḷā* near the temple. To the east of the temple is a huge open land which is used by the villagers for grazing their cattle. The construction of a filter water tank (Kās Tank) is in progress near the hamlet of Sambhūrevāḍī. A road passes through the village to the Kās Water Tank and then to Bāmṇoli in Jāvḷī Taluka. Due to the opening of the road the village is increasingly being used as a health resort.

Yerad.

Yerāḍ village, (Pāṭaṇ T; RS Masūr 13 m. NE; p. 1,084) lies close to the Karāḍ-Ciplūṇ road three miles south west of Pāṭaṇ. Close to the south of the road on the river bank, conspicuous from afar, is a fine grove of mango trees. In the middle of this grove is a small stone temple with a tiled roof and a *ling* said to be Yeḍobā, an incarnation of Shiv. Silver masks of the god are carried in procession on the fair day, namely the full moon of *Chaitra* or March-April. Some 10,000 to 15,000 people assemble every year, this being the favourite fair of the hill cultivators who come from very long distances to visit it. They stay and camp in every direction. The *grāmpanchayat* levies a pilgrim's tax of 50 nP. and undertakes to maintain sanitary arrangements. Yerāḍ, though a favourite camp, should not be visited between the fair which lasts for seven days and the monsoon following. In the pools near the village *mahsur* can be caught trolling with the gram bait.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the District.

Column 1.—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā—आ; ī—ई; ū—ऊ; ṛ—ऋ; c—च्; ch—छ्; ṭ—ट्; ṭh—ठ्; ḍ—ड्; ḍh—ढ; n—न्; ṅ—ङ्; ñ—ञ्; ṇ—ण; s—स; ś—श—; ṣ—ष; ḷ—ळ; ṅ—ṅ्;

Abbreviations Indicating Talukas :—

JVL.—Jaoli.

KRD.—Karad.

KDL.—Khandala.

KTV.—Khatav.

KRG.—Koregaon.

MHR.—Mahabaleshwar.

MAN.—Man.

PTN.—Patan.

PHL.—Phaltan.

STA.—Satara.

WAI.—Wai.

Column 2.—(*a*) Direction and (*b*) Travelling distance of the village from the taluka Head-quarters. Abbreviations used showing direction from taluka Head-quarters.

E.—East.

W.—West.

N.—North

S.—South.

NE.—North-East.

SE.—South-East.

NW.—North-West.

SW.—South-West.

HQ.—Head-quarters.

Column 3.—(*a*) Area (Sq. miles); (*b*) Total population; (*c*) Number of households; (*d*) Total number of Agricultural population.

Column 4.—(*a*) Post Office; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 5.—(*a*) Railway Station; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 6.—(*a*) Weekly bazar; (*b*) Bazar day; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

Column 7.—(*a*) Nearest motor stand; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

Column 8.—Drinking water facilities available in the village :—

br —brook.

cl.—canal.

n.—nalla.

o.—scarcity of water.

pl.—pipe line.

p.—pond.

spr.—spring.

str.—stream.

t.—tank.

W.—big well.

w.—small well.

Column 9.—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription.

sl.—school; (h).—high; (m).—middle; (pr).—primary.

tr.clg.—Training College.

mun.—municipality.

pyt.—panchayat.

Cs.—Co-operative Society.

[(c).—credit; (fmg).—farming; (*i*).—industrial;

(con).—consumers; (mis).—miscellaneous; (mp).—multipurpose; (sp).—sale and purchase;

(wvg).—weaving.]

fr.—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calender :—

Ct.—Chaitra; Vsk.—Vaishakha; Jt.—Jaishtha; Asd.—Ashadha; Srn.—Shravana; Bdp.—Bhadrapada; An.—Ashvina; Kt.—Kartika; Mrg.—Margashirsha; Ps.—Pausha; Mg.—Magh; Phg.—Phalguna; Sud—Shudha. (first fortnight of the month); tl.—temple; M.—Math; mq.—mosque; dg.—dargah; dh.—dharmashala; gym.—gymnasium : ch.—chavadi; lib.—library; dp.—dispensary; Ch.—Church; ins.—inscription.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Abhepurī ; WAI. ; अभेपुरी ..	W ; 0-4	4.8 ; 1344 ; 265 ; 1178.	Dhom ; 1-0
Abīṭ ; KDL ; अबीट	W ; 12-0	4.8 ; 642 ; 127 ; 618.	Shirwal ; 8-0
Ācalī ; JVL. ; आचली ..	W ; 11-0	0.8 ; 181 ; 39 ; 181.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5-4
Āḍadev ; PTN. ; आडदेव ..	S ; 4-0	1.4 ; 504 ; 115 ; 502.	Patan ; 3-0
Adārkī Bk. ; PHL. ; अदार्की बु॥ ..	W ; 15-3	5.8 ; 1105 ; 242 ; 1029.	Lonand ; 8-0
Adārkī Kh. ; PHL. ; अदार्की खु॥ ..	W ; 16-3	5.0 ; 987 ; 188 ; 896.	Lonand ; 12-0
Ādhāḷ ; MHR. ; आढाळ ..	S ; 8-0	0.5 ; 105 ; 21 ; 98.	Mahabaleshwar ; 9-0
Āḍośī ; JVL. ; आडोशी ..	SW ; 18-0	3.3 ; 157 ; 33 ; 157.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 8-0
Aḍūḷ ; PTN. ; अडूळ ..	E ; 4-0	3.0 ; 1779 ; 376 ; 1732.	Malhar Peth ; 4-0
Āhir ; JVL. ; आहिर ..	W ; 12-0	2.8 ; 477 ; 102 ; 476.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 8-0
Āhire ; KDL. ; आहिरे ..	E ; 4-0	10.8 ; 2132 ; 449 ; 1847.	Local ..
Ajanūj ; KDL. ; अजनूज ..	W ; 1-4	5.3 ; 758 ; 126 ; 686.	Khandala ; 1-0
Akalape ; JVL. ; अकल्पे ..	SW ; 15-0	4.8 ; 415 ; 103 ; 411.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 7-0
Ākale ; STA. ; आकले ..	W ; 7-0	2.3 ; 792 ; 177 ; 772.	Kanher ; 1-8
Ākhāḍe ; JVL. ; आखाडे ..	N ; 8-0	1.3 ; 486 ; 93 ; 467.	Humgaon ; 0-8
Ākhegaṇī ; JVL. ; आखेगणी ..	N ; 17-0	1.3 ; 277 ; 69 ; 273.	Panchagani ; 8-0
Ākośī ; WAI. ; आकोशी ..	W ; 8-0	1.8 ; 647 ; 135 ; 647.	Panchagani ; 7-0
Āḷajāpūr ; PHL. ; आळजापूर ..	W ; 13-7	4.5 ; 722 ; 136 ; 677.	Lonand ; 10-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking Water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 27-0	Wai; Mon. 0-0	....	w.	Sl (pr); pyt.; Cs (o).; 3 tl.; gym.; lib.
Lonand; 21-0	Shirwal; Fri. 8-0	Shirwal; 5-0	w.	Sl. (pr.); Cs. (c); Mandai fr. Mrg. Sud. 3; 3tl.; M.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 35-4	Mahabaleshwar.; Tue. 5-4	Machutar; 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr.); 2tl.
Karad; 23-0	Patan; Mon. 3-0	Patan; 4-0	W.	Sl (pr.); Somoba Dev fr. Mg. Vad. 30.; 2tl.
Rly. Station ..	Bazar Sat. ..	Local ..	W.str.	7Sl (7pr.); Cs.(c).; Ct. Vad. 0; 10tl.; M.; 4dg.; gym.; Ch.; dp.
Rly. Station ..	Bazar .. 0-4	.. ..	str.	Sl (pr.): Mg. Vad. 3.; 4tl.
Wathar; 42-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 9 0	Mahabaleshwar; 9-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Medha; Mon. 11-0	Medha; 18-0	spr.	tl.
Karad; 20-0	Patan; Mon. 4-0	Local ..	rv: w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Kshotrapal fr. Mg. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; 2gym.; dp.
Padali; 36-0	Medha; Mon. 11-0	Medha, 12-0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr.); 2tl.; lib. sp. (vet.)
Lonand; 9-0	Lonand; Thu. 9-0	Local ..	W.; w.	3Sl. (3pr).; 2Cs(mp).; Shivaratra fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; 10tl.; 2mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.(vet).
Lonand; 14-0	Khandala, Sun. 1-0	8-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; Janubai fr. Vsk. Vad. 12.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Medha; Mon. 10-0	Medha; 10 0	W. spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Kanher; Tue. 1-8	Kanher; 1-8	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).: Cs(mp).; Ct. Vad 3. (Bhavani, Jyotirling frs.); 4tl.; dh.
Satara Rd.; 25-0	Humgaon; Sun. 0-3	Humgaon; 0-2	rv.: w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 3tl.; lib.
Wathar; 30-0	Humgaon; Sun. 4-0	Pachagani; 4-0	pl.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; 3tl.
Wathar; 32-0	Panchagani; Tue. 7-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Alarki; 4-0	Lonand; Thu. 10-0	.. 0-6	w.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4tl.; M.; Ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Alavaḍī ; STA. ; अलवडी ..	W ; 10–0	1.8 ; 173 : 57 ; 171.	Parali ; 8–0
Ālevāḍī ; JVL. ; आलेवाडी ..	N ; 3–0	2.0 ; 601 ; 122 ; 600.	Kudal ; 5–0
Āmaśī ; JVL. ; आमशी ..	W ; 22–0	1.3 ; 223 ; 57 ; 188.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 7–4
Ambāle ; PTN. ; अंबाले ..	W ; 10–0	0.8 ; 380 ; 65 ; 370.	Tarale ; 2–0
Ambāle ; STA. ; अंबाले ..	W ; 6–0	1.0 ; 130 ; 33 ; 130.	Parali ; 6–0
Āmbavaḍe ; KTV. ; आंबवडे ..	S ; 6–0	5.5 ; 1703 ; 317 ; 1272.	Local .
Āmbavaḍe ; KRD. ; आंबवडे ..	W ; 10–0	1.5 ; 275 ; 57 ; 275.	Kole ; 1–0
Āmbavaḍe Bk. ; STA. ; आंबवडे बुद्रुक	E ; 0–0	2.3 : 930 ; 172 : 778.	Parali ; 1–0
Āmbavaḍe Kh. ; PTN. ; आंबवडे खुर्द	S ; 44–0	1.0 ; 548 ; 127 : 544.	Dhebewadi ; 4–0
Āmbavaḍe Kh. ; STA. ; आंबवडे खुर्द	E ; 3–0	0.8 ; 465 ; 93 ; 372.	Parali ; 3–0
Ambavaḍe S. Koregāṅv. ; KRG. अंबवडे स. कोरेगांव	N ; 6–0	0.3 ; 871 : 158 ; 808.	Kinhi ; 2–0
Ambavaḍe S. Vāgholī ; KRG. ; अंबवडे स. वाघोली	W ; 11–0	2.3 ; 1189 : 224 1005	Revadi ; 1–0
Āmbavaṇe ; PTN ; आंववणे.	N ; 6–0	0.8 ; 299 ; 76 ; 288.	Patan ; 6–0
Āmbeghar T. Kuḍāl ; JVL. ; आंबेघर तर्फ कुडाळ	S ; 13–0	0.5 ; 380 ; 73 ; 321.	Valuth ; 0–4
Āmbeghar T. Marāḷī ; PTN. ; आंबेघर तर्फ मराळी	S ; 12–0	1.8 ; 441 : 84 : 412.	Morgiri ; 5–0
Āmbeghar T. Meḍhe ; JVL. ; आंबेघर तर्फ मेढे	W. ; 2–0	2.0 ; 562 : 122 : 550.	Medha ; 5–0
Āmbeghar T. Pāṭan ; PTN. ; आंबेघर तर्फ पाटण	W. ; 21–0	0.8 ; 194 ; 43 ; 104.	Helwak ; 10–0
Āmbherī ; KTV. ; आंभेरी ..	W. ; 11–0	5.5 ; 1703 ; 317 ; 732.	Khatav ; 3–0
Āmbherī ; KRG. ; आंभेरी ..	SE. ; 9–0	3.8 ; 752 ; 143 ; 696.	Rahimatpur ; 4–0
Āmrag ; PTN. ; आम्रग ..	SW. ; 7–0	0.8 ; 695 ; 150 ; 617.	Morgiri ; 1–0
Āmbral ; MHR. ; आंब्रळ ..	E. ; 16–0	0.8 ; 263 ; 58 ; 261.	Pachagani ; 4–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.;	24-0	Parali;	Mon.	8-0	..	10-0	rsr.	Sl (pr).; Ca. (o).; Bhairoba fr. Phg. Vad. 9.; tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.;	31-0	Kudal;	Wed.	5-0	..	0-3	W.	Sl (pr).; Padmadevi fr. Ps. Vad. 4.; 4tl.
Satara Rd.;	41-0	Medha;	Mon.	21-0	Mahabaleshwar;	12-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Masur;	16-0	Tarale;	Sat.	2-0	Stage	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	18-4	Parali;	Mon.	6-0	..	..	O.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur.;	21-0	Vaduj;	Sat.	5-0	Vaduj;	5-0	W.; str.	Sl (pr).; 5tl.; M.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad;	13-0	Kole;	Wed.	1-0	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	17-0	Parali;	Mon.	1-0	Stage	1-0	w.; str.	Sl (m).; Cs.; 2tl.; gym.
Karad	21-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	4-0	Stage	1-0	spr.; w.	Sl (pr).; Kaleshwar fr. Ct. Sud. 11.; tl.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	14-0	Parali;	Mon.	3-0	Stage	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.;	3-0	Kinhi;	Fri.	2-0	Satara;	4-0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs.; 3tl.; gym.
Palashi;	2-0	Deur,	Tue.	3-0	..	..	W.	Sl. (pr).; Cs(o).; 2tl.; pyt.
Karad;	37-0	Patan;	Mon.	6-0	Patan;	6-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Injaidevi fr. Ct. Sud. 10.; 2tl.;
Satara Rd.;	32-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	2-0	Humgaon;	2-0	rsr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp.) tl.
Karad;	32-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	5-0	Patan;	12-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. Ct. Sud. 12.; tl.
Satara Rd.;	20-0	Medha;	Mon.	5-0	..	..	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; gym.
Karad;	42-0	Helwak;	Wed.	10-0	..	7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Chandkai fr. Mg. 15.; 3tl.
Koregaon;	16-0	Khatav;	Tue.	3-0	Khatav;	3-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; Ch.; lib.
Rahimatpur;	6-4	Rahimatpur	Thu.	4-0	..	....	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; dg.; gym.; ch.
Karad;	27-0	Morgiri	Thu.	1-0	Patan;	7-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl.
Wathar;	26-0	Wai;	Mon.	8-0	Panchagani;	3-0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt.; Cs(o).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Āmbrule ; PTN. ; आंब्रुले ..	S ; 5-0	1·8 ; 702 ; 153 ; 695.	Patan ; 5-0
Āndarūḍ ; PHL. ; आंदरुड ..	SE. ; 16-5	4·8 ; 725 ; 131 ; 684.	Shingnapur ; 5-0
Anaphaḷe ; KTV. ; अनफळे ..	SE. ; 14-0	3·5 ; 251 ; 51 ; 227.	Mayani ; 2-0
Anavaḍī ; WAI. ; अनवडी ..	E. ; 9-0	2·8 ; 571 ; 111 ; 542.	Ozardo ; 3-0
Anāvaḷe ; STA. ; अनावळे ..	W. ; 8-0	0·8 ; 221 ; 50 ; 202.	Parali, 3-0
Āndhaḷī ; MAN. ; आंधळी ..	NW. ; 0-0	2·0 ; 2727 ; 530 ; 2377.	Malavadi ; 1-4
Andhārī ; JVL. ; अंधारी ..	S. ; 9-0	1·3 ; 139 ; 32 ; 139.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 2-4
Andorī ; KDL. ; अंदोरी ..	E. ; 12-0	5·0 ; 1308 ; 273 ; 730.	Local ..
Āṇe. ; KRD. ; आणे ..	S. ; 9-7	1·8 ; 780 ; 161 ; 728.	Kole ; 0-4
Anevāḍī ; JVL. ; अनेवाडी ..	S. ; 10-0	0·8 ; 1005 ; 170 ; 739.	Saigaon ; 1-0
Aṅgāpūr Tarf Tāragāṅv ; STA. ; अंगापूर तर्फ तारगांव	SE. ; 13-0	2·3 ; 990 ; 209 ; 986.	Angapur Tarf Vandan ; 1-8
Aṅgāpūr Vandan ; STA. ; अंगापूर वंदन	NE. ; 13-0	2·8 ; 1769 ; 382 ; 1402.	Local ..
Antavaḍī ; KRD. ; अंतवडी ..	N. ; 13-5	3·8 ; 609 ; 129 ; 570.	Masur ; 5-0
Apaśiṅge ; KRG. ; अपशिंगे ..	S. ; 7-0	2·3 ; 1201 ; 243 ; 1187.	Local ; ..
Apaśiṅge ; STA. ; अपशिंगे ..	E. ; 10-3	3·8 ; 1880 ; 371 ; 1714.	Local. ..
Āpaṭī ; JVL. ; आपटी ..	W. ; 8-0	2·5 ; 672 ; 180 ; 668.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 2-0
Āraḍagāṅv ; PHL. ; आरडगांव ..	W. ; 17-0	3·5 ; 581 ; 150 ; 474.	Lonand ; 5-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad ;	24-0	Patan ;	Mon.	5-0	Adul ;	3-0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; Peer Ur. Ct. Vad. 5.; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand ;	32-0	Barad ;	Fri.	6-0	..	3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Koregaon ;	36-0	Mayani ;	Sun.	2-0	..	..	Str.	Sl (pr).; Shri Krishna fr. Sm. Vad. 8.; 2tl.; lib.
Wathar ;	12-0	Bhuinj ;	Sat.	3-0	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; Vaghjai fr. Mq. Vad. 2.; 2tl.; Ch.; 2Coh.
Satara Rd.;	18-0	Parali ,	Mon.	3-0	Parali ;	3-0	w.; rsr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon ;	20-0	Malavadi ;	Sun.	1-4	Dahiwali ;	7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Jorathi fr. Krt. Sud. 1.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Padali ;	31-0	Medha ;	Mon.	7-0	Medha ;	9-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand ;	14-0	Khandala ;	Sun.	1-0	Local ;	..	W. w.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Karad ;	12-0	Kole ,	Wed.	0-4	Kole ;	1-4 ;	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	21-0	Local;	Fri.	..	Local ;	..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 2tl.; 2 lib.; dp.; Spinning Centre.
Rahimatpur;	3-0	Angapur Tarf Vandan ;	Sat.	1-8	Near by		w.; rsr.;	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; 2mq.; gym.; ch.
Rahimatpur ;	8-0	Bazar ;	Sat.	..	Near by	..	w.; rsr.;	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; 3tl; mq.; 2gym.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Masur ;	6-0	Masur ;	Wed.	5-0	..	..	W. w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Rahimatpur	3-0	Rahimatpur	Thu.	2-0	Rahimat-pur.;	2-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bahiroba fr. (Vak. Vad. 8); 4tl gym.; ch.; lib.
Rahimatpur;	7-0	Nagthane	Tue.	1-0	Nagthane ;	1-0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr.h).; 2Cs(mp.; Bgt). Shri Haridev fr. Mq. Sud.1.; 5tl.; mq.; gym ; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	31-0	Medha ;	Mon.	3-0	Medha ;	7-0	W.; rsr.	Sl (pr).; Somajai fr. Pah. Sud. 15.; 3tl.
Lonand ;	5-0	Lonand ;	Thu.	5-0	..	3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; 6tl.; gym.; Ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Āraḷ. ; PTN. ; आरळ ..	NW. ; 25–0	4·5 ; 452 ; 111 ; 442.	Helwak ; 14–0
Āraḷe ; STA. ; आरळे ..	N. ; 6.0	3·8 ; 1849 ; 340 ; 1449.	Waduth ; 0–2
Āraphaḷ ; STA. ; आरफळ ..	E. ; 7–0	2·8 ; 1228 ; 212 ; 1036.	Waduth ; 1–0
Ārāv ; JVL. ; आराव ..	W. ; 23–0	2·8 ; 232 ; 50 ; 232.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 12–0
Ārḍe ; JVL. ; आर्डे ..	E. ; 9–0	1·3 ; 282 ; 50 ; 281.	Kudal ; 2–0
Āre Tarf Paraḷi ; STA. ; आरे तर्फ परळी. ..	W. ; 4 0	1·3 ; 501 ; 110 ; 561.	Satara ; 5–0
Ārvī ; KRG ; आर्वी ..	S. ; 13–0	8·8 ; 2604 ; 535 ; 2569.	Local ; ..
Āsagānv ; WAI. ; आसगांव ..	W. ; 7–0	2·0 ; 787 ; 166 ; 636.	Pancha-gani ; 6–0
Āsale ; WAI. ; आसले ..	E. ; 6–4	3·3 ; 880 ; 168 ; 654.	Bhuinj ; 1–0
Āsanagānv ; KRG. ; आसनगांव ..	NW. ; 17–0	3·0 ; 632 ; 131 ; 503.	Deur ; 1–0
Āsanagānv ; STA. ; आसनगांव ..	SW. ; 12–0	5·3 ; 1801 ; 400 ; 1670.	Satara ; 8–0
Āsanī ; JVL. ; आसनी ..	W. ; 5–0	0·8 ; 146 ; 35 ; 124.	Medha ; 6–0
Āsare ; WAI. ; आसरे ..	W. ; 8–0	2·3 ; 1050 ; 227 ; 1049.	Dhom ; 4–0
Asavaḷi ; KDL. ; असवली ..	W. ; 5-0	6·8 ; 1540 ; 331 ; 1447.	Khandala ; 5–0
Āsṭe ; STA. ; आस्टे ..	W. ; 7-4	0·8 ; 525 ; 96 ; 463.	Parali ; 1–0
Āsū ; PHL. ; आसू ..	NE. ; 16–6	16·0 ; 3360 ; 586 ; 3171.	Shindewadi ; 2–0
Āṭake ; KRD. ; आटके ..	S. ; 7–0	4·3 ; 2314 ; 356 ; 2189.	Local ; ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 47-0	Helwak; Wed. 14-0	.. ..	spr.	Bahiroba fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; tl.
Satara Rd. 5-0	Waduth; Sat. 0-2	Local. ..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (o).; Vadjai devi fr. Ct. Vad. 9.
Satara Rd. 4-0	Waduth; Sat. 1-0	. 0-2	Str.; w.	Sl (m).; Cs.; (o).; Satvai fr. Vsk. Sud. 5.; 8tl.; M.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 47-0	Medha; Mon. 21-0	Medha; 23-0	W.; w.	3tl.
Satara Rd. 16-0	Kudal; Wed. 2-0	Kudal; 1-0	W.; Spr	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Satara Rd. 16-0	Satara; Sun. 5-0	.. 3-0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Targaon; 6-0	Wathar Kiroli; Sun. 3-0	Local. ..	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp.); 5tl.; Mq.; 3gym.; ch.; ; lib.; dp.
Wathar; 30-0	Panchagani; Tue. 6-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; gym.; Ch.; 2dp. (vet, dp).
Wathar; 14-0	Bhuinj; Sat. 1-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 3 tl.; gym.
Wathar; 4-0	Deur; Tue. 1-0	Deur; 2-4	W.	Sl (pr).; 5 tl.
Satara Rd. 18-0	Satara; Sun. 8-0	Satara; 8-0	w.	5Sl (4 pr; m).; Jankaidevi fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; tl.; 2lib.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Medha; Mon 6-0	. 0-5	W.; rv.	Sl (pr).. 2 tl.
Wathar; 20-0	Wai; Mon. 9-0	Velang; 2-0	rv. w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs.(c).; 3 tl.; gym.
Lonand; 18-0	Khandala; Sun. 5-0	Khandala; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Jamai fr. Vsk. Sud. 15.; 5 tl.; gym. dp.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon. 1-0	Parali; 1-4	rv.; W.	2Sl (2pr).; 2 tl.; gym.
Baramati; 9-0	Gunvat; Sat 3-0	Barad; 9-0	w.; rv.	7Sl (5 pr.; m.; h.;); 2Cs. (mp. fmg.).; Jyotiba fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Bhairavnath fr. Vsk. Sud. 8 7tl.; mq.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.
Shenoli; 4-0	Kole; Wed. 4-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt. Cs (o).; 7 tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Āṭalī ; STA. ; आटली ..	N. ; 16-0 ;	1·3 ; 150 ; 35 ; 131.	Parali ; 8-4
Ātīt ; STA. ; आतीत ..	NE. ; 12-0	6·8 ; 1472 ; 442 ; 1239.	Local ; .
Āṭoḷī ; PTN. ; आटोळी ..	S. ; 16-0	6·8 ; 340 ; 81 ; 334.	Morgiri ; 7-0
Aundh ; KTV. ; औंध ..	SE. ; 11-0	9·8 ; 4652 : 895 ; 1901.	Local ; ..
Āvaḷaṇ ; JVL. ; आवळण ..	W. ; 17-0	1·3 ; 168 ; 36 ; 167.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 7-0
Avakāḷī ; MHR. ; अवकाळी ..	E. ; 5-0	1·8 ; 108 ; 32 ; 129.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5-0
Āvarḍe ; PTN. ; आवर्डे ..	..	2·0 ; 746 ; 148 ; 681.	Tarale ; 3-0
Bācolī ; PTN. ; बाचोली ..	46-0	1·3 ; 445 ; 91 ; 430.	Dhebewadi ; 6-0
Bāhe ; PTN. ; बाहे ..	S. ; 11-0	1·3 ; 97 ; 24 ; 97.	Morgiri ; 4-0
Bahule ; JVL. ; बहुले ..	W. ; 11-0	0·5 ; 105 ; 42 ; 188.	Mahabaleshwar ; 7-0
Bahule ; PTN. ; बहुले ..	SE. ; 12-0	4·3 ; 1852 ; 375 ; 1087.	Local ; ..
Bāje ; PTN. ; बाजे ..	W. ; 22-0	0·8 ; 109 ; 27 ; 109.	Helwak ; 6-0
Bālakavaḍī ; WAI. ; बालकवडी ..	W. ; 15-0	1·0 ; 213 ; 56 ; 213.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5-0
Bāleghar ; WAI. ; बालेघर ..	N. ; 7-0	2·8 ; 515 ; 103 ; 515.	Wai ; 7-0
Bāmaṇolī Kasabe ; JVL. ; बामणोली कसबे	SW. ; 9-0	2·0 ; 1059 ; 223 ; 1012.	Local ; ..
Bāmaṇolī T. Kuḍāḷ ; JVL. ; बामणोली कुडाळ	NE. ; 7-0	0·3 ; 716 ; 157 ; 674.	Kudal ; 3-0
Bāmbavaḍe ; PTN. ; बांबवडे ..	S. ; 18-0	2·0 ; 881 ; 171 ; 796.	Tarale ; 3-0
Banaghar ; STA. ; बनघर ..	W. ; 8-0	0·8 ; 323 ; 60 ; 259.	Parali ; 2-0
Banapūrī ; KTV. ; बनपुरी ..	SE. ; 8-4	9·8 ; 4652 ; 895 ; 517.	Katar-Khatav ; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.	24-4	Parali;	Mon.;	8-4	Parali;	10-0	rsr.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Targaon;	6-0	Bazar;	Fri.	..	Local.	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; Vetaleshwar fr. Vsk. Sud. 3. Hanuman fr. Mrg. Sud. 1; 3tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; 2 lib.; 2 dp.
Karad;	20-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	7-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimat-pur,	13-0	Local	Tue.	..	Local.	..	pl.; W.	3Sl (2pr.; h).; Training College; pyt.; 20tl.; 3M.; 2mq.; dg.; 3dh.; 3gym.; ch.; lib. 3dp. Museum.
Satara Rd.;	39-0	Medha;	Mon.	0-0	Medha;	17-0	spr.; rv.	tl.
Wathar;	35-0	Mahabale-shwar;	Tue.	5-0	Maha-baleshwar.	6-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Targaon:	18-0	Tarale;	Sat.	3-0	Tarale;	3-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad;	23-0	Dhebewadi;	Thu.	6-0	Sanabur;	1-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Bhadali fr. Ct. Sud. 5.; 4tl.; lib.
Karad;	25-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	4-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.;	37-0	Mahabalesh-war.;	Tue.	7-0	..	..	Pl.	Sl (pr).; Cs.(c).; tl.
Karad;	14-0	Marul T. Haveli.	Fri.	2 0	Nisare;	3-0	W.· n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 11.; 7tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.; dp.
Karad;	42-0	Helwak;	Wed.	6-0	Helwak;	6-0	rv.	tl.
Wathar;	35-0	Mahabalesh war.	Tue.	5-0	Mahabale-shwar;	8-0	rv	3 tl.;
Wathar:	18-0	Wai;	Mon.	7-0	..		W.	Sl (pr.; pyt.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	34-0	Medha;	Mon.	7-0	Medha,	9-0	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. Psh. Sud. 15L; 3 tl.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Satara Rd.;	18-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	3-0	..	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 2 tl.; gym.; lib.
Masur;	20-0	Tarale;	Sat.	3-0	Tarale,	3-0	W.; n	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; Ambadevi fr. Mg. Vad. 2; 3 tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	18-0	Parali;	Mon.	2-0	Parali;	2-0	W.; Str	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad 13.; tl.; gym.
Koregaon;	31-0	Katar-Khatav;	Sat.	2-0			W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Banapūrī ; PTN. ; बनपूरी ..	S. ; 11-0	4.0 ; 1683 ; 333 ; 1575	Dhebewadi ; 4-0
Banavaḍi ; KRD. ; बनवडी	SE. ; 3-0	0.8 ; 2044 ; 387 ; 276.	Ogalewadi ; 5-0
Banavāḍi ; KRG. ; बनवाडी ..	NW. ; 14-0	6·0 ; 1308 ; 274 ; 1275.	Dour ; 2-0
Baruḍ ; PHL. ; बरड ..	W. ; 10-0	8·8 ; 1457 ; 292 ; 1170.	Gunwaro ; 3-0
Bāvaḍe ; KDL. ; बावडे ..	N. ; 1-0	3·5 ; 1774 ; 346 ; 1518.	Local ; ..
Bāvadhan ; WAI. ; बावधन ..	S. ; 3-0	10·8 ; 4712 ; 1062 ; 3004.	Local . ..
Beladare ; KRD. ; बेलदरे ..	W. ; 9-0	2·0 ; 666 ; 130 ; 630.	Charegaon ; 2-0
Belavaḍe ; JVL. ; बेलवडे ..	E. ; 9-1	2·8 ; 568 ; 103 ; 559.	Kudal ; 3-0
Belavaḍe Bk. ; KRD. ; बेलवडे बु.	S. ; 11-0	0·8 ; 2044 ; 387 1071.	Kole ; 3-0
Belavaḍe Haveli ; KRD. ; बेलवडे हवेली	N. · 6-3	1·5 ; 1029 ; 212 : 852.	Local : ..
Belavaḍe Kh. ; PTN. ; बेलवडे खुर्द	S. ; 6-7	0·3 ; 1009 ; 208 ; 736.	Patan ; 5-0
Belośi ; JVL. ; बेलोशी ..	N. ; 18-0	1·0 ; 403 ; 98 : 370.	Medha ; 6-0
Bhāḍaḷe ; KRG. ; भाडळे ..	N. ; 12-0	13·8 ; 2705 : 456 : 2197.	Local ; ..
Bhāḍaḷī Bk. ; PHL. ; भाडळी बु.	.. 5-0	1·0 ; 309 ; 61 : 271.	Phaltan ; 5-0
Bhāḍaḷī Kh. ; PHL. ; भाडळी खुर्द..	.. 5-4	3·0 ; 256 ; 59 ; 253.	Phaltan ; 5-0
Bhāḍavaḍe ; KDL. ; भादवडे ..	S.E. ; 3-0	1·5 ; 779 ; 162 : 606.	Khandala ; 3-0
Bhāde ; KDL. ; भादे .	N. ; 8-0	7·8 ; 1528 ; 312 ; 1378.	Morve ; 1-0
Bhaktavāḍi ; KRG. ; भक्तवाडी ..	NW. ; 7-0	2·0 ; 725 ; 127 ; 499.	Satara Rd ; 1-0
Bhālavāḍi ; MAN. ; भालवाडी ..	E. : 14-0	7·5 ; 891 ; 176 ; 741.	Mardi ; 3-0
Bhāleghar ; JVL. ; भालेघर ..	NW. ; 7-0	0·8 ; 196 ; 43 ; 196.	Vahuth ; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 25-0	Dhobewadi; Tue. 4-0	.. ..	rv. ..	Sl (pr.); pyt.; Cs.(c).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud; 9.; 5 tl. gym.; lib.
Karad; 1-0	Karad; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; tl.; dg.
Palashi; 1-0	Deur; Tue 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; mq.; dg.
Lonand; 20-0	Bazar Fri. ..	Local	W.	2Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 3 tl.; ch.; lib.
Lonand; 13-0	Khandala; Sun. 7-4	Khandala; 1-0	W.	3Sl (2 pr, m).; Cs (mp). Nageshwar fr. Vsk. Vad. 3.; 5 tl.; gym.; ch.; 2 lib.; dp.
Wathar; 23-0	Wai; Mon. 3-0	. ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 14 tl.; 3 M.; mq.; dg.; 5 gym., ch.; 2 lib.; dp.
Karad; 9-0	Charegaon; Sat. 2-0	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Kudal; Wed. 3-0	Kudal; 2-0	pl., W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; tl.
Karad; 13-0	Local; Wed .	Malkhede; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5 tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; lib
Shiravade; 2-0	Shiravade; Fri. 1-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.; mq.; lib.
Karad; 21-0	Patan; Mon. 5-0	Adul; 2-0	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; Boljai fr. Ct. Sud. 13.; 3 tl.; mq.; dg.
Satara Rd.; 34-0	Medha; Mon. 8-0	Panchagani 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 2 tl.
Wathar; 7-0	Local Thu.	Wathar; 6-0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5 tl.; mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Lonand; 22-0	Phaltan; Sun. 5-0	Local ..	w.	Sl (pr).; Narayan fr. Ct. Vad 11.; tl.
Lonand; 22-0	Phaltan; Sun. 5-0	Local ..	w.	Sl (pr).; 4 tl.
Lonand; 13-0	Khandala; Sun. 3-0	Khandala; 3-0	w.	2Sl (pr,m).; Cs (mp).; Balsiddha fr. Ct. Sud. 6.; 2 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Lonand; 9-0	Lonand; Thur. 9-0	0-4	w.	2Sl (pr,m).; 4 tl.; dp.
Satara Rd.; 1-2	.. .. ..		w.	2Sl (pr,m).; pyt.; 2Cs. (mp; fmg).; 4 tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 40-0	Mardi; Fri. 5-0	Thadale; 7-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Humgaon; Sun. 3-0	. ..	pl.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bhāmaghar ; JVL. ; भामघर ..	W. ; 4–0	0·8 ; 139 ; 31 ; 139.	Medha ; 5–0
Bhāmbavalī ; STA. ; भांबवली ..	W. ; 21–0	1·3 ; 54 ; 16 ; 54.	Parali ; 9–0
Bhāmbe ; PTN. ; भांबे ..	.. ..	0·3 ; 200 ; 69 ; 289.	Tarale ; 13–0
Bhaṇaṅg ; JVL. ; भणंग ..	E. ; 4–0	1.3 ; 781 ; 164 ; 698.	Medha ; 4–0
Bhāṇḍavali ; MAN ; भाडवली	NW. ; 9–1	3.3 ; 660 ; 137 ; 500.	Malavadi ; 1–0
Bharatagāṅv ; STA. ; भरतगांव	S. ; 7–3	3.3 ; 1102 ; 204 ; 998.	Parali ; 1–4
Bhāṭghar ; KDL. ; भाटघर ..	SW. ; 16–0	0.8 ; 295 ; 00 ; 91.	Local ; ..
Bhāṭakī ; MAN. ; भाटकी ..	NE. ; 20–0	5.5 ; 283 ; 64 ; 271.	Mhaswad ; 9–0
Bhātamaraḷī ; STA. ; भातमरळी	S. ; 8–0	2.3 ; 560 ; 99 ; 496.	Satara ; 8-0
Bhekavalī ; MHR. ; भेकवली ..	E. ; 3–0	1.5 ; 230 ; 52 ; 167.	Mahabaleshwar ; 4–0
Bhilakaṭī ; PHL. ; भिलकटी ..	W. ; 5–0	1.3 ; 226 ; 45 ; 200.	Phaltan ; 4–0
Bhilār ; MHR. ; भिलार ..	E. ; 9–0	1–8 ; 522 ; 102 ; 77.	Panchgani ; 4–0
Bhiravāḍī ; MHR. ; भिरवाडी ..	S. ; 6–0	4.5 ; 446 ; 101 ; 360.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5–0
Bhivaḍī ; JVL. ; भिवडी	NE. ; 7–0	1.3 ; 485 ; 94 ; 390	Kudal ; 2–0
Bhivaḍī ; WAI. ; भिवडी	W. ; 11–0	1.0 ; 388 ; 99 ; 385	Dhom ; 4–0
Bhogāṅv ; WAI. ; भोगांव ..	W. ; 3–0	2.5 ; 858 ; 148 ; 401	Wai ; .. 2–4
Bhogavalī T. Kuḍāḷ ; JVL. ; भोगवली तर्फ कुडाळ	S. ; 15–0	0.8 ; 196 ; 46 ; 180	Valuth ; 2–0
Bhogavalī T. Meḍhā ; JVL. भोगवली तर्फ मेढा	W. ; 5–0	1.8 : 298 ; 65 ; 287	Medha ; 5–0
Bhoḷī ; KDL. ; भोळी ..	N. ; 11–0	7.0 ; 1488 ; 307 : 1241 :	Shirwal ; 4 0
Bhoṇḍavaḍe ; STA. ; भोंडवडे	— 5–0	0 8 ; 828 ; 54 ; 314.	Parali ; 2–0
Bhosare ; KTV. ; भोसरे	W. ; 8–0	3.5 ; 1330 ; 252 ; 1262	Khatav ; 3–4
Bhosagāṅv ; PTN. ; भोसगाव ..	SE. ; 14–0	2.3 ; 1164 ; 214 ; 1042.	Dhebewadi. 6–4
Bhose ; KRG. ; भोसे ..	NE. ; 6–0	3.0 ; 892 ; 232 ; 883.	Chimangaon ; 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Medha;	Mon.	5-0	Medha;	5-0	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Satara Rd.; 25-0	Parali;	Mon.	0-0	..	10-0	w.	tl.
Karad; 24-0	Tarale;	Sat.	13-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Medha;	Mon.	4-0			W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Hanuman fr. (Ct. Sud 15).; 4tl.; ym.; lib.
Koregaon; 25-0	Malavadi;	Sun.	1-0	Dahivadi;	9-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; 3tl.
Rahimatpur 11-0	Parali	Mon.	1-4	..	0-4	W.	2Sl (2m).; 3tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Lonand; 27-0	Bhor;	Tue.	1-0	Stage;	0-2	t.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.,
Koregaon; 45-0	Mhaswad;	Wed.	3-0	Mhaswad;	3-0	Str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd; 18-0	Satara;	Sun.	8-0	Rodre;	3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c); Manglai fr. Bhd. Sud.9.; 2tl.; gym.;
Wathar; 31-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	4-0	Mahabaleshwar;	4-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand; 14-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	4-0	Nimbhore;	1-2	cl.	Sl (pr).; Ct. Vad.8.; 3 tl.
Wathar; 32-0	Wai;	Mon.	12-0	Panchagani;	1-4	W.; spr	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Jannidevi fr. Phg. Sud. 9.; 2 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 43-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	5-0	Mahabaleshwar;	7-0	W.; spr	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Kalabhairav Dev fr. Mg. Vad. 7;2 tl.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Kudal;	Wed.	2-0	..	..	n.; spr	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; tl.
Wathar; 29-0	Wai;	Mon.	10-0	.	.	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Wathar; 20-0	Wai;	Mon.	2-4	.	..	rv.; W.	2 Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 6 tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	2-4	Humgaon;	2-0	spr.	Cs (mp).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Medha;	Mon.	5-0	Gavadi;	2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand; 13-0	Shirwal;	Fri.	4-0	Shirwal;	4-0	rv.; W. w.	Sl (m).; Cs., Ramnavami fr. Ct. Sud.9.; 4tl.; lib.
Satara Rd; 14-0	Parali;	Mon.	2-0	Stage nearby	..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 18-0	Khatav;	Tue.	3-4	Khatav;	4-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 22-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	0-4	Local;	..	rv.; W.	2Sl (2 pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; Bhavani fr. Ct.Sud.7.;5tl.
Koregaon; 4-0	Koregaon;	Mon.	4-0	..	..	w.; W.; n.	Sl (pr)., pyt.; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bhose ; MHR. ; भोसे ..	E. ; 8-0	1.3 ; 431 ; 107 ; 427.	Pancha-gani ; 4-0
Bhuiñj ; WAI. ; भुईंज ..	SE. ; 8-0	6.8 ; 3295 ; 664 ; 2631.	Local ..
Bhurubhuśī ; KRD. ; भुरभुशी ..	SW. ; 20-0	1.5 ; 356 ; 70 ; 356.	Yelgaon ; 2-0
Bhūṣaṇagaḍ ; KTV. ; भूषणगड ..	NW. ; 10-0	7.8 ; 713 ; 124 ; 708.	Mhasurne ; 4-0
Bhūteghar ; JVL. ; भूतेघर	W. ; 12-0	1.5 ; 188 ; 40 ; 177.	Maha-balesh-war ; 6-0
Bibhavī ; JVL. ; बिभवी	E. ; 1-0	1.8 ; 687 ; 140 ; 595.	Medha ; 1-4
Bibī ; PTN. ; बिबी ..	E. ; 2-4	3.3 ; 779 ; 165 ; 718.	Patan ; 2-4
Bibī ; PHL. ; बिबी ..	W. ; 12-2	7.8 ; 1472 ; 310 ; 1220.	Lonand ; 9-0
Bicukale ; KRG. ; बिचुकले ..	N. ; 13-0	6.8 ; 1191 ; 203 ; 1150.	Deur ; 2-0
Bidāl ; MAN ; बिदाल ..	W. ; 4-0	9.5 ; 2530 ; 496 ; 2163.	Local ; ..
Bijavaḍi ; MAN. ; बिजवडी	NW. ; 8-0	8.5 ; 1206 ; 241 ; 1104.	Dahivadi ; 9-0
Biramaṇi ; MHR. ; बिरमणी ..	W. ; 10-0	4.5 ; 220 ; 50 , 101.	Maha balesh-war ; 11-0
Boḍake ; MAN. ; बोडके ..	NW. ; 5-0	2.5 ; 418 ; 81 ; 389.	Mala-vadi ; 3-0
Bombāḷe ; KTV. ; बोंबाळे ..	E. ; 9-0	5 6 ; 973 ; 208 ; 902	Katar-Khatav ; 2-0
Bondaravāḍi ; JVL. ; बोंदरवाडी	W. ; 12-0	1.8 ; 325 ; 68 ; 293.	Maha-balesh-war ; 6-0
Bondrī ; PTN. ; बोंद्री ..	NW. ; 5-0	2.8 ; 431 ; 89 ; 431.	Patan ; 4-0
Boparḍi ; WAI. ; बोपर्डी	N. ; 2-0	3.0 ; 1064 ; 236 ; 868.	Local ; ..
Bopegāñv ; WAI. ; बोपेगाव	NE. ; 8-0	2.8 ; 740 ; 165 ; 661.	Ozarde ; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 32-0	Wai; Mon. 12-0	Panchagani; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr).; Janai devi fr. Phg. Sud.9.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Wathar; 15-0	Local; Sat. ..	.. ..	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2Cs (mp; fmg).; Laxmi fr. Asn. Sud. 1-10.; 4tl.; 2M.; mq.; dg., dh.; gym.; ch.; 21th.; vet (dp).; Domo.
Shenoli; 16-0	Yelgaon; Thu. 2-0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Rahimatpur. 22-0	Mhasurne; Tue. 4-0	Mhasurne; 4-0	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; Harmai fr. Asn. Sud. 10.; 3tl.; ch.; Fort.
Satara Rd.; 39-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 6-0	.. ..	rv.; spr.	Sl (pr); Cs(o).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 24-0	Medha; Mon. 1-4	Local; ..	pl.	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; 3tl.
Karad; 24-0	Patan; Mon. 2-4	Patan; 2-4	W., w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Adarki; 6-0	Bazar; Mon ..	Abhoj; 1-2	w.	3Sl (2m).; Cs(mp).; Vsk. Sud.5,6.; 4tl.; M.; dh.
Wathar; 3-0	Deur; Tue. 2-0	Deur; 2-0	n.; w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Koregaon; 30-0	Dahivadi; Mon. 3-0	Dahivadi; 3-0	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; mq.
Koregaon; 37-0	Vavarhire; Sat. 6-0	Local .	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 3tl.
Wathar; 40-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 11-0	.. ..	w; W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon; 32-0	Malavadi; Sun. 3-0	Dahivadi; 7-0	rv.	3tl.; dh.
Koregaon; 30-0	Katar-khatav; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; gym; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 6-0	Mahabaleshwar; 5-0	pl.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad; 24-0	Patan; Mon. 4-0		n.; W.	Sl (pr).; Holi Paurnima fr. Phg. Sud. 15.; tl.
Wathar; 22-0	Wai; Mon. 2-0		W.; rsr	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; Janubai fr. Vsk. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 14-0	Surur; Sun. 2-0	Ozarde; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 4Cch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Bopolī ; PTN. ; वोपोली	W. ; 17–0	1.0 ; 153 ; 30 ; 151.	Holwak ; 3–0
Bopośī ; STA. ; वोपोशी	S. ; 14–0	0.8 ; 566 ; 102 ; 565.	Parali ; 10–0
Boragāṅv ; KRG. ; वोरगांव ..	S. ; 12–0	2·8 ; 1158 ; 241 ; 1107.	Rahimatpur ; 4–0
Boragāṅv ; STA. ; वोरगांव	S. ; 9–0	3·3 ; 1301 ; 271 ; 950.	Local ; ..
Boragāṅv Bk. ; WAI. ; वोरगांव बु. ..	W. ; 13–0	1·3 ; 387 ; 91 ; 360.	Panchagani ; 4–4
Boragāṅv Kh. ; WAI. ; वोरगांव खुर्द ..	W. ; 11-0	1·3 ; 387 ; 91 ; 343.	Panchagani ; 4–0
Borājāivāḍi ; KRG. ; वोरजाईवाडी	NE. ; 6–0	3·0 ; 670 ; 143 ; 608.	Chimangaon ; 1–0
Borakhaḷ ; STA. ; वोरखळ ..	E. ; 8–2	2·5 ; 1087 ; 225 ; 801.	Waduth : 2–0
Boraṇe ; STA. : वोरणे ..	S. : 11–0	1·8 ; 158 ; 44 ; 147.	Parali, 3–0
Borī ; KDL. ; वोरी ..	E. ; 9-0	5·3 ; 580 ; 117 ; 514.	Lonand ; 6–0
Borīv ; WAI. ; वोरीव ..	W. ; 6–0	0·8 ; 344 ; 88 ; 343.	Panchagani ; 3–0
Bothe ; MAN. ; वोथे ..	NW. ; 15–0	4·5 ; 658 ; 111 ; 501.	Malavadi ; 5–0
Budh ; KTV. ; बुध ..	W. ; 17–0	9·8 ; 3712 ; 681 ; 2740.	Local ; ..
Cāceगāṅv ; KRD. ; चाचेगांव ..	W. ; 4–0	2·5 ; 1160 ; 181 ; 1077	Ving ; 2–0
Cakadev ; JVL. ; चकदेव ..	W. ; 27–0	1·3 ; 109 ; 28 ; 109.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 16–0
Caṅcaḷī ; KRG. ; चंचळी ..	N. . 6–0	3·8 ; 1011 ; 214 ; 960.	Kinhi ; 2–0
Cāndak ; WAI. ; चांदक	S. ; 9–0	4·0 ; 1052 ; 237 ; 1012.	Surur ; 4–0
Cāndavāḍi ; WAI. ; चांदवाडी ..	W. ; 8–0	0·3 ; 223 ; 40 ; 170.	Dhom ; 1–4

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad;	39–0	Helwak;	Wed.	3–0	Stage;	0–4	spr.	Sl (pr).; Ambakhelshi Devi fr. Mg. Sud. 15.;tl.
Satara Rd.;	2–6	Parali;	Mon.	10–0	Parali;	8–0	t.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; gym.
Rahimat-pur;	4–0	Rahimat-pur;	Thu.	4–0	Rahimat-pur;	4–0	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Balsiddha fr. Ct. Vad. 6.; 3 tl.; lib.
Rahimat-pur;	8–0	Nagthane;	Tue.	0–2		0–1	w.; rv.	3Sl (3 pr).; Cs.; 3 tl. mq.; dh.; lib.; Farming School.
Wathar;	33–4	Panchagani;	Tue.	4–4	Pancha-gani;	3–0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Wathar;	30–0	Panchagani;	Tue.	4–0			W.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.; gym.
Koregaon;	6–0	Koregaon;	Mon.	6–0	Chiman-gaon;	1–4	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.;	4–0	Wadnth;	Sat.	2–0		2–4	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (o).; 3 tl.; gym.; ch.
Satara Rd.;	10–0	Parali;	Mon.	3–0			t.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand;	0–0	Lonand;	Thu.	8–0		1 0	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 4 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar;	27–0	Panchagani;	Tue.	3–0	Velang;	1–0	rv.; W.	pyt.; tl.; gym.
Koregaon;	22–0	Malavadi;	Sun.	5–0	Dahivadi;	14–0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Natha fr. Mg. Sud. 15.; 3 tl.
Koregaon;	17–0		Mon.		Local;		W.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs (o).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 11 tl.; 3 mq.; 3 dg.; gym.; ch. lib.; 2 Maternity homes.
Karad;	6–0	Ving;	Mon.	2–0			rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; 3 tl.; mq.; gym.
Satara Rd.;	50–0	Medha;	Mon.	24–0	Medha;	27–0	W.	tl.
Satara Rd.;	6–0	Kinhi;	Fri.	3–0	Koregaon;	6–0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3 tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Lonand;	27–0	Surur;	Sun.	4–0			W	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (o).; 4 tl.; gym.; ch.
Wathar;	28–0	Wai;	Mon.	7–0			rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (o).; 3 tl.; gym.

Village name in English : Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Cāphal ; PTN. ; चाफळ ..	NE. ; 19-0	5·9 ; 2687 ; 581 ; 2400.	Local ; ..
Cāpher ; PTN. ; चाफेर ..	W. ; 11-0	2.3 ; 172 ; 37 ; 172.	Helwak ; 6-0
Cāpholī ; PTN. ; चाफोली ..	N. ; 11-0	0.8 ; 101 ; 22 ; 101.	Patan ; 9-0
Caregāṅv ; KRD. ; चरेगांव ..	NW. ; 13-0	7.0 ; 3776 ; 769 ; 2742.	Local ; ..
Caturabet ; MHR. ; चतुरबेट ..	S. ; 13-0	3.0 ; 213 ; 46 ; 213.	Mahabaleshwar ; 10-0
Cavaṇeśvar ; KRG. ; चवणेश्वर ..	NW. ; 27-0	1.0 ; 147 ; 25 ; 140.	Sonake ; 2-0
Cikhalī ; KRD. ; चिखली ..	N. ; 11-0	3.3 ; 1350 ; 257 ; 1163.	Masur ; 3-0
Cikhalī ; MHR. ; चिखली ..	S. ; 5-0	0.5 ; 107 ; 19 ; 107.	Mahabaleshwar ; 6-0
Cikhalī ; STA. ; चिखली ..	S. ; 15-0	2.5 ; 708 ; 155 ; 702.	Parali ; 10-0
Cikhalī ; WAI. ; चिखली ..	W. ; 9-0	2.8 ; 1283 ; 260 ; 1151.	Panchagani. ; 3-0
Cimaṇagāṅv ; KRG. ; चिमणगांव ..	NE. ; 6-0	11.0 ; 2650 ; 440 ; 2505.	Local ; ..
Ciñcaner S. Nimb ; STA. ; चिंचनेर स. निंब ..	E. ; 7-0	2.0 ; 1286 ; 240 ; 1079.	Kshetra Mahuli ; 3-0
Ciñcaner Vandan ; STA. ; चिंचनेर वंदन ..	E. ; 6-0	2.5 ; 1379 ; 282 ; 1232.	Local ; ..
Ciñcaṇī ; STA. ; चिंचणी ..	W. ; 8-4	2.3 ; 688 ; 158 ; 600.	Kanher ; 2-0
Cindhavalī ; WAI. ; चिंधवली ..	SE. ; 10-0	1.8 ; 952 ; 223 ; 857.	Local ; ..
Cirambe ; PTN. ; चिरंबे ..	NW. ; 22-0	1.0 ; 251 ; 60 ; 240.	Helwak ; 6-0
Citalī ; KTV. ; चितळी ..	SE. ; 19-0	14.0 ; 3919 ; 678 ; 2850.	Local ; ..

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Masur;	11-0	Local;	Thu.		Local;		rv.; W.	6 Sl (5 pr; m).; pyt.; 2 Cs (o).; Ram fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; 8 tl., M.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2 lib.; 2 dp.; Temple of God Shri Ram.
Karad;	32-0	Helwak;	Wed.	6-0		0-1	n.; spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad;	34-0	Patan;	Mon.	9-0			rv.	Chaphal Devi fr. Ct. Sud. 7.; tl.
Masur;	6-0	Local;	Sat.				rv.; w.	5Sl (pr.; m, h).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 15 tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; 3 lib.
Wathar;	48-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	10-0	Mahabaleshwar;	11-0	rv.;spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Navalai Devi fr. Mg. Sud. 4.; 2 tl.
Wathar;	3-0	Pimpode Bk.;	Sun.	3-0			t.	Sl (pr).; Chavaneshwar fr. Asn. Vad. 9.; tl.
Masur;	4-0	Masur;	Wed.	3-0			w.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 7 tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; 2 lib.
Wathar;	40-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	6-0	Mahabaleshwar;	5-0	t.; pl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2 tl.
Satara Rd.;	26-0	Parali;	Mon.	10-0	Parali;	9-0		Sl (pr).; Janai fr. Mg. Sud. 11.; 2 tl.; gym.
Wathar;	28-0	Panchagani;	Tue.	2-0	Panchagani;	1-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 5tl
Koregaon;	6-0	Koregaon;	Mon.	6-0	..	..	W.;w.;n	Sl (pr).; pyt. Cs (mp).; 3tl, gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon;	5-0	Satara;	Sun.	5-0	Satara	5-0	rv.	Sl (m).; 2sc.; (mp; mis).; Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 4.; 2tl.; M.
Rahimatpur;	6-0	Targaon;	Wed.	2-0	Local	..	W.	2Sl (2pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; 4tl.; mq.; gym. lib.; 2dp.
Satara Rd.;	19-0	Kanher;	Tue.	2-0	..	0-1	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp. Group).; Vardhini fr. Mg. Vad.13.; 4tl.; gym.
Wathar;	16-0	Bhuinj;	Sat.	1-0	..	..	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; Navalai fr. (Vak. Sud.15).; 3 tl.; lib.
Karad;	42-0	Helwak;	Wed.	6-0	Helwak;	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur;	36-0	Local;	Tue.	..	..	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ciṭeghar ; PTN. ; चिटेघर ..	N. ; 4–0	0.5 ; 100 ; 23 ; 87.	Patan ; 5–0
Copaḍi ; PTN. ; चोपडी ..	SE. ; 5–0	1.5 ; 1077 ; 225 ; 901.	Patan ; 4–0
Corāḍe ; KTV. ; चोराडे ..	S. ; 12–0	5.8 ; 1373 ; 265 ; 1282.	Mhasurne ; 4–0
Corāmbe ; JVL. ; चोरांबे ..	W. ; 1–2	1·8 ; 181 ; 38 ; 174.	Medha ; 2–0
Core ; KRD. ; चोरे ..	S. ; 16–0	7·0 ; 2480 ; 505 ; 2120.	Pal ; 2–0
Dābhe Mohan ; JVL. ; दाभे मोहन ..	W. ; 32–0	2·8 ; 160 ; 35 ; 166.	Mahabaleshwar ; 6–0
Dābhe Dābhākar ; JVL. ; दाभे दाभाकर	W. ; 32·0	4·3 ; 129 ; 28 ; 129.	Mahabaleshwar ; 6–0
Dāḍholi ; PTN. ; दाढोळी ..	NE. ; 25–0	2·0 ; 527 ; 115 ; 526.	Chafal ; 5–0
Dahigānv ; KRG. ; दहिगांव ..	N. ; 17–0	1·3 ; 954 ; 185 ; 885.	Deur ; 2–0
Dahīvaḍ ; STA. ; दहीवड ..	W. ; 9–0	0·8 ; 421 ; 105 : 393.	Satara ; 2–0
Dahivāḍi ; MAN. ; दहिवाडी ..	E. ; 0–2	15·3 ; 4057 ; 748 : 2604.	Local ; ..
Dahyāṭ ; WAI. ; दह्याट ..	W. ; 12–0	1·0 ; 345 ; 71 ; 313.	Mahabaleshwar ; 7–0
Dāḷamoḍi ; KTV. ; दाळमोडी ..	E. ; 4·0	2·8 , 562 ; 99 ; 508.	Vaduj ; 4–0
Dālavaḍi ; PHL. ; दालवडी ..	S. ; 8–0	6·0 ; 567 ; 118 ; 559.	Phaltan ; 10–0
Ḍāmbhevāḍi ; KTV. ; डांभेवाडी ..	NE. ; 7–0	3·8 , 766 ; 137 ; 682.	Katar-khatav ; 3–0
Dānavali ; MHR. ; दानवली ..	E. ; 11–0	0·8 ; 221 ; 61 ; 217.	Panchagani ; 7–0
Ḍāṅgareghar ; JVL. ; डांगरेघर ..	W. ; 6–0	0·8 ; 412 ; 75 ; 410.	Medha ; 4–0
Dāparavāḍi ; JVL. ; दापरवाडी ..	N. ; 13–0	0·8 ; 264 ; 57 ; 262.	Panchagani ; 2–4
Darajāī ; KTV. ; दरजाई ..	NW. ; 6–4	1·8 ; 468 ; 87 ; 453.	Khatav ; 4–0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad;	30-0	Patan;	Mon.	5-0	Patan;	5-0	spr.	tl.
Karad;	16-0	Patan;	Mon.	4-0	Adul;	1-0	W.;rv.	Sl (pr).; Jyotirling fr. Ct. Vad. 5.; 3tl.
Rahimatpur ;	17-0	Mhasurne;	Tue.	4-0	..	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs(p).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 3tl.; M.; mq ; dg.
Satara Rd.;	20-0	Medha;	Mon.	2-0	Satara Mahabaleshwar Rd.;	0-2	W.	tl.
Masur;	9-0	Pal.;	Sun.	2-0	Pal.;	3-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 5tl.
Satara Rd.;	45-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	0-0	Mahabaleshwar;	16-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	45-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	6-0	Mahabaleshwar;	16-0	rv.; spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Masur;	15-0	Chafal;	Thu.	5-0	Chafal;	5-0	spr.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Wathar;	2-0	Deur;	Tue.	2-0	Wathar;	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.;	12-0	Satara;	Sun.	2-0	Parali;	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon;	28-0	Local ;	Mon.	..	Local ;	..	rv.	2Sl (pr;m).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Siddhanath fr. Ct. Vad. 3.; 5tl.; M. ; mq.; 2dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Wathar;	32-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	7-0	Panchagani;	6-0	n.	3tl.
Koregaon;	2"-0	. . .	Sat.	4-0	..	..	w.; str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4 tl.; gym.; ch.
Adarki;	10-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	10-0	..	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; Shri Siddheshwar fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; 3tl.
Koregaon;	31-0	....	Sun.	3-0	Katar-khatav;	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Shri Shankar fr. Srn. Sud. 12.; 3tl.; ch.
Wathar;	35-0	Wai;	Mon.	15-0	Panchagani;	3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.,	32-0	Medha;	Mon.	6-0	Kelghar;	3-0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr)., 2tl.
Satara Rd.,	26-4	Humgaon;	Sun.	6-4	Panchagani;	2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon ;	20-0	Khatav;	Tue.	4-0	..	..	w.	Sl (pr).; Shri Darya devi fr. Srn. Sud. 15.; 3tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Dare ; MHR. ; दरे ..	W ; 3-4	1·8 ; 62 ; 15 ; 61.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5-0
Dare Bk. ; JVL. ; दरे बु. ..	NE. ; 4-0	2·0 ; 809 ; 173 ; 794.	Kudal ; 4-0
Dare Bk. ; STA. ; दरे बु. ..	W. ; 2-0	1·8 ; 627 ; 122 ; 329.	Satara ; 2-0
Dare Kh. ; JVL. ; दरे खुर्द ..	E. ; 9-4	1·5 ; 492 ; 108 ; 488.	Saigaon ; 0-4
Dare Kh. ; STA. ; दरे खुर्द ..	W. ; 0-4	1·3 ; 175 ; 34 ; 84.	Satara ; 2-0
Dare Tarf Paraḷi ; STA. ; दरे तर्फ परळी	W. ; 5-0	1·5 ; 258 ; 62 ; 235.	Satara ; 6-0
Dare Tarf Tāmb ; JVL. ; दरे तर्फ तांब.	SW. ; 11-0	1·8 ; 261 ; 68 ; 261.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 1-4
Daruj ; KTV. ; दरूज ..	SE. ; 5-4	3·8 ; 1211 ; 217 ; 1121.	Khatav ; 3-0
Dasavāḍi ; WAI ; दसवाडी ..	W. ; 8-0	0·8 ; 213 ; 48 ; 206.	Panchagani : 2-0
Dātevāḍī ; KTV. ; दातेवाडी	SE. ; 11-0	4·5 ; 402 ; 80 ; 317.	Mayani ; 5-0
Ḍāvari ; PTN. ; डावरी	SE. ; 9-6	1·5 ; 450 ; 87 ; 449.	Marali ; 2-0
Dastān ; PTN. ; दस्तान ..	NW. ; 20-0	0·8 ; 117 ; 26 ; 117.	Helwak ; 5-0
Degāṅv ; STA. ; देगांव ..	E. ; 6-0	7·3 ; 2547 ; 513 ; 2023.	Local ; ..
Degāṅv ; WAI. ; देगांव ..	E. ; 12-0	0·5 ; 1253 ; 259 ; 1125.	Local ; ..
Dehur ; JVL. ; देहुर ..	S. ; 20-0	8·3 ; 182 ; 39 ; 165.	Medha ; 26-0
Deoghar Tarf Pāṭaṇ ; PTN. ; देवघर तर्फ पाटण	N. ; 3-0	0·2 ; 24 ; 6 ; 24.	Patan ; 3-0
Ḍeravaṇ ; PTN. ; डेरवण ..	NE. ; 21-0	3·0 ; 1285 ; 276 ; 1218.	Chafal ; 1-4
Deur ; KRG. ; देऊर ..	NW. ; 14-0	4·8 ; 1810 ; 258 ; 1565.	Local ; ..
Devāḷi ; MHR. ; देवळी ..	SE. ; 11-0	2·5 ; 325 ; 70 ; 307.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5-0
Devaghar T. Heḷavāk ; PTN. ; देवघर तर्फ हेळवाक	E. ; 25-0	0·1 ; 48 ; 9 ; 48.	Helwak ; 12-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 45-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 5-0	Mahabaleshwar; ..	W.	Sl (pr).; Hanuman fr.; Ct. Sud.15.; 4tl.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Kudal; Wed. 4-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Zaroji fr. Ct. Sud.6.; 5tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 12-0	Satara; Sun. 2-0	3-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; Janaidevi fr. Flg. Sud.9.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Anewadi; Fri. 1-0		w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 12-0	Satara: Sun. 2-0	2-0	n.	Pisaidevi fr. Ct. Vad. 9.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Satara; Sun. 6-0	4-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 35-4	Medha; Mon. 10-4	Medha; 11-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 19-0	Khatav; Tue. 3-0		str.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; lib.; dp.
Wathar; 28-0	Panchagani; Tue. 2-0			Sl (pr).
Koregaon; 34-0	Mayani; Sun. 5-0		W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; mq.; gym.
Karad; 21-0	Sulewadi; Sun. 3-0	Sulewadi. 3-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Siddheshwar fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; 2tl.
Karad; 41-0	Helwak; Wed. 5-0	Helwak; 5-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur; 9-0	Satara; Sun. 2-0	3-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2Cs (2c).; Bahirideo fr. Ct. Sud 11.; 4tl.; lib.
Wathar; 12-0	Bhuinj; Sat. 3-0		W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; mq.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 51-0	Medha; Mon. 20-0	Medha; 20-0	rv.; spr	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad; 26-0	Patan; Mon. 3-0	Patan; 3-0	w.	
Masur; 13-0	Chafal; Thu. 1-4	Stage; 0-2	W.; n.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 4tl.; 2gym.; lib.
Wathar; 3-0	Local; Tue.		rv.; n.	2Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Bhairava fr. Ct. Sud.12.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.; Cch.; Bhosle Palace.
Wathar; 43-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 5-0	Mahabaleshwar; 12-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Someshwar fr. Mg. Sud. 10.; 2tl.
Karad; 49-0	Helwak; Wed. 12-0	Helwak; 12-0	rv.;	2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Devasare ; JVL. ; देवसरे	W. ; 10–0	1·0 ; 168 ; 39 ; 168.	Mahabaleshwar ; 6–0
Devāpūr ; MAN. ; देवापूर ..	E. ; 22–0	4·3 ; 490 ; 95 ; 452.	Mhaswad ; 4–0
Ḍhākaṇī ; MAN. ; ढाकणी ..	SW. ; 14–0	7 5 ; 690 ; 161 ; 640.	Mhaswad ; 8–0
Dhāmaṇer ; KRG. ; धामणेर ..	S. ; 7–6	2·8 ; 1407 ; 287 ; 1027.	Local ; ..
Dhāmaṇī ; MAN. ; धामणी ..	E. ; 13–0	4·8 ; 364 ; 80 ; 351.	Mhaswad ; 6–0
Dhāmaṇī ; PTN. ; धामणी ..	S. ; 40–0	4·8 ; 2545 ; 516 ; 2440.	Local ; ..
Dhānakal ; PTN. ; धानकल ..	W. ; 18–0	2·3 ; 209 ; 55 ; 201.	Helwak ; 3–0
Dhanakavāḍī ; JVL. ; धनकवाडी ..	S. ; 5–0	0·8 ; 165 ; 39 ; 165.	Medha ; 6–0
Dhanḍeghar : MHR. ; धांडेघर ..	E. ; 14–0	1·3 ; 412 ; 90 ; 348.	Panchagani ; 1-0
Dhāradev ; MHR. ; धारदेव ..	S. ; 9–0	0·5 ; 122 ; 25 ; 122.	Mahabaleswar ; 10–0
Dhārāpūrī ; KTV. ; धारापूरी ..	NW., 7–0	2·3 ; 657 ; 130 ; 610.	Khatav ; 3–0
Dhāvaḍaśī ; STA. ; धावडशी ..	NW. ; 8-0	1·8 ; 832 ; 171 ; 648.	Local ; ..
Dhavaḍe ; PTN. ; धावडे ..	S. ; 8–0	2·3 ; 300 ; 69 ; 300.	Morgiri ; 2–0
Dhāvaḍī ; WAI. ; धावडी ..	N. ; 6–0	5·0 ; 1020 ; 204 ; 1002.	Wai ; 5-0
Ḍhavaḷ ; PHL. ; ढवळ ..	NW. ; 11-0	7·3 ; 1560 ; 314 ; 1391.	Phaltan ; 71–0
Dhāvaḷī ; JVL. ; धावली ..	SE. ; 7–4	1·3 ; 76 ; 19 ; 76.	Medha ; 8–0
Dhāvaḷī ; STA. ; धावली ..	W. ; 21–0	1·8 ; 154 ; 48 ; 154.	Parali ; 8–0
Dhāvaḷī ; WAI. ; धावली ..	W. ; 12–0	0·5 ; 140 ; 28 ; 140.	Panchagani ; 3–0
Dhāyaṭī ; PTN. ; धायटी ..	NE. ; 23–0	1·3 ; 295 ; 68 ; 295.	Chafal ; 5–0
Ḍhebevāḍī ; PTN. ; ढेबेवाडी ..	S. ; 14–4	1·8 ; 471 ; 87 ; 162.	Local ; ..
Ḍhokāvale ; PTN. ; ढोकावले ..	E. ; 22–0	2·5 ; 151 ; 33 ; 151.	Helwak ; 15–0
Dhonḍevāḍī ; KTV. ; धोंडेवाडी ..	S. ; 12–0	5·8 ; 854 ; 172 ; 829.	Mayani ; 3–0
Dhom ; WAI. ; धोम ..	W. ; 6–0	2·0 ; 1006 ; 173 ; 948.	Local ; ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 36-0	Mahabaleshwar Tue. 6-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 55-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 4-5	Mhaswad; 4-0	W.	2Sl (pr; m).; Cs (c).
Koregaon; 41-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 8-0	Divad; 5-0	w; n.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; ch.
Rahimatpur; 0-4	Rahimatpur; Tue. 4-0	Local;	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Koregaon; 30-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 6-0	Palashi; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad; 20-0	Local; Mon.	Stage;	w.; W.	3Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c). Bhairavdevi fr. Ct. Vad 4.; 3 tl.; mq.; gym.; 2 lib.
Karad; 39-0	Helwak; Wed. 3-0	Helwak; 5-0	spr.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; 2 tl.
Wathar; 27-0	Wai; Mon. 7-0	Panchagani; 1-4	t.	tl.; gym.
Wathar; 38-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 10-0	Mahabaleshwar; 0-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 18-0	Khatav; Tue. 3-0			Sl (pr).; pyt.; Balubai fr. Ct. Sud. 5.; 3 tl.
Satara Rd.; 17-0	Kanher; Tue. 3-0	Kanher; 3-0	t.; w.; W.	Sl (pr).; Waghaldevi fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; :9 tl.; gym.;lib. (Bhargavaram. fr. Sru 1 to 10).
Karad; 19-0	Morgiri; Thu. 2-6	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Wathar; 25-0	Wai; Mon. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; gym.; ch.
Adarki; 10-0	Phaltan; Sun. 7-0	.. 1-2	str.	3Sl (3pr).; Cs.; 3tl.; M.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 34-0	Medha; Mon. 8-0	Kolghar; 3-0	W.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 24-0	Parali; Mon. 8-0	.. 13-0	str.	tl.
Wathar; 28-0	Panchagani; Tue. 3-0	Wai; 12-0	rv.	2tl.
Masur; 20-0	Chafal; Thu. 5-0	Chafal; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; lib.
Karad; 58-0	Local; Tue. ..	Local; ..	w.	2Sl (pr;h).; 3tl.; M.; lib.; 2dp.
Karad; 52-0	Helwak; Wed. 15-0	.. 12-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 37-0	Mayani; Sun. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Wathar; 26-0	Wai; Mon. 6-0	Local; ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bahirdev fr. Phg. Vad.; 5tl.; 2dh. gym.; lib.; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ḍhorośī ; PTN. ; ढोरोशी ..	S. ; 14–0	2·0 ; 802 ; 154 ; 761.	Tarale ; 3–0
Dhūḷadev ; MAN. ; धूळदेव ..	E. ; 22–0	7·8 ; 346 ; 76 ; 297.	Mhaswad ; 5–0
Dhumāḷavāḍī ; KRG. ; धुमाळवाडी ..	N. ; 7–0	2·0 ; 917 ; 177 ; 482.	Satara Rd. ; 3–0
Ḍicolī ; PTN. ; डिचोली ..	.. ..	3·3 ; 167 ; 30 ; 167.	Melwak , 17–0
Dighavale ; STA. ; दिघवले ..	.. ..	0·8 : 4 ; 1 ; 4	Parali ; 6–0
Ḍiskaḷ ; KTV. ; डिस्कळ ..	NW. ; 22–0	16·8 ; 4193 ; 801 ; 4013.	Local ; ..
Dikṣī ; PTN. ; दिक्षी ..	S. ; 10–0	0·3 ; 108 ; 24 ; 92.	Morgiri ; 4–0
Divaḍ ; MAN. ; दिवड ..	SE. ; 13–0	8·0 ; 1214 , 310 ; 969.	Mahswad ; 5–0
Divadev ; JVL. ; दिवदेव ..	NW. ; 3–0	0·8 ; 289 ; 62 ; 289.	Medha ; 2–0
Divaśī Bk. ; PTN. ; दिवशी बु. ..	SE. ; 4–0	0·3 ; 1825 ; 313 ; 1371.	Bahule ; 3–0
Divaśī Kh. ; PTN. ; दिवशी खुर्द ..	N. ; 10–0	4·8 ; 580 ; 122 ; 580.	Patan ; 9–0
Doḍāṇī ; JVL. ; दोडाणी ..	W. ; 28–0	6·3 ; 75 ; 15 ; 75.	Mahabaleshwar ; 16–0
Doḷegāṅv ; STA. ; डोळेगांव ..	S. ; 7–0	1·3 : 577 ; 103 ; 418.	Nagthane , 4–0
Dudhagāṅv ; MHR. ; दुधगाव ..	SE. ; 9–0	1·8 ; 193 ; 45 ; 82.	Mahabaleshwar ; 7–0
Dudhebāvī ; PHL. ; दुधेबावी ..	NW. ; 8–0	7·5 ; 1523 ; 289 ; 1391.	Local ; .
Dudhośī ; MHR. ; दुधोशी ..	W. ; 7–0	1·8 ; 88 ; 18 ; 82.	Mahabaleshwar ; 5–0
Dughī ; KRG. ; दुघी ..	S. ; 4–0	2·0 ; 692 ; 148 ; 608.	Rahimatpur ; 4–0
Duīcīvāḍī ; WAI. ; दुईचीवाडी ..	NW. ; 8–4	0·5 ; 90 ; 22 , 90.	Wai ; 10–0
Dund ; JVL. ; दुंद ..	S. ; 5–0	1·3 ; 300 ; 72 ; 297.	Medha ; 2–0
Dusere ; KRD. ; दुसेरे ..	S. ; 10–0	1·5 ; 1413 ; 281 ; 1259.	Vadgaon Haveli ; 1–4
Dusāḷe ; PTN. ; दुसाळे ..	N. ; 35–4	1·0 ; 284 ; 52 ; 273.	Chafal ; 5–0
Ekambe ; KRG. ; एकंबे	SE. ; 5–0	11·8 ; 1718 ; 333 ; 1532.	Local ; .
Ekasaḷ ; KRG. ; एकसळ ..	S. ; 2–0	2·8 ; 907 ; 179 ; 901.	Koregaon ; 2–4

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Targaon; 11-0	Tarale; Sat. 3-0	Tarale; 3-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).: Cs (c).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Sud.14.; 3tl.; gym.; lib.
Pandharpur; 32-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 5-0	Satara-Pandharpur Rd.; 0-2	n.; W.	Sl (pr).; Dhuloba fr. Ct. Sud.15.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 3-0	Padali; Wed. 1-0	Satara Rd.; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Karad; 54-0	Helwak; Wed. 17-0	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Parali; Mon. 0-0	.. ..		DESERTED.
Koregaon, 12-0	Local; Wed. ..	.. ..	w.	2Sl (pr;h).; pyt.; 22tl.; M.; 2mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 12-0	Morgiri; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	W.	tl.
Koregaon; 40-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 5-0	Local; 1-4	W.: n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; mq.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Medha; Mon. 2-0	Madurdi; 2-0	pl.	2tl.
Karad; 15 0	Marul Tarf Haveli; Fri. 4-0	Bahule; 3-0	W.;w.	2Sl (pr;m).; 2tl.
Karad; 34-0	Patan; Mon. 9-0	Patan; 9-0	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; M.
Padali; 48-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 16-0	Medha; 28-0	W.	tl.
Targaon; 14-0	Nagthane; Tues. 4-0	Walse; 1-0	str.	Sl (pr); Cs (c).; Hanuman fr ct. sud. 15 4tl.; ch.
Wathar; 47-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 7-0	Mahabaleshwar; 8-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; Dudhai Devi fr. Mg. Sud. 9.; 3tl.
Lonand; 25-0	Bazar; Sat. ..	.. ..	W.; w.; str.	Sl (m).; 2Cs (mp;wv).; 5tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch; lib;
Wathar; 43-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 5-0	Mahabaleshwar; 8-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl
Rahimatpur; 4-0	Rahimatpur; Thu. 4-0	.. ..	w.; n.	Sl (pr); pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Wathar; 30-0	Wai; Mon. 10-0	Wai; 10-0	rsr.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 3-0	Medha; Mon. 3-0	.. ..	pl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; gym.
Shenoli; 3-4	Vadgaon Haveli; Mon. 1-4	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); pyt.; 2tl.; lib.
Targaon; 10-0	Tarale; Sat. 5-0	Tarale; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Jalai Devi fr. Phg. Sud. 10.; 4 tl.
Koregaon; 7-0	Koregaon; Mon. 7-0	Koregaon; 5-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 4 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon: 2-4	Koregaon; Mon. 2-4	Local;	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ekasar ; WAI.; एकसर ..	W. ; 3-0	1·8 ; 727 ; 134 ; 581.	Wai ; 4-0
Enphūl ; KTV.; एनफूल ..	E. ; 9-0	6·8 ; 1564 ; 240 ; 1337.	Pusegaon ; 2-0
Eraṇḍāl ; MHR.; एरंडाल ..	E. ; 6-0	0·5 ; 138 ; 31 ; 134.	Mahabaleshwar ; 4-0
Gāḍhavakhop ; PTN.; गाढवखोप ..	W. ; 18-0	1·8 ; 281 ; 60 ; 268.	Helwak ; 5-0
Gajavāḍī ; STA.; गजवाडी ..	W. ; 5-0	0·8 ; 630 ; 137 ; 566.	Parali ; 1-0
Gāḍhavalī ; JVL.; गाढवली ..	W. ; 10-0	1·0 ; 170 ; 41 ; 167.	Bamnoli Kasabo ; 1-0
Gāḷadev ; JVL. ; गाळदेव ..	W. ; 6-0	0·8 ; 80 ; 21 ; 80.	Medha ; 6-0
Gaṅgotī ; MAN. ; गंगोती ..	E. ; 20-0	4·3 ; 495 ; 122 ; 465.	Mhaswad ; 3-0
Gāñje ; JVL. ; गांजे ..	W. ; 2-0	3·3 ; 799 ; 188 ; 701.	M a ; 2-0
Garavāḍe ; PTN. ; गारवाडे ..	SE. ; 12-0	2·5 ; 1308 ; 261 ; 1233.	Bahule ; 0-2
Gavaḍī ; JVL. ; गवडी ..	W. ; 3-0	1·3 ; 569 ; 101 ; 513.	Medha ; 3-0
Gāvaḍī ; STA. ; गावडी ..	W. ; 7-0	.. 362 ; 72 ; 309.	.. ..
Gāvaḍhośī ; JVL. ; गावढोशी ..	W. ; 10-0	1·8 ; 280 ; 77 ; 279.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 8-0
Ghāṇav ; PTN. ; घाणव ..	N. ; 6-0	1·3 ; 249 ; 52 ; 233.	Patan ; 6-0
Ghāṇavī ; PTN. ; घाणवी ..	NW. ; 9-4	3·8 ; 282 ; 80 ; 280.	Tarale ; 8-0
Ghāṭamāthā ; PTN. ; घाटमाथा ..	W. ; 19-0	0·8 ; 44 ; 10 ; 44.	Helwak ; 5-0
Ghāṭavaṇ ; STA. ; घाटवण ..	SW. ; 15-0	0·5 ; 56 ; 10 ; 56.	Parali ; 9-0
Ghāvarī ; MHR. ; घावरी ..	S. ; 7-0	1·3 ; 241 ; 51 ; 186.	Mahabaleshwar ; 7-0
Gherādātegaḍ ; PTN. ; घेरादातेगड	W. ; 4-4	1·3 ; 95 ; 21 ; 94.	Patan ; 4-0
Gherā-Keḷañjā ; WAI. ; घेरा केळंजा	W. ; 15.0	2·0 ; 135 ; 27 ; 135.	Wai ; 5-0
Ghogāṅv ; KRD. ; घोगांव ..	SW. ; 16-0	4·3 ; 1043 ; 209 ; 1020.	Yelgaon 2-4
Ghoṇasapūr ; MHR. ; घोणसपूर ..	S. ; 14-0	1·0 ; 98 ; 17 ; 97.	Mahabaleshwar ; 12-0
Ghoṇaśī ; KRD. ; घोणशी ..	N. ; 5-0	0·8 ; 412 ; 50 ; 395.	Umbraj ; 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 24-0	Wai; Mon. 4-0		W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; gym.;
Koregaon; 34-0	Pusegaon; Sun. 2-0		str.	2Sl. (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.
Wathar; 44-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 7-0	Machurar; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad; 40-0	Helwak; Wed. 5-0	3-0	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 17-0	Parali; Mon. 1-0	Parali, 1-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Padali; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 8-0	Medha; 10-0	rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	Medha; 6-0	rsr.; rv.	Galeshwar fr. Kt. Sud 11.; 2tl.
Koregaon; 54-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 3-0	Mhaswad; 4-0	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 27-0	Medha; Mon. 2-0	Medha; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bhairav fr. Pgh. Vad. 7.; 3tl.; M.; lib.
Karad; 15-0	Marul T. Haveli Fri. 0-2	Bahule; 2-0	W.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(o); Ganapati fr. Srn. Sud. 9.; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 29-0	Medha; Mon. 3-0		W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl. ;
		1-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Satara Rd.; 40-0	Medha; Mon. 14-0	Medha; 19-0	rv.; spr.	2tl.
Karad; 31-0	Patan; Mon. 6-0	Patan; 6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Nath fr. Ct. Sud. 11.; 2tl.
Karad; 31-0	Tarale; Sat. 8-0		n.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Karad; 30-0	Helwak; Wed. 5-0	Helwak; 6-0	n.	
Satara Rd.; 2[illegible]-0	Parali; Mon. 9-0	Parali; 9-0	rsr.	Devi fr. Psh. 4.; tl.
Wathar; 47-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 7-0	Mahabaleshwar; 9-0	pl.; t	Bhairoba fr. Mg. Sud. 8.; 2 tl.
Karad; 25-0	Patan; Mon. 4-0		n.	
Wathar; 36-0	Wai; Mon. 5-0		spr.	Fort.
Karad; 18-0	Yelgaon; Thu. 2-4		W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; gym.; 3Cch.
Wathar; 52-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 12-0	Mahabaleshwar; 16-0	spr.	2tl.; Pandav Lake.
Masur; 4-0	Umbraj; Mon. 5-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Janubai fr. Vsk. Sud. 5.; 2tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Ghoṭ ; PTN. ; घोट ..	S. ; 16-0	5·5 ; 1381 ; 306 ; 1353.	Tarale ; 3-0
Ghoṭīl ; PTN. ; घोटील ..	.. ..	3·8 ; 755 ; 161 ; 716.	Dhobewadi ; 5-0
Giravī ; PHL. ; गिरवी ..	.. 8-0	19·8 ; 2320 ; 403 ; 2023.	Local ; ..
Goḍavalī ; MHR. ; गोडवली ..	E. ; 13-0	1·3 ; 366 ; 79 ; 325.	Panchagani ; 1-0
Goḍelī ; STA. ; गोडेली ..	E. ; 0-3	Part of municipal area.	.. ..
Gogave ; JVL. ; गोगवे	W. ; 9-0	1·5 ; 448 ; 102 ; 402.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 8-0
Gojegāṅv ; PTN. ; गोजेगांव ..	NW. ; 23-0	8·3 ; 925 ; 216 ; 890.	Helwak ; 10-0
Gojegāṅv ; STA. ; गोजेगांव ..	E. ; 7-0	1·0 ; 500 ; 105 ; 453.	Tasgaon ; 1-0
Gokhalī ; PHL. ; गोखली ..	NE. ; 14-0	5·3 ; 1686 ; 334 ; 1400.	Gunware ; 5-0
Gokuḷ T. Heḷavāk ; PTN. ; गोकुळ तर्फ हेळवाक	W. ; 18-0	2·8 ; 277 ; 74 ; 245.	Helwak ; 2-0
Gokuḷ T. Pāṭaṇ ; PTN. ; गोकुळ तर्फ पाटण	S. ; 8-0	1·8 ; 200 ; 49 ; 256.	Morgiri ; 4-0
Goḷegāṅv ; WAI. ; गोळगांव ..	W. ; 18-0	1·3 ; 104 ; 21 ; 104.	Mahabaleshwar ; 3-0
Goḷeśwar ; KRD. ; गोळेश्वर ..	SE. ; 3-0	2·5 ; 1125 ; 208 ; 769.	Karad ; 3-0
Golewāḍī ; WAI. ; गोळेवाडी ..	W., 16-0	1·8 ; 237 ; 48 ; 190.	Mahabaleshwar ; 4-0
Gondavale Bk. ; MAN. ; गोंदवले बु.	E. ; 3-4	0·8 ; 2352 ; 537 ; 1653.	Local ; ..
Gondavale Kh. ; MAN. ; गोंदवले खुर्द	E. ; 6-0	9·0 ; 1214 ; 220 ; 991.	Gondavale Budruk ; 2-0
Goṇḍemāḷ ; JVL. ; गोंडेमाळ ..	SW. ; 5-0	1·0 ; 111 ; 27 ; 111.	Medha ; 4-0
Gondī ; KRD. ; गोंदी ..	S. ; 17-0	1·3 ; 747 ; 143 ; 595.	Shenoli ; 3-0
Gopūj ; KTV. ; गोपूज ..	SW. ; 6-0	3·8 ; 1182 ; 243 ; 1104.	Aundh ; 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Targaon; 8-0	Tarale; Sat. 3-0	Tarale; 3-0	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 7tl.; gym.
Karad; 27-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 5-0	Dhebewadi; 5-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand; 25-0	Bazar; Sat.	Local	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m).; 3Cs (mp; ws; fmg).; 10tl.; M.; 3 gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Wathar; 27-0	Wai; Mon. 7-0	Panchagani; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 3 tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
....	....	.. 0-2	..	Sl (pr).; Balidco fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.
Satara Rd. 35-0	Medha; Mon. 9-0	Medha; 9-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; Sarvodaya Office.; Agricultural office.
Karad; 52-0	Helwak; Wed. 10-0	.. ..	rv.	2Sl (pr; h.).; tl.
Rahimatpur 4-0	Tasgaon; Wed. 1-0	0-6	rv.	Sl. (pr).; Cs. (mp).; 3tl.; lib.
Baramati; 9-0	Bazar; Sat.	6-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).; 4tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 36-0	Helwak; Wed. 2-0	Koyananagar; 4-0	n.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Karad; 31-0	Morgiri; Thu. 4-0	Patan; 8-0	W.; spr.	Ninai fr. Ct. Sud. 13.; tl.
Wathar; 38-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 3-0	Mahabaleshwar. 3-0	W.; rv.	pyt.; tl.
Karad; 6-0	Karad: Thu. 3-0	Karad; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Wathar; 38-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 4-0	Mahabaleshwar. 4-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon 29-0	Local Thu.	Local	rv.;W.; w.; n.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 8tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; ch; lib.; 2dp.
Koregaon; 31-0	Gondavale Bk. Thu. 2-0	Local	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; gym.
Satara Rd. 30-0	Medha; Mon. 4-0		n.	2tl.
Shenoli; 2-0	Shenoli; Sat. 2-0	Shenoli; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Rahimatpur. 17-0	Aundha; Tue. 5-0	Local	str.; w.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Goregāṅv Nimasoḍ ; KTV. ; गोरेगांव निमसोड	S. ; 8–0	1·8 ; 341 ; 77 ; 328.	Ambavade ; 2-0
Goregāṅv Vāṅgī ; KTV. ; गोरेगांव वांगी	S. ; 15–0	3·0 ; 1139 ; 222 ; 858.	Pusesawali ; 1-4
Goreśī ; MHR. ; गोरेशी ..	S. ; 8–0	0·8 ; 72 ; 12 ; 63.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 9–0
Goṣaṭvāḍī ; PTN. ; गोषटवाडी ..	W. ; 10–0	2·3 ; 229 ; 56 ; 221.	Helwak ; 2–0
Goṭhaṇe ; PTN. ; गोठणे ..	W. ; 13–4	6·8 ; 135 ; 30 ; 135.	Morgiri ; 11–0
Govāre ; KRD. ; गोवारे	E. ; 3–0	2·5 ; 1234 ; 191 ; 983.	Ogalewadi ; 2–0
Govāre ; PTN. ; गोवारे ..	W. ; 12–0	2·8 ; 115 ; 28 ; 115.	Helwak ; 5–0
Gove ; STA. ; गोवे ..	N. ; 10–0	3·8 ; 1447 ; 292 ; 1286.	Limb ; 0.4
Gove ; WAI. ; गोंवे ..	W. ; 10–0	1·0 ; 358 ; 81 ; 345.	Dhom ; 3–0
Guḍhe ; PTN. ; गुढे ..	S. ; 37–0	2·3 ; 1721 ; 330 ; 1534.	Dhebe-wadi ; 3-0
Guḷumb ; WAI. ; गुळुंब ..	NE. ; 8–0	4·3 ; 1830 ; 367 ; 1598.	Surur ; 2–0
Guṇavare ; PHL. ; गुणवरे ..	W. ; 11–0	7·5 ; 1770 ; 353 ; 1632.	Local ; ..
Guñjāḷī ; PTN. ; गुंजाळी ..	W. ; 4–0	0·5 ; 265 ; 54 ; 265.	Morgiri ; 2-0
Gurasāḷe ; KTV. ; गुरसाळे ..	S. ; 5–0	9·8 ; 1671 ; 206 ; 1529.	Vaduj ; 5–0
Gureghar ; MHR. ; गुरेघर ..	E. ; 7–0	0·8 ; 120 ; 30 ; 116.	Pancha-gani ; 5–0
Gureghar ; PTN. ; गुरेघर ..	S. ; 10–0	0·5 ; 56 ; 13 ; 50.	Local ; ..
Hamadābād ; STA. ; हमदाबाद ..	N. ; 4–0	0·8 ; 261 ; 46 ; 232.	Satara ; 3–0
Haracanḍī ; JVL. ; हरचंदी ..	W. ; 21–0	1·5 ; 302 ; 73 ; 253.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; [illegible]
Harośī ; MHR. ; हरोशी ..	W. ; 9–0	0·8 ; 134 ; 37 ; 134.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 10–0
Hātageghar ; JVL. ; हातगेघर ..	N. ; 14–0	1·5 ; 721 ; 162 ; 701.	Kharshi ; T. Baramure ; 3–0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Koregaon;	30–0	Mayani;	Sun.	5–0			w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Rahimatpur.	18–4	Pusesawali;	Wed.	1–4			w.; str.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.
Wathar;	40–0	Mahabaleshwar.	Tue.	9–0	Mahabaleshwar.	8–0	rv.; spr.	2tl.
Karad;	34–0	Helwak;	Wed.	2–0	Helwak;	2–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad;	53–0	Morgiri;	Thu.	11–0		6–0	spr.	tl.
Karad;	2–0	Karad;	Thu.	1–0			rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Chaundeshwari fr. Vsk. Vad. 15.; 3tl.; mq.; lib.
Karad;	39–0	Helwak;	Wed.	5–0		3–0	w.; rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.	6–0	Limb.	Sun.	0–4	Limb;	1–0	W.; rv; w.	Sl (pr).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; Bhairavnath fr. Vsh. Sud. 4 M.; gym.; lib.
Wathar;	27–0	Wai;	Mon.	9–0			rv.; W.	Sl. (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Karad;	19–0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	3–0			W.	Sl (m).; pyt.; Cs. (c); Jyotiba fr. Krt. Vad. 5.; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Lonand;	25–0	Surur;	Sun.	2–0			W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 3tl.; mq; 2dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Lonand;	20–0	Barad;	Fri.	3–0	Stage	1–0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad;	25–0	Patan;	Mon.	2–0	Stage;	0–3	W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Rahimatpur.:	18–0	Vaduj;	Sat.	5–0	Gopuj;	3–0	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; dg.; ch. lib.; Cch.
Wathar;	33–0	Wathar;	Mon.	13–0	Mahabaleshwar.	7–0	W.	Sl. (pr).; tl.; dh.
Karad;	34–0	Local;	Wed.	..	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.;	13–0	Satara;	Sun.	3–0	Kondave;	1–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; Kalubai fr. Vsk. Vad. 2.; 4tl.; dh.
Satara Rd.;	40–0	Medha;	Mon.	14–0	Mahabaleshwar;	14–0	W.	3tl.
Wathar;	50–0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	10–0	Mahabaleshwar;	9–0	w.; W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Janai devi fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.
Wathar;	45–0	Humgaon;	Mon.	5–0	Humgaon;	5–0	pl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 6tl.; gym.; lib.; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Hātaloṭ ; MHR. ; हातलोट ..	W. ; 14-0	3·0 ; 238 ; 54 , 221.	Mahabaleshwar ; 10-0
Heḷagāṅv ; KRD. ; हेळगांव	NW. ; 17-0	6·8 ; 1959 ; 402 ; 1588.	Local ; ..
Heḷavāk ; PTN. ; हेळवाक ..	W. ; 13-0	0·03 ; 599 ; 139 ; 156.	Local ; ..
Haraḷi ; KDL. ; हरळी ..	NE. ; 3-4	2·5 ; 234 ; 54 ; 233.	Khandala ; 4-0
Hiṅgaṇe ; KTV. ; हिंगणे ..	E. ; 3-6	3·3 ; 731 ; 132 ; 548.	Vaduj ; 3-4
Hiṅgaṇi ; MAN. ; हिंगणी ..	E. ; 24-0	11·5 ; 628 ; 139 ; 626.	Mhaswad ; 6-0
Hiṅganoḷe ; KRD. ; हिंगनोळे ..	N. ; 14-0	2·3 ; 1008 ; 202 ; 895.	Umbraj ; 2 0
Hiṅgaṇagaṅv ; PHL. ; हिंगणगांव.	W. ; 17-0	11·8 ; 1924 ; 300 ; 1537.	Lonand ; 6-0
Hivaravāḍi ; KTV. ; हिवरवाडी ..	E. ; 14-0	2·3 ; 347 ; 55 ; 332.	Mayani ; 6-0
Hivare ; KRG. ; हिवरे ..	N. ; 12-0	4·8 ; 783 ; 167 ; 682.	Bhadale ; 2-0
Hoḷ ; PHL. ; होळ ..	NW. ; 11-0	6·8 ; 6023 ; 1429 ; 3924.	Local ; ..
Hoḷicāgāṅv ; KTV. ; होळीचागांव ..	S. ; 10-0	1·5 ; 562 ; 98 ; 521.	Local ; ..
Humagāṅv ; JVL. ; हुमगांव ..	N. ; 8-0	3·8 ; 1351 ; 277 ; 1156.	Local ; ..
Humbarṇe ; PTN. ; हुंबरणे	S. ; 15-0	4·5 ; 116 ; 35 ; 116.	Helwak ; 4-0
Humbaroḷi ; PTN. ; हुंबरोळी ..	W. ; 19-0	3·8 ; 390 ; 103 ; 275.	Helwak ; 4-0
Husenpūr ; KTV. ; हुसेनपूर ..	W. ; 8-0	Deserted	Deserted
Indavaḷi T. Kuḍāḷ ; JVL. ; इंदवली तर्फ कुडाळ	N. ; 7-0	1·3 ; 487 ; 104 ; 434.	Kudal ; 2-0
Indoli ; KRD. ; इंदोली ..	N. ; 14-0	4·3 ; 2084 ; 453 ; 1785.	Local ; ..
Iñjabāv ; MAN. ; इंजबाव ..	NE. ; 26-0	5·3 ; 1016 ; 191 ; 870.	Mhaswad ; 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 50-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue 10-0	Mahabaleshwar; 16-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Masur; 5-0	Masur; Wed. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; 2M.; mq.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 34-0	Local; Wed. ..	Local ..	rv.; pl.	Sl (m).; 3Cs (mp; 2mis.).; 3tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; lib.; 2dp.
Lonand; 11-0	Khandala; Sun. 4-0	Khandala; 3-4	W.; w.	Sl (pr).: Cs (mp-gr).; Kadjai Devi fr. Psh.Sud.9.; 3tl.; dh.
Koregaon: 27-4	Vaduj; Sat. 2-0	Vaduj; 3-0	n. w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 57-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 6-0	Mhaswad; 6-4	W.	Sl (pr).; Cs(o).; tl.
Masur; 5-0	Umbraj; Mon. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	2Sl (pr;m).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 2tl.; mq.;
Salpe; 2-0	Lonand; Thu. 5-0	Adarki Bk.; 3-0	w., W.	Sl (pr).; Cs(cs).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Vad.14.; 6tl.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Koregaon; 45-0	Mayani; Sun. 0-0	Mavani; 50-0	W.; str	Sl (pr).; Pir ur. Ct. Sud. 8; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 7-0	Bhadale; Thu. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; dg.; gym.
Lonand; 12-0	Sakharwadi; Thu. 2-0	Local; ..	rv.; w.	4Sl (2pr;2m).; Cs.; Bhairav Nath fr. Ct. Vad.8.; 6tl.; ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Rahimatpur; 23-0	Vaduj; Sat. 8-0	Nimsod; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Ghadgebua fr. Asd. Vad. 5.; 4tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 25-0	Local Sun. ..	Local .	W.; rv.	2Sl (pr;h).: pyt.; Cs (mp). 5tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 34-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	Patan· 15-0	spr; w.	tl.
Karad; 34-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	Koyananagar; 5-0	n.; w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Deserted	Deserted ..	Deserted	Deserted	tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Kudal; Wed. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Masur; 6-0	Local Fri. ..	.. ..	w.; rv.	2Sl (pr;m).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Koregaon: 42-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 7-0	Mhaswad; 9-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(o).; 2tl.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Jāitapūr ; STA. ; जैतापूर ..	E. ; 5-0	0·8 ; 428 ; 81 ; 426.	Chinchner Vandan ; 1-0
Jakhaṇagāṅv ; KTV. ; जाखणगांव	W. ; 10-0	5·8 ; 2003 ; 387 ; 1966.	Khatav ; 2-0
Jākhiṇavāḍi ; KRD. ; जाखीणवाडी	S. ; 3-0	3·8 ; 1095 ; 232 ; 985.	Karad ; 3-0
Jaḷagāṅv ; KRG. ; जळगांव ..	NW. ; 4-4	4·5 ; 1679 ; 331 ; 1670.	Satara Road ; 2-0
Jalagevāḍi ; PTN. ; जालगेवाडी..	NE. ; 21-0	2·3 ; 563 ; 123 ; 537.	Chafal ; 1-4
Jaḷū ; PTN. ; जळू ..	S. ; 15-0	0·3 ; 366 ; 70 ; 353.	Tarale ; 6-0
Jāmb ; KTV. ; जांब ..	W. ; 12-0	3.8 ; 973 ; 170 ; 950.	Khatav ; 6-0
Jāmb ; WAI. ; जांब ..	SE. ; 12-0	2.0 ; 1003 ; 209 ; 846.	Bhuinj ; 3-0
Jāmb Bk. ; KRG. ; जांब बु. ..	W. ; 3-4	3.3 ; 1017 ; 216 ; 807.	Koregaon ; 5-0
Jāmb Kh. ; KRG. ; जांब खुर्द ..	N. ; 9-0	3.8 ; 602 ; 125 ; 581.	Kinhi ; 2-0
Jāmbaruk , JVL. ; जांबरूक ..	S. ; 28-0	2.3 ; 285 ; 73 ; 276.	Patan ; 12-0
Jāmbhaḷi ; WAI. ; जांभळी ..	W. ; 16-0	9.0 ; 308 ; 51 ; 308.	Dhom ; 9-0
Jāmbhe ; STA. ; जांभे ..	.. 14-0	4.3 ; 253 ; 50 ; 253.	Parali ; 10-0
Jāmbhūḷaṇe ; WAI. ; जांभूळणे ..	SW. ; 7-5	0 3 ; 34 ; 7 ; 34.	Wai ; 7-0
Jāmbhūḷaṇī ; MAN. ; जांभूळणी..	SE. ; 25-0	10 3 ; 857 ; 184 ; 696.	Mahaswad ; 6-0
Jāsī . MAN. ; जासी ..	E. ; 9 0	5.3 ; 648 ; 118 ; 573.	Ranand ; 2-0
Javaḷe ; KDL. ; जवळे .	W. ; 9-0	2.8 ; 736 ; 148 ; 713.	Khandala ; 9-0
Jāvaḷi ; MHR. ; जावळी ..	S. ; 10-0	2.3 ; 213 ; 48 ; 206.	Mahabaleshwar ; 10-0
Jāvaḷi ; PHL. ; जावळी ..	SE. ; 13-4	11.5 ; 696 ; 129 ; 592.	Phaltan ; 14-0
Jayagāṅv ; KTV. ; जयगांव ..	W. ; 13-0	5.0 ; 1345 ; 296 ; 1168.	Aundh ; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Rahimatpur; 8–0	Tasgaon; Wed. 3–0	.. 0–2	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ganesh fr. Bhd. Sud. 14.; 5tl.; mq.; gym. The River tank Krishna dates back to the period of Shri Khandoballal Chitnis.
Koregaon; 18–0	Khatav; Tue. 2–0	.. ..	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bhairavnath fr. Ct.Vad.8.; 8tl.; gym. lib.
Karad; 3–0	Karad; Thu. 3–0	Karad; 3–0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.;
Satara Rd. 2–0	Satara Rd.; Wed. 2–0	Satara Rd.; 2–0	w.;rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bahiroba fr. Ct.Vad.11.; 3tl.; gym.
Masur; 13–0	Chafal; Thu. 1–4	Chafal; 2–0	W.;w.	Sl (pr).; Jyotirling fr. Pbg.; Sud. 13.; tl.
Targaon; 14–0	Tarale; Sat. 0–0	Tarale; 5–0	t.	Sl (pr).; Jyotiba fr. Mg. Sud. 15.; tl.
Koregaon; 12–0	Khatav; Tue. 6–0	Khatav; 6–0	w.;	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 4tl.; gym.
Wathar; 11–0	Bhuinj; Sat. 3–0	Panchwad; 3–0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Bhairav fr. Vsk.Sud.9.; 4tl.; M.
Koregaon; 5–0	Koregaon; Mon. 5–0	Triputi; 1–0	W.;w.; n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Tatoba fr. Phg.Vad.6.; 3tl.; M.; dh.; gym.
Koregaon; 7–0	Kinhi; Fri. 2–0	Satara Rd. 0–0	n.; w.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 34–0	Patan; Wed. 12–0	Medha, 28–0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.
Wathar; 36–0	Wai; Mon. 15–0	.. .	..	Sl (pr).:
Satara Rd.; 26–0	Parali; Mon. 10–0	.. ..	t.	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.
Wathar; 19–0	Wai; Mon. 7–0	.. ..	spr.	tl.
Koregaon; 56–0	Mhaswad; Wed. 6–0	Mhaswad: 0–0	W.; w., n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; lib.; dp.
Koregaon; 42–0	Palshi; Sat. 2–0	Gondavale; 4–0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand; 22–0	Khandala; Sun. 0 0	Local .	W.	Sl (m).; Cs (c).; Janubai fr.Ct. Sud.15.; 2tl.; gym.; ch., 2dp.
Wathar; 50–0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 10–0	Mahabaleshwar; 10–0	rv.; W.	Sl(pr).; Bhairav fr. Ct.Sud. 14.; 3tl.
Lonand; 31–0	Barad; Fri. 6–0	Local ..	W.	Sl(pr).; 5tl.; M.; dh.; gym. ch.
Rahimatpur; 11–0	Aundh; Tue. 2–0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); pyt.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch. ; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Household ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Jayagāṅv ; KRG. ; जायगांव ..	SE. ; 8-0	141 ; 712 ; 141 ; 709.	Rahimatpur ; 5 0
Jihe ; STA. ; जिहे ..	E. ; 12-0	4.3 ; 1054 ; 309 ; 957.	Local ; ..
Jinti ; KRD. ; जिन्ती ..	SW ; 10 0	5.3 ; 1365 ; 255 ; 1303.	Ond ; 4-0
Jinti ; PTN. ; जिन्ती ..	. ..	5.0 ; 1133 ; 218 ; 1110.	Dhebewadi ; 7 0
Jinti ; PHL. ; जिन्ती ..	NW. ; 7 0	6.5 ; 2009 ; 401 ; 1047.	Palthan ; 6 0
Jor. ; WAI. ; जोर ..	W. ; 19 0	9.5 ; 393 ; 80 ; 393.	Mahabaleshwar ; 3 0
Juṅgaṭī ; JVL. ; जुंगटी ..	S. ; 24 0	6.3 ; 195 ; 39 ; 195.	Medha ; 30 0
Kādaṇe ; PTN. ; कादणे ..	SE. ; 10 0	2 8 ; 982 ; 175 ; 949.	Kumbhargaon. 4-0
Kaḍave Bk. PTN ; कडवे बु. ..	.. ..	3.0 ; 1482 ; 336 ; 1417.	Tarale ; 2 0
Kaḍave Kh. ; PTN. ; कडवे खुर्द..	.. ..	0.5 ; 531 ; 117 ; 512.	Morgiri : 6 0
Kaḍegāṅv ; WAI. ; कडेगांव	E. ; 4 4	1.8 ; 456 ; 98 ; 353.	Wai ; 4 0
Kāḍoḷi ;PTN. ; काडोळी ..	W. ; 9 4	2.8 ; 180 ; 41 ; 180.	Morgiri ; 6-0
Kāhir ; PTN. ; काहीर .	S. ; 12 0	2.5 ; 273 ; 61 , 271.	Morgiri ; 6-0
Kaḷacauṇḍi ; MAN. ; काळचौंडी..	SE. ; 29 0	5.8 ; 689 ; 150 ; 500.	Mhaswad ; 11-0
Kāḷāgaṅv ; KRD. ; काळगांव ..	N. ; 14 0	2.5 ; 1529 ; 282 ; 1424.	Local ; ..
Kāḷāgaṅv ; PTN. ; काळगांव ..	S. ; 43 0	11.3 ; 4101 ; 818 ; 3440.	Local ; .
Kāḷaj ; PHL. ; काळज ..	W. ; 10 0	3.3 ; 873 ; 187 ; 751.	Sakharwadi ; 3-0
Kaḷakevāḍi ; PTN. ; कळकेवाडी..	S. ; 8-0	0.5 ; 130 ; 27 ; 130.	Morgiri ; 4-0
Kaḷambe ; STA. ; कळंबे ..	NW. ; 6 4	1.8 ; 835 ; 167 ; 658.	Kanher ; 3-0
Kaḷambe ; PTN. ; कळंबे ..	.. ..	0.1 ; 274 ; 64 ; 274.	Local : ..

Railway St.; Distance.*	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Rahimat-pur; 5-0	Rahimat-pur; Thu. 5-0	Rahimat-pur; 6-0	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Rahimat-pur; 2-0	Tasgaon; Wed. 2-0	 1-0	w.; rv.	3Sl(3pr).; 6 tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 14-0	Nandgaon; .. 4-0	.... ..	W.; w.	2Sl(2pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 29-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 7-0	Dhebwadi; 7-0	W.; w.	2Sl(pr.;m).; 2tl.
Lonand; 11-0	Phaltan; Sun. 6-0	Sakharwadi 1-0	str.; w.	Sl(m).; 2Cs (2mp).; Jotiba fr. Ct. Vad.S.; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Wathar; 40-0	Mahabalesh-war. Tue 3-0	Mahabalesh-war; 3-4	rv.	3tl.
Satara Rd.; 55-0	Medha; Mon. 30-0	Medha 24-0	rv.	Sl(pr).: tl.
Karad; 13-0	Munewadi; Mon. 1-0	Local-stage 1-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Shri Ram fr., Ct. Sud.9.; 2tl.
Targaon; 25-0	Tarale; Sat. 2-0	Tarale; 2-0	W.	2Sl (pr; h).; 3tl.
Karad; 33-0	Morgiri; Thu. 6-0	Morgiri; 6-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).: tl.
Wathar; 14-0	Wai; Mon. 4-0	.... ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; 2tl. gym.
Karad; 35-0	Helwak; Wed. 6-0	 1-0	W.; n.	tl.
Karad; 33-0	Morgiri; Thu. 6-0	.... ..	spr.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 62-0	Varkute-Malavadi; Fri. 3-0	Varkute Malavadi 4-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; 3tl; M.; dh.
Masur; 5-0	Masur; Wed. 5-4	... .	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; 3M.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 23-0	Dhamani; Mon. 2-0	Local ..	W.; w. str.	1Sl(4pr) pyt.; Cs(mp).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Sud.13; 10tl.; 2lib.
Lonand; 9-0	Sakharwadi; Thu. 3-0	Local; ..	w.; W.	Sl (pr)., Mahashivratra Mg. Sud. 13.; 6tl.; M. dh.; dp.
Karad; 27-0	Morgiri; Thu. 4-0	Morgiri; 4-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Kanher; 3-0	Suwadewadi 0-4	str.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).; Bhairav fr. Mg. Vad. 3.; Jyotirlinga fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; gym.
Wathar; 10-0	Bhuinj; Sat. 4-0	Bhuinj; 5-0	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (c).; Mariai fr. Psh.Sud.12.; 2tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kaḷambhe ; WAI. ; कळंभे ..	S. ; 12–0	1.8 ; 725 ; 141 ; 616.	Udatare ; 1–4
Kaḷambī ; KTV. ; कळंबी ..	SW. ; 15–0	4.8 ; 1014 ; 144 ; 935.	Pusesawali ; 2–0
Kaḷamagāṅv ; MBR. ; कळमगांव..	SE. ; 12–0	1.8 ; 176 ; 34 ; 175.	Mahabaleshwar ; 11–0
Kaḷamagāṅv Kaḷamakar ; JVL. ; कळमगांव कळमकर	NW. ; 30–0	1.8 ; 157 ; 40 ; 157.	Mahabaleshwar ; 8–0
Kāḷaṅgavāḍī ; WAI. ; काळंगवाडी	SE. ; 14–0	2.8 ; 409 ; 85 ; 374.	Bhuinj ; 4–0
Kālavaḍe ; KRD. ; कालवडे ..	S. ; 10–0	3.0 ; 2015 ; 359 ; 1833.	Kale ; 2–0
Kāḷe ; KRD. ; काळे ..	S. ; 6–0	11.8 ; 7116 ; 1355 ; 5647.	Local ; ..
Kaleḍhoṇ. ; KTV. ; कलेढोण ..	SE. ; 22–0	22.5 ; 5152 ; 900 ; 3272.	Local ; ..
Kāḷolī ; PTN. ; काळोली ..	W. ; 2–0	0.8 ; 297 ; 59 ; 297.	Patan ; 9–0
Kāḷośī ; JVL. ; काळोशी ..	S. ; 3–0	1.0 ; 385 ; 90 ; 358.	Medha ; 2–0
Kāḷośī ; STA. ; काळोशी ..	E. ; 5–0	1.5 ; 540 ; 113 ; 467.	Parali ; 2–0
Kānherakheḍe ; KRG. ; कान्हेरखेडे	SE. ; 7–0	3.0 ; 916 ; 186 ; 753.	Rahimatpur. 5–0
Kaṇūr ; WAI. ; कणूर ..	S. ; 4–0	3.8 ; 1164 ; 277 ; 813.	Bavdhan ; 1–0
Kāmaragāṅv ; PTN. ; कामरगांव..	W. ; 17–0	1.0 ; 302 ; 80 ; 352.	Helwak ; 4–0
Kamaḷesagvar ; PHL. ; कमळेसगवर	. 5–0	3.8 ; 513 ; 111 ; 452.	Phaltan ; 5–0
Kāmathī ; KRD. ; कामथी ..	W. ; 10–0	2.3 ; 523 ; 99 ; 504.	Kadegaon ; 5–0
Kāmathī Tarf Paraḷī ; STA. ; कामथी तर्फ परळी.	W. ; 8–0	0.8 ; 465 ; 108 ; 404.	Parali ; 2–0
Kāmathī Tarf Sātārā ; STA. ; कामथी तर्फ सातारा	W. ; 11–0	4.5 ; 1210 ; 247 ; 1142.	Kanher ; 3–0
Kāmerī ; STA. ; कामेरी ..	E. ; 16–0	3.0 ; 1033 ; 211 ; 976.	Targaon ; 9–0
Kāndāṭ ; JVL. ; कांदाट ..	W. ; 24–0	0.8 ; 97 ; 23 ; 46.	Medha ; 23–0
Kānhāravāḍī ; KTV. ; कान्हारवाडी	SE. ; 14–0	3.5 ; 497 ; 85 ; 452.	Mayani ; 8–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 23-0	Dhamani; Mon. 2-0	Dhamani; 2-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Anewadi; Fri. 1-0		rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur; 14-0	Pusesawali; Wed. 2-0		W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 4tl.; mq.; 2gym.; lib.
Wathar; 51-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 11-0	Mahabaleshwar. 14-0	W.	Sl (pr.).; Janai devi fr., Phg. Sud. 6.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 43-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 8-0	Mahabaleshwar. 12-0	W.	tl.
Shenoli; 2-0	Belavade Bk.; Wed. 2-0	Wathar; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; gym; lib.
Shenoli; 6-0	Local Tue.	Local	rv.	5Sl (4pr;h).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; 3gym: ch.; 2lib.; 2dp.
Koregaon; 48-0	Local Tue.	Local	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs. (c).; 3tl.; M.; mq.; 2dh.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Masur; 22-0	Patan; Mon. 0-0	Patan; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).· 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Medha; Mon. 2-0		W.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon. 2-0	2-4	rsr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Rahimatpur, 5-0	Rahimatpur.; Thu. 5-0	Nigadi; 2-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.: Cs (mp).; Tukaram fr. Phg. Vad.2.; 9tl.; gym.; ch.; lib. Ranoji Shinde Smarak.
Wathar; 20-0	Wai; Mon 5-0	Helwak; 4-0	w.;W.	Sl (pr)· pyt.; 4tl.; M.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 41-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	Helwak; 4-0	spr.; rv.	Sl (pr.).; Manaidevi fr. Ct. Sud. 5.; tl.
Lonand; 17-0	Phaltan; Sun. 5-0	Phaltan 5-0	W.;w. rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.· ch.
Karad; 4-0	Karad; Thu. 4-0		W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon. 2-0	Parali; 2-0	su	Sl (pr).; Bhairao fr. Ct.; Sud. 15, 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Kanheri; Tues. 3-0	4-0	rsr. rv.	2Sl (2pr)., Cs. (mp).; 6tl.
Targaon; 3-4	Targaon; Mon. 3-0	8-0	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (c).; Bhairav Fr. Ct. Sud. 14; 8tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Padli; 23-0	Medha; Mon. 23-0	Medha; 24-0	spr.	2tl.
Koregaon; 36-0	Mayani; Sun. 8-0		W.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kānhavāḍi ; KDL. ; कान्हवाडी ..	W. ; 17-0	1.8 ; 303 ; 59 ; 284.	Bhor ; 3-0
Kanher ; STA. ; कन्हेर ..	W. ; 7-0	2.0 ; 1003 ; 197 ; 851.	Local ; ..
Kanherī ; KDL. ; कन्हेरी ..	W. ; 7-0	4.8 ; 1162 ; 232 ; 1131.	Khandala ; 8-0
Kāpaḍagāṅv ; PHL. ; कापडगांव ..	W. ; 18-0	3.3 ; 366 ; 80 ; 260.	Lonand ; 04-0
Kāpaśi ; PHL. ; कापशी ..	W. ; 13 0	3.3 ; 030 ; 131 ; 580.	Lonand ; 4-0
Kapīl ; KRD. ; कपील ..	SE. ; 3-0	1.8 ; 1658 ; 312 ; 1430.	Karad ; 3-0
Karāḍ ; KRD. ; कराड ..	Hq. ; ..	8.8 ; 27,223 ; 5100 ; 0421.	Local ; ..
Karagāṅv ; JVL. ; कारगांव	S. ; 15 0	10.3 ; 580 ; 125 ; 546.	Medha ; 12-0
Karahar ; JVL. ; करहर ..	S. ; 14 0	1.3 ; 154 ; 33 ; 117.	Humgaon ; 3-0
Kārale ; PTN. , कारळे ..	.. ..	2.8 ; 389 ; 88 ; 386.	Dhebe-wadi ; 8-0
Kārakhel ; MAN .; कारखेल ..	NE. ; 24-0	0.3 ; 378 ; 68 ; 297.	Mhaswad ; 7-0
Karandī ; STA. ; करंदी ..	W. ; 6-0	2.5 ; 887 ; 177 ; 709.	Satara ; 5-0
Karandī T. Meḍhā ; JVL. ; करंदी तर्फ मेढा.	S. ; 4-4	1.3 ; 301 ; 52 ; 301.	Medha ; 3-0
Karandī T. Kuḍāl ; JVL. ; करंदी तर्फ कुडाळ	N. ; 5-0	1.9 ; 839 ; 158 ; 730.	Humgaon ; 2-0
Karandośī : JVL. ; करंदोशी ..	NE. ; 5-0	1.5 ; 525 ; 114 ; 496.	Kudal ; 4-0
Karañjakhop ; KRG. ; करंजखोप.	NW. ; 25-0	0.8 , 2007 ; 383 ; 1448.	Local ; ..
Karañjāvaḍe ; PTN. ; करंजावडे.	E. ; 30-0	3.3 ; 298 ; 61 ; 289.	Helwak ; 17-0
Karañje ; JVL. ; करंजे ..	W. ; 1-0	1.4 ; 593 ; 117 ; 582.	Medha ; 1-0
Karañje Tarf Paraḷi ; STA. ; करंजे तर्फ परळी	E. ; 6-0	2.0 ; 718 ; 156 ; 673.	Parali ; 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Lonand; 29-0	Bhor; Tue. 3-0	Stage; 2-4	W.	Sl (pr.); Mandai fr. Phg. Sud. 9.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Satara Rd; 17-0	Bazar; Tue.	Local ..	rv.; W.	Sl (m).; Cs. (mp).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.; dp.
Lonand; 21-0	Khandala; Sun. 8-0	1-6	W.;	2Sl (pr; h).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; 3dg.; gym.; ch.
Lonand; 64-0	Lonand; Thu. 64-0	Lonand; 3-0	str.	3tl.; ch.
Adarki; 4-0	Lonand; Thu. 4-0	0-2	W.; str.	Ram fr. Ct. Vad. 10.; 5tl.; M.; 2gym.
Karad; 6-0	Local; Thu. ..	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr)., pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; mq.; dh.; 2gym.; lib.
Shenoli; 6-0	Local; Tue. ..	Local ..	pl.; rv.	16Sl(8pr;4m;4h).; 110tl.; 10M.; 15mq.; 3dg.; 2dh.; 10gym.; 25lib.; 75dp.; (i) Pillars incribed; (ii) Fort.
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha: Mon. 12-0	Medha; 10-0	n.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Humgaon; Sun. 3-0	Dumagaon; 2-0	rv.	2tl.; gym.; dp.
Karad; 27-0	Dhebewadi; Thu. 8-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Radhapur; 36-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 7-0	Dhuldeo; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Mahadeo fr. Every Mon. of Srn.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 15-0	Satara; Sun 5-0	.. 4-0	w.; str.	2Sl(pr;m).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Medha; Mon. 1-0	.. ..	pl	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Humgaon; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl. gym.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Kudal; Wed. 4-0	.. .	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.
Wathar; 7-0	Pimpode Bk. Sun 3-0	. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr.) mh.; pyt.; Cs(c).; Bhairavanath fr. Vsk. Vad 4.; 12tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 54-0	Helwak; Wed. 17-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr).; Ambadevi fr Psh. Sud. 7.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 26-0	Medha; Mon. 1-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon. 2-0	Parali 2-4	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Karañje Tarf Sātārā. ; STA. ; करंजे तर्फ सातारा.	N. ; 0-4	4.5 ; 673 ; 93 ; 267.	Satara ; 1-0
Karavaḍī ; KRD. ; करवडी ..	E. ; 6-0	2.8 ; 1312 ; 238 ; 1018.	Ogalewadi ; 2-0
Karāṭe ; PTN. ; कराटे ..	W. ; 7-0	2.3 ; 343 ; 76 ; 325.	Patan ; 7-0
Kāravaṭ ; PTN. ; कारवट ..	NW. ; 6-5	3.5 ; 220 ; 55 ; 224.	Dhebewadi ; 8-0
Kārī ; STA. ; कारी ..	W. ; 0-0	3.3 ; 1312 ; 260 ; 1122.	Parali ; 6-0
Karnavarī ; KDL. ; कर्नवरी ..	W. ; 12-0	4.5 ; 801 ; 172 ; 784.	Khandala ; 11-0
Kārve ; KRD. ; कारवे ..	E. ; 3-0	6.8 ; 4037 ; 729 ; 3012.	Local ; ..
Kās ; JVL. ; कास ..	S. ; 9-0	3.3 ; 95 ; 22 ; 95.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 4-0
Kasabe Kuḍāḷ ; JVL. ; कसबे कुडाळ	E. ; 8-0	5.3 ; 2022 ; 253 ; 1230.	Local : ..
Kāsaṇī ; PTN. ; कासणी ..	.. ..	3.8 ; 319 ; 71 ; 318.	Dhebewadi ; 8-0
Kāsaṇī ; STA. ; कासणी ..	SW. ; 15-0	1 0 ; 122 ; 33 ; 121.	Parali ; 9-0
Kāsār Śirambe ; KRD. ; कासार शिरंबे	S. ; 12 0	5 5 ; 1840 ; 341 ; 1731.	Kale ; 4-0
Kāsaruḍ ; MBR. ; कासरुड ..	W. ; 9-0	1·3 ; 117 ; 25 ; 97.	Mahabaleshwar ; 8-0
Kāsavaṇḍ ; MBR. ; कासवंड ..	SE. ; 8 0	1·5 ; 214 ; 47 : 214.	Panchagani ; 6-0
Kāśiḷ ; STA. काशीळ	S. : 10-0	5·3 ; 1803 ; 383 ; 1698.	Nagthane ; 7-0
Kasūr ; KRD. ; कसूर ..	W. ; 9-4	2·0 ; 823 ; 160 ; 752.	Local ; ..
Kaṭagūṇ ; KTV. ; कटगूण ..	S.; 10-0	5·5 1755 ; 330 ; 1602.	Khatav; 3-0
Kātarā Khaṭāv ; KTV. ; कातर खटाव ..	E ; 5-0	14·0 3114 ; 562 ; 2344.	Local ..
Kātavaḍi; PTN. ; कातवडी ..	W.; 2-0	1·8 022 ; 119 ; 620.	Helwak; 5-0
Kātavaḍi Bk. ; STA. ; कातवडी बु. ..	W.; 10-0	1·3 328 ; 84 ; 325.	Parali; 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 11-0	Satara; Sun. 1-0	Local ..	pl.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; Ram fr. Ct.; Sud. 9.; 4tl.; M.; mq. , dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 3-0	Karad; Thu. 6-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp). ; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Masur ; 27-0	Patan; Mon. 7-0	Stage .. nearby.	spr.; rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Karad ; 28-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 8-0	Patan; 1-6	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Parali; Mon 5-0	.. 2-0	w.; str.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp) ; tl.
Lonand; 24-0	Khandala; Sun. 11-0	Lohom; 2-0	W.; w.	Sl(m).; Cs(c).; Bhairav fr. Last Sun.of Ash.; 3tl.
Karad; 6-0	Karad; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	rv.	2Sl(2pr). ; pyt.; Dhanai devi fr. Ct. Vad. 3.; 7tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 4lib.
Pulli; 24-0	Medha; Mon. 0-0	Medha; 9-0	t.	Sl(pr) ;tl. Tank on a Hill.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Local Wed. ..	Local ..	rv ; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 8tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Karad; 28-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 8-0	.. ..	W; w.	2Sl(2pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 25-0	Parali; Mon. 9-0	Parali; 10-0	rsr.	Sl(pr).; Dhadubai devi fr. Psh.Sud.4.; tl.
Shenoli; 8-0	Belavade Bk. Wed. 12-0	Malkhed; 3-0	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Wathar; 46-0	Mahabalesh-Tue war; 8-0	Mahaba 9-0 leshwar;	rv.	3tl.
Wathar; 34-0	Wai; Mon. 14-0	Panchagani 3-0	W.	Sl(pr).;tl.; gym.
Targaon; 4-0	Alit; Fri. 4-0	.. 0-2	rv.; w.	2Sl(2pr).; Cs(c).; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; lib.; dp.
Karad, 14-0	Kolewadi; Sat. 1-0	Local ..	str.	2Sl (pr).; Tr. clg.; 3tl. ; mq.; dh.; 2lib.
Koregaon ; 13-0	Khatav ; Tue. 3-0		w.	2Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon ; 20-0	Local ; Sun.		w.	2Sl (2pr; m).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 7tl.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Karad ; 39-0	Helwak ; Wed. 5-0	Patan ; 20-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; Devi fr. Ct. Sud. 6.; 3tl.
Satara Rd.: 19-0	Parali ; Mon. 3-0	Parali ; 5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; Ganaidevi fr. Ct.; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kātavaḍi Kh. ; STA. ; कातवडी खुर्द	W.; 12-0	0·8 86 ; 22 ; 57.	Parali; 4-0
Kāṭavali ; JVL. ; काटवली	N.; 18-0	1·8 889 ; 75 ; 347.	Pancha-gani; 1-4
Kaṭhāpūr ; KRG. ; कठापूर	SW., 6-0	5·0 1621 ; 300 ; 1592.	Rahimat-pur; 4-0
Kāṭhi ; PTN. ; काठी	NW.; 25-0	0·02 159 ; 12 ; 154.	Patan; 2-0
Kāvaḍi ; JVL. ; कावडी	NW.; 14-4	0·8 184 ; 39 ; 171.	Pancha-gani; 4-0
Kavaṭhe ; KDL. ; कवठे	W.; 7-0	3·0 530 ; 126 ; 528.	Khandala; 6-0
Kavaṭhe ; KRD. ; कवठे	N.; 13-0	2·5 1293 ; 222 ; 1226.	Masur; 2-4
Kavaṭhe ; WAI. ; कवठे	E.; 8-0	4·0 2405 ; 431 ; 1723.	Local ..
Keḍambe ; JVL. ; केडंबे	W.; 8-0	1·8 498 ; 119 ; 416.	Medha- 8-0
Keḷghar T. Meḍhā ; JVL. ; केळघर तर्फ मेढा	W.; 6-0	1·0 540 ; 109 ; 428.	Medha; 6-0
Keḷghar T. Soḷaśi ; JVL. ; केळघर तर्फ सोळशी	W.; 10-0	0·8 206 ; 52 ; 190.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 2-0
Keḷavali ; STA. ; केळवली	W.; 16-0	2·3 200 ; 44 ; 200.	
Kemase ; PTN. ; केमसे	W.; 19-0	2·8 17 ; 5 ; 17.	Parali; 7-0
Keñjuḷ ; ; WAI. ; केंजळ	E.; 6-0	4·5 2006 ; 311 ; 1723.	Patan; 3-0 Local ..
Ker ; PTN. ; केर	S.; 3-0	1·0 251 ; 52 ; 247.	Patan; 3-0
Keraḷ ; PTN. ; केरळ	S.; 7-0	3·0 921 ; 181 ; 814.	Tarale; 7-0
Kese ; KRD. ; केसे	W.; 3-0	1·5 755 ; 135 ; 695.	Karad; 4-0
Kesurḍi ; KDL. ; केसुर्डी	NW., 4-0	4·8 386 ; 82 ; 380.	Khandala; 4-0
Khaḍagāṅv ; STA : खडगांव	W.; 10-0	1·3 307 ; 77 ; 309.	Parali; 4-0
Khaḍki ; MAN. ; खडकी	NE.; 20-0	5·3 443 ; 102 ; 407.	Mhaswad; 6-0
Khaḍki ; PHL. ; खडकी	SW.; 7-0	2·5 81 ; 11 ; 81.	Phaltan; 7-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Parali;	Mon.	4-0		8-0	rv.	tl.
Wathar; 25-0	Humgaon	Sun.	7-0	Panchagani	2 0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Rahimatpur 2-0	Koregaon;	Mon.	2-0	Rahimat-pur;	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Jyotirling fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 11; 6tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 27-0	Patan:	Mon.	2-0			n.; spr.	tl.
Wathar; 36-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	2-0	Humgaon:	6-0	W.: pl.	2tl.
Lonand; 23-0	Shirwal;	Fri.	0-0	Local		W.	Sl (pr).: Cs. (c).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Sud. 15. 3tl.; ch.
Masur; 2-0	Masur;	Wed.	2-4	Masur;	2-4	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp). 4tl.: 2dh.; gym.; 2lib.
Wathar; 16-0	Surur;	Sun.	1-0	Local		w.: pl.	Sl (pr).: pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 3tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 34-0	Medha,	Mon.	8-0	Kelghar:	2-4	pl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Medha,	Mon.	0-0			W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; dh.; gym; lib.
Satara Rd.: 31-0	Medha;	Mon.	7-0			W.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).: tl.
Satara Rd.; 23-0	Parali;	Mon.	7-0	Parali:	10-0	rsr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad; 28-0	Patan:	Mon.	3-0	Helwak:	6-0	W.: spr.	tl.: dh
Wathar 18-0	Surur,	Sun.	1-0			W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; 5tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 28-0	Patan;	Mon.	3-0	Patan;	3 0	W.; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Karad; 29-0	Patan;	Mon.	7-0	Patan;	7 0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr.; m).; 2tl.
Karad; 7-0	Karad;	Thu.	4-0	Karad;	3-0	rv.	Sl (pr.).: pyt.; Bahiroba fr. Mg. Sud. 15,; 3tl.; gym.
Lonand: 17-0	Khandala;	Sun.	4-0	Shirwal:		w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 5.; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Parali;	Mon.	4-0	Parali;	4-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; 'Ramghat' A big underground tunnel.
Koregaon 42-0	Mhaswad;	Wed.	7-0	Mhaswad;	7-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Adarki; 7-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	7-0		1-0	W str.	

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Khadki ; WAI. ; खडकी ..	SE ; 12–0	1·5 535 ; 98 ; 479.	Bhuinj; 2–0
Khaḷe ; PTN. ; खळे ..	SE.; 15–0	2·5 1344 ; 288 ; 1247.	Patan; 7–0
Khāmagāṅv ; PHL. ; खामगाव ..	SW.; 14–0	3·3 1086 ; 242 ; 704.	Lonand; 10–0
Khāmbil Corghe ; JVL. ; खांबील चोरघे ..	W.; 10 0	1·0 200 ; 43 ; 190.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 11–0
Khāmbil Pokaḷe ; JVL. ; खांबील पोकळे ..	N.; 16 0	0·5 37 ; 9 ; 37.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 11–0
Khānāpūr ; WAI. ; खानापूर	E.; 5–0	1·5 782 ; 158 ; 726	Ozarde; 1–0
Khaṇḍāḷā ; KDL. ; खंडाळा ..	H.Q. ..	6 8 1547 ; 337 ; 1157.	Local ..
Kharāḍe ; KRD. ; खराडे ..	N.; 14–4	2·0 808 ; 150 ; 782	Masur; 3–0
Kharaśiṅge ; KTV. ; खरशिंगे ..	NW.; 11–0	3·0 582 ; 123 ; 520.	Aundh; 3–0
Khāṭagūṇ ; KTV. ; खाटगुण ..	NW.; 10-0	4·5 1082 ; 318 ; 1590.	Local ..
Khaṭāv ; KTV. ; खटाव ..	NW.; 7–0	10·8 5530 ; 1025 ; 3388.	Local ..
Khāṭāvaḷ ; KTV. ; खाटावळ ..	SE.; 4–4	4·5 ; 774 ; 156 ; 677.	Mayani; 8–0
Khāvalī ; WAI. ; खावली ..	W.; 12-0	1·5 ; 410 ; 81 : 370.	Dhom: 7–0
Kharśī T. Bārāmure ; JVL. ; खरशी तर्फ बारामुरे ..	N.; 10–0	1·8 ; 1003; 204 ; 849.	Local ..
Kharśī T. Kuḍāḷ ; JVL ; खरशी तर्फ कुडाळ ..	E.; 9–0	1·8 ; 737 ; 134 ; 639.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 9–0
Kharośī ; JVL. ; खरोशी ..	W.; 26–0	3 8 ; 371 ; 92 ; 360.	Saigaon; 0–4
Kheḍ ; KRG. ; खेड ..	N.; 5–0	4·5 ; 1511 ; 271 ; 1382.	Satara Rd.; 3–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 11-0	Bhuinj; Sat. 2-0	Udatare; 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs. (mp).; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 32-0	Patan; Mon. 7-0	Maldan; 2-0	rv.; n.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Jyotiba fr. Ct. Sud. 1.; 3tl.; lib.;
Lonand; 10-0	Pimpalwadi; Thu. 1-2	Sakhar-wadi.; 3-0	rv.; W.	2Sl (m; h).; Bhairavnath. fr. Ct. Sud. 8 4tl.; ch
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 11-0	Medha: 10 0	W.; rv	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 11-0		rv.; W.	Sl (pr).
Wathar 17-0	Wai; Mon. 3-0		W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand; 13-0	Bazar; Sun. ..	0-2	w.	2Sl (m; h).; Cs.; 0tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 3 lib.; 3dp.
Masur 2-4	Masur; Wed. 3-0	Masur; 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).: tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Rahimat-pur. 13-0	Aundh; Tue. 3-0		W; w.	Sl (pr).; Janai devi fr., Vsk. Sud. 4.; 4tl.; gym;
Koregaon; 14-0	Khatav; Tue. 2-0			Sl (pr).; Pyt.; Cs., (mp). Shri Ram fr. Ct.Sud. 9.; Shri Parisaheb Ur. Phg. Vad. 8-12; 8tl.; M.; mq.; 2dg.; dh.; gym.; 2 lib.
Koregaon; 16-0	Local Tue. ..	Local .	rv.	2Sl (pr, h),; pyt.; Cs.; (mp).; 11tl.; 2mq.; dh. 2dg.; ch; lib.; 5dp.
Koregaon; 34-0	Mayani; Sun. 8-0	..	W.; str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; gym.
Wathar; 33-0	Wai; Mon. 18-0	..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Humgaon; Sun. 3-0	Humgaon; 2-4	rv.; W.	3Sl (2 pr; h).; pyt.; 3tl.; ch.; lib. dp.
Satara Rd.; 34-0	Medha; Mon. 10-0	Ambewadi; 2 4	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 12-0	Anewadi; Fri. 2-0	Mahabale-shwar. 16-0	W.	Sl. (pr.).; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 3-0	Satara Rd. Wed. 3-0	Satara Rd. 3-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs. 6tl.; mq.; ch.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Household ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Khed ; STA. ; खेड ..	E.; 3-0	3·3 ; 1390 ; 226 ; 1182.	Satara; 3-0
Khed Bk. ; KDL. ; खेड बु. ..	E.; 10-0	0·0 ; 1968 ; 372 ; 1424.	Local ..
Khengar ; MBR. ; खेंगर ..	E.; 14-0	1·8 ; 412 : 74 ; 406	Pancha-gani; 5-0
Khirkhindi ; JVL. ; खिरखिंडी ..	S : 15-0	2 0 ; 305 ; 65 ; 303.	Medha; 6-0
Khivaśi ; PTN. ; खिवशी ..	N.; 0 0	1 5 ; 235 ; 52 ; 172.	Chafal; 4-0
Khodad ; STA. ; खोडद ..	S.; 14-4	.. 411 ; 85 ; 391.	. ..
Khodaśi ; KRD ; खोडशी ..	N.: 3-0	2·3 ; 1050 ; 183 ; 800.	Karad; 2-0
Khojevādi ; STA. ; खोजेवाडी ..	SE., 14 0	1·3 ; 1021 ; 213 ; 951.	Apsinge; 3-0
Khokade ; MAN. ; खोकडे ..	NW.; 15 0	1·3 ; 79 ; 10 ; 79.	Malavadi· 8-0
Kholavādi ; WAI. ; खोलवाडी ..	SE.; 16-0	2 8 ; 572 : 111 ; 532.	Wai, 4-0
Khonoli ; PTN. ; खोनोली ..	NE.; 22 0	1·5 ; 378 : 88 ; 378.	Local
Khubi ; KRD. ; खुबी ..	S.; 19-0	0 8 ; 746 : 142 ; 643.	Machindra 4-0
Khunte ; PHL. ; खुंटे ..	.. 6 0	4 8 ; 1069 ; 208 ; 1306.	Phaltan; 6-0
Khutabānv ; MAN. ; खुटबांव ..	NE.: 14-0	6 0 ; 671 ; 130 ; 595.	Mardi; 3-0
Kikali ; WAI. ; किकली ..	E.; 11-0	7 3 ; 2768 ; 458 : 2432.	Local ..
Killimorgiri ; PTN. ; किल्लीमोरगिरी ..	S.; 5-0	2·8 ; 514 ; 100 ; 507.	Local ..
Kinhi ; KRG. ; किन्ही ..	N.; 8-0	7·5 ; 2200 ; 421 ; 1279.	Local ..
Kirakasāl ; MAN किरकसाल ; ..	E.; 6-0	7·0 : 769 ; 129 ; 765.	Gondavale Bk.; 8-0
Kirape ; KRD. ; किरपे ..	W.; 6-0	0·8 ; 606 : 113 ; 572.	Kale; 4-0

Railway St. : Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day : Distance.	Motor Stand : Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 8-0	Satara : Sun. 3-0	1-2	rv. : pl.	Sl (pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; 2mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Lonand : 3-0	Lonand ; Thu. 3-0	Stage : 0-4	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs. Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 8. ; 7tl.; M.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; Old Mahadev Temple. Ghumat.
Wathar : 34-0	Wai ; Mon. 13-0	Panchagani. 2-4	W.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Medha : Mon. 6-0	Medha : 15 0	rv. spr.	Sl (pr). ; tl.
Masur : 10-0	Chafal ; Thu. 4-0	Chafal : 4-0	spr.; W.	2tl.
		0-4	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Karad ; 5-0	Karad : Thu. 2-0		rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt. ; Cs (mp).; 4tl. ; mq. ; gym. ; ch.
Targaon ; 4-0	Atit : Fri. 2-0	Atit : 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp). ; Jyotiba fr. Mg. Vad., 12 4tl.; mq.; lib.
Koregaon ; 20-0	Rajapur ; Fri. 3-0	Dahiwadi; 14-0	W.	Maruti fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; 2tl.
Wathar ; 11-0	Wai ; Mon. 4-0	Bhuinj ; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr). ; 2tl. ; lib.
Karad : 30 0	Morgiri : Thu. 0-4	Morgiri ; 0-4	rv.; w.	Sl (pr.).; Cs. (o).; 2tl.; gym.
Shenoli 5 0	Shenoli ; Sat. 5-0	Shenoli : 4-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand ; 17-0	Phaltan ; Sun 6 0	..	W.; w.	2Sl (pr ; h).; Cs.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Koregaon ; 41-0	Mardi ; Fri. 3-0	Thadala : 5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl
Wathar ; 14-0	Bhuinj ; Sat. 4-0	. .	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bhairav fr. 3rd Sat. of Asn.; 3tl.; M. dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.; Fort.
Karad ; 30-0	Morgiri Thu. 0-4	Morgiri : 4-0	W.	Fort.
Satara Rd. 5-0	Local ; Fri. ..	Satara Rd. 5-0	rv.	Sl (pr). ; pyt.; 6tl.; M. ; mq. ; dh. ; gym. ; ch. ; lib.; dp.; Old Palace.
Koregaon: 30-0	Gondavale Bk.; Thu. 3-0	Gondavale; 3-0	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(o).; 2tl
Karad; 9-0	Kole: Wed. 4-0	Ambai wadi; 1-6	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Kiroḷī ; KRG. ; किरोळी ..	S.; 14-0	2·8 : 1161 ; 232 ; 1159.	Local ..
Kironḍe ; WAI. ; किरोंडे ..	W.; 16-0	1·0 ; 127 ; 31 ; 127.	Dhom; 7-0
Kisarule ; PTN. ; किसरुळे ..	.. ..	4·3 ; 455 ; 114 ; 454.	Helwak; 9-0
Kivaḷ ; KRD. ; किवळ ..	NE.; 12-4	8·0 ; 1823 : 306 : 1441	Masur; 5-0
Kodaḷ ; PTN. ; कोदळ ..	S.; 11-0	0·8 ; 28 ; 7 ; 28.	Patan; 6-0
Koḍolī ; KRD. ; कोडोली ..	SE.; 5-0	2·3 : 1637 : 312 ; 1564.	Masur; 3-0
Koḍolī ; STA. ; कोडोली ..	E.; 3-0	7·5 : 2236 ; 458 ; 1787.	Satara; 3-0
Kokarāḷe ; KTV. ; कोकराळे ..	W.; 9-0	2·5 : 609 ; 142 ; 549.	Khatav 4-0
Kokīsare ; PTN. ; कोकीसरे ..	S.; 6-0	2·8 ; 657 ; 142 ; 614.	Patan; 6-0
Koḷaghar ; JVL. ; कोळघर ..	SW.; 5-0	0·8 : 77 : 22 : 77.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 3-0
Koḷaṇe ; PTN. ; कोळणे ..	W.; 14-0	1·8 : 146 ; 38 ; 146.	Dhebewadi 5-0
Kolavāḍī ; KRG. ; कोलवाडी ..	N.; 8-0	1·5 ; 409 ; 81 ; 365.	Satara Rd ; 1-4
Koḷe ; KRD. ; कोळे ..	W.; 9-0	3·3 ; 2678 ; 539 ; 1915.	Local ..
Koḷevāḍī ; KRD. ; कोळेवाडी ..	W.; 9-0	3·0 ; 1848 ; 374 ; 831.	Local .
Koḷekar Vāḍī ; PTN. ; कोळेकर वाडी ..	S.; 15-0	1·8 : 574 : 127 ; 503.	Chafal; 5-0
Koḷoḷī ; PTN. , कोळोली ..	NE.; 25-0	2·0 : 710 : 144 ; 676.	Helwak; 1-0
Koṇḍavalī Bk. ; WAI. ; कोंडवली बु. ..	W.; 10-0	1·5 ; 368 ; 80 ; 368.	Panchgani; 4-0
Koṇḍavalī Kh. WAI ; कोंडवली खुर्द ..	W.; 9-0	0·8 : 158 . 31 : 158.	Panchgani; 4-0
Koṇḍave ; STA. ; कोंडवे ..	N.; 3-0	2·8: 1475 ; 277 : 1038.	Satara; 3-0
Koṇḍhāvale ; PTN. ; कोंढावळे ..	W.; 13-4	2·8 ; 283 ; 70 ; 252.	Tarale; 1-0
Koṇḍhāvaḷe ; WAI. ; कोंढावळे ..	W.; 14-0	4·3 ; 406 ; 97 ; 399.	Dhom; 6-0
Koṇegānv ; KRD. ; कोणेगांव ..	N.; 9-0	2·3 : 913 : 163 ; 825.	Masur 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Targaon;	2-0	Local	Sun.	..	Rahimatpur:	5-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Jyotirlinga fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; 2dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar;	30-0	Wai;	Mon.	12-0	..	..	n.	tl.
Karad;	46-0	Helwak;	Wed.	9-0	..	..	W.;	Sl (pr).; tl.
Masur;	6-0	Masur;	Wed.	5-0	..	..	W.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 7tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.
Karad;	19-0	Patan;	Mon.	6-0	Patan;	11-0	spr.	tl.
Karad;	12-0	Local	Wed.	..	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 11tl.; M. mq.; gym.; lib.
Rahimatpur.	10-0	Satara;	Sun.	3-0	Local	..	w; rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; 3tl.; lib.
Koregaon;	16-0	Khatav;	Tue.	4-0	Khatav;	5-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad;	19-0	Patan;	Mon.	0-0	Patan;	0-0	W.	4tl.
Padali;	29-0	Medha;	Mon.	5-0	..	..	rv.	Janaidevi fr. Pus. Vad. 15.; 2tl.
Karad;	27-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	5-0	Dhebewadi;	5-0	W.; n.	tl.
Satara Rd.;	1-4	Satara Rd.;	Wed.	1-4	.	..	w.; t.	Cs(mp).; 3tl.; dh.
Karad;	12-0	Local;	Wed.	..	..	..	rv.; w.	3Sl (3pr).; pyt.; Shri Ghadage Maharaj fr. Mg. Sud. 5 11tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp. Fort.
Karad;	13-0	Local;	Sat.	.	Local	..	str.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; mq.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Masur;	20-0	Chafal;	Thu.	5-0	Chafal.	5-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Karad;	35 0	Helwak;	Wed.	1-0	Chafal;	0 0	W.; n.; br.	Sl (pr).; Jyotiba fr. Mg. Sud.15.; tl.
Wathar;	37-0	Wai.	Mon.	12-0	..	.	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Wathar;	30-0	Panchgani;	Tue.	4-0	Panchgani;	4-0	rv.; spr.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Wathar;	30-0	Panchgani;	Tue.	4 0	Panchgani;	4 0	rv.; spr.	5tl.
Satara Rd.;	13-0	Satara;	Sun.	3-0	..	..	.	Sl.(pr).; Cs.; Maruti fr. Ct.Sud.15.; 6tl.; lib.
Targaon;	12-0	Tarale;	Sat.	1-0	Helwak;	0-4	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Masur;	3-0	Masur;	Wed.	3-0	..	.	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs (mis).;.; 2tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Koñjavaḍe ; PTN. ; कोंजवडे ..	.. ..	0·3 ; 585 ; 125 ; 556.	Tarale 1-0
Koparḍe ; KDL. ; कोपड ..	NE.; 16-0	0·8 ; 840 ; 162 ; 637.	Lonand; 7-0
Koparḍe ; PHL. ; कोपर्डे ..	W.; 21.5	1·0 ;	.. ..
Koparḍe ; STA कोपर्डे ..	NE.; 17-4	3·3; 1456 ; 204 ; 1248.	Targaon 3-0
Koparḍe Haveli ; KRD. ; कोपर्डे हवेली ..	S.; 4 0	4·0; 2781 ; 555 : 2420.	Local ..
Koregāṅv ; KRD. ; कोरेगांव ..	E.; 3-0	2·8 : 826 : 140 : 807.	Karad: 3-0
Koregāṇv ; KRG. ; कोरेगांव ..	Hq. ..	9 0; 7230 : 1300 ; 3431.	Local .
Koregāṅv ; PHL. ; कोरेगांव .	W.; 17-0	2·0 : 458 : 88 ; 417.	Gunware; 4-0
Korhāle ; PHL. ; कोऱ्हाळे ..	NW.; 13-0	2·3 : 223 ; 42 : 221.	Lonand: 1-0
Korivale ; KRD. : कोरीवले ..	N.; 15 0	2·8 : 786 : 162 ; 761.	Umbraj: 4-0
Korivale ; PTN. : कोरीवले ..	SE : 11-0	1·5 : 642 : 123 ; 635.	Bahule; 3-0
Korṭi ; KRD. ; कोर्टी ..	N.: 11 0	2·3; 1111 ; 193 : 1012.	Umbraj: 1-0
Koṭarośī ; JVL. ; कोटरोशी ..	W.: 22 0	2 0 : 298 . 77 : 236.	Bamnoli Kasabe: 8-0
Kṣetramāhuli ; STA : क्षेत्रमाहुली .	E : 4 0	3 3; 1332 : 275 ; 985.	Local ..
Kuḍeghar ; STA. ; कुडेघर .	W . 13·0	0·3 ; 35 : 7 ; 35	Local ..
Kukuḍavaḍ ; MAN. ; कुकुडवड ..	SE.: 18-0	14·5; 2725 ; 519 : 2114.	Local .
Kulakajāi ; MAN. : कुळकजाई ..	NW.; 13-0	6·5 : 1178 ; 200 ; 1147.	Malavadi; 6-0
Kumaṭe ; STA. ; कुमटे ..	NW.; 8 0	2·5 : 1039 : 221 ; 827.	Satara 8-0
Kumaṭhe ; KTV. ; कुमठे ..	W.; 5-0	1·7 : 1274 ; 220 ; 1079	Aundh; 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar: Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Targaon;	12-0	Tarale;	Sat.	1-0	Tarale;	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Salpe;	1-4	Lonand;	Thu.	7-0	Lonand;	7 0	W.; n.	2Sl(pr.m).; Cs (mp).; Jyotiba fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 7tl.; M.; ch.
..	..	Deserted	Deserted				Deserted	Deserted
Targaon;	3-0	Targaon;	Sat.	3-0	Kashil;	1-4	rv.	2Sl(2pr).; 5tl.; gym.; lib.
Karad;	2-0	Karad;	Thu.	4-0	Local	.	rv.	Sl(pr).: pyt.; 4tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad.	5-0	Karad;	Thu.	3-0	.	..	rv.	Sl(pr).; 7tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Local	..	Local	Mon.	..	Local	..	w., n.	4Sl (3pr; h).; pyt.; Bhairavnath fr. Vak.Sud.3.; 8tl.; mq.; dg.; 3dh.; ch.; 3lib.; 8dp.
Baramati.	14-0	Barad.	Fri.	3-0	Lonand:	2-0	str.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Lonand:	1-0	Lonand:	Thu.	1-0	Bibi-amend Road;	3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; Bhairavnath fr. Vsk. Vad. 3.; 2tl.
Masur;	8-0	Umbraj;	Mon.	4-0	..	..	w.	2Sl (pr;m).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 2tl.
Karad:	10-0	Maul Tert Hardi;	Fri.	3-0	.	4 0	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Masur,	3-0	Umbraj:	Mon	1-0	.	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	42-0	Medha;	Mon.	22-0	.	..	W.	5tl.
Koregaon;	7-0	Satara,	Sun.	3-0	Local	..	W.	Sl(m).; Cs(c).; Ram fr. Ct.Sud. 9; 3tl.; lib.; Birth place of Shri Ramshastri Prabhune.
Koregaon;	7-0	Satara;	Sun.	3-0	Parali;	7-0	str.	tl.
Koregaon;	54 0	Local;	Fri.	..	Local	..	W; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 5tl.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Koregaon;	22-0	Malavadi	Sun.	0-0	Dahiwadi;	12-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Khandoba fr. Mg.Sud.15.; tl.; ch.
Rahimatpur;	19-0	Nagthane;	Tue.	7-0	Shendre fata;	4-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; Hanuman fr. Ct.Sud.15.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.; 2dp.
Rahimatpur;	15-0	Aundh;	Tue.	4-0	..	..	w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; Shiv fr. Phg.Vad.12.; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kumaṭhe ; KRG. ; कुमठे ..	N.; 2–0	5·8 ; 2618 ; 498 ; 2276.	Local ..
Kumaṭhe ; MBR. ; कुमठे ..	W.; 14–0	2·8 ; 300 ; 70 ; 304.	Mahabaleshwar; 4–0
Kumbhāragaṇī ; JVL. ; कुंभारगणी ..	E.; 4–2	0·3 ; 63 ; 15 ; 63.	Medha; 6–0
Kumbhāragāṅv ; PTN. ; कुंभारगांव ..	S.; 35–0	9 3 ; 5114 ; 988 ; 4983.	Local ..
Kumbharośī ; MBR. ; कुंभरोशी ..	W.; 12–0	2·0 331 ; 78 ; 239.	Mahabaleshwar; 10–0
Kuravalī Bk. PHL. ; कुरवली बु. ..	E.; 10–0	8·8 463 ; 101 ; 404.	Gunware ; 4–0
Kuravalī Kh. PHL. ; कुरवली खुर्द.	S.; 9–3	3·8 300 ; 61 ; 293.	Lonand 4–0
Kuraliśī ; JVL. ; कुरळिशी ..	W.; 7–4	2·0 177 ; 34 ; 177.	Medha; 8–0
Kuroḷī ; KTV. ; कुरोळी ..	W.; 4–0	9·5 3842 ; 700 ; 3058.	Local ..
Kurośī ; JVL. ; कुरोशी ..	W.; 10–0	2·3 443 ; 114 ; 436.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 9–0
Kuruḷabājī ; STA. ; कुरुळबाजी ..	W.; 14–4	0·5 240 ; 58 ; 232.	Parali 7–0
Kurūḷa Tijāī ; STA. ; कुरूळ तिजाई	W.; 13–2	0·3 72 ; 21 ; 71.	Parali 7–0
Kurūṇ ; STA. ; कुरूण ..	E.; 2–0	0·5 146 ; 35 ; 133.	Parali; 2–0
Kus Bk. ; STA. ; कुस. बु. ..	W.; 8–2	1·5 453 ; 119 ; 452.	Parali; 3–0
Kus Kh. ; STA. ; कुस खुर्द ..	W.; 8–2	0·3 133 ; 37 ; 133.	Parali; 3–0
Kusagāṅv ; WAI. ; कुसगांव ..	W.; 4–4	2·2 738 ; 146 ; 692.	Wai ; 5–0
Kusāpūr ; JVL. ; कुसापूर ..	SW.; 16–0	2·0 111 ; 30 ; 111.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 6–0
Kusarūṇḍ ; PTN. ; कुसरूंड ..	S.; 0–0	1·3 982 ; 205 ; 875.	Patan; 5–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information
Koregaon; 2-0	Local Sun. ..	Koregaon; 2-0	n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 4tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; lib.; Animal bazar.
Wathar; 44-0	Mahabaleshwar Tue. 4-0	Mahabaleshwar; 13-0	w.; W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 0-0	.. ..	rs.	2tl.
Karad; 21-0	Local; Mon. ..	Local ..	t.	6Sl(6pr).; 2Cs.; Laxmi fr. Krt.Sud.15.; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Wathar; 48-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 10-0	Mahabaleshwar; 12-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2Cs (mis;o).; Janai devi fr. 5tl.; dh.; dp.
Baramati; 14-0	Barud; Fri. 3-0	.. 1-2	str.	Sl(pr).; tl.; ch.
Lonand; 4-0	Lonand; Thu. 1 0	Phaltan; 4-0	t.	Sl(pr).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg.Vad.13.; 5tl.; gym.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 8-0	Kelghar; 1-4	W.	2tl.; 2Ch.
Rahimatpur; 16-0	Vaduj; Sat. 5-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Shri Siddheshwar fr. Ct. Sud.15.; 4tl.; 2dh.; 2gym. ch.; lib.; dp.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Medha, Mon. 21-0	. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Satara Rd.; 23-0	Parali; Mon. 7 0	Parali: 8-0	str.; W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 23-0	Parali; Mon. 7-0	Parali; 8-0	w.; str.	Sl(pr)., 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali, Mon. 2-0	.. 2-0	w.; W.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 19-0	Parali; Mon. 3-0	Parali; 2-2	n.;	2Sl(pr;m).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 19-0	Parali; Mon. 3-0	Parali; 2-0	n.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Wathar; 25-0	Wai; Mon. 5-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; Vageshwari fr. Mg. Vad.3.; 3tl; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 41-0	Medha, Mon. 15-0	Medha: 10-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Karad; 26-0	Patan; Mon. 5-0	Patan: 5-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; 4tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devnagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. : Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Kusāvaḍe ; JVL. ; कुसावडे ..	S.; 19-0	3·0 152 ; 31 ; 149.	Medha; 20-0
Kusāvaḍe ; PTN. ; कुसावडे ..	NW.: 27-0	11·8 1158 : 249 ; 1150.	Helwak 18-0
Kusāvaḍe ; STA. : कुसावडे ..	N.: 11-0	4·3 1039 ; 239 : 1021.	Satara: 7-0
Kuśi ; PTN. : कुशी ..	.. ..	0·2 268 ; 65 ; 268.	Tarale; 13-0
Kuśi ; STA. ; कुशी ..	N.: 7-0	2·5 497 ; 54 ; 411.	Limb: 2-0
Kusumbi ; JVL. ; कुसुंबी ..	S : 3-0	3·3 906 : 220 : 827.	Medha; 3-0
Kasūr ; PHL. ; कसूर ..	W.; 15-0	2·5 557 : 113 : 500.	Lonand; 4-0
Kuṭhare ; PTN. ; कुठरे ..	S.. 40-0	3·8 2276 : 470 ; 1970.	Local .
Lāḍegāṅv ; KTV. ; लाडेगाव ..	S . 11-0	2·3 517 : 96 : 496.	Vadgaon; 1-4
Lākavaḍ ; JVL. ; लाकवड ..	NW.: 10-0	1·5 398 ; 93 ; 397.	Hamnoli Kasabe; 0-4
Lalagūṇ ; KTV. ; ललगुण ..	W.: 17 0	7·3 2555 : 455 ; 2228.	Budh: 2-0
Lamaj , JVL. : लामज ..	W.: 21-0	1·3 122 ; 09 : 112.	Medha: 14-0
Lāmbaghar ; STA. ; लांबघर ..	W.: 10 0	1·8 588 : 119 : 576.	Parali:. 2 0
Leṇḍori ; PTN. ; लेंडोरी ..	W.; 6 5	1·5 267 ; 58 ; 204.	Morgiri: 4-0
Lhāsurṇe : KRG. : ल्हासुर्णे ..	W.; 1-0	3·8 1635 : 321 : 1361.	Local .
Limb ; STA. : लिंब ..	N.: 9-0	9·8 4210 ; 758 : 3307	Local ..
Lumaṇekhol ; STA. ; लुमणेखोल ..	W.; 10 0	0·5 200 ; 48 ; 190.	Parali; 3 0
Loḍhāvaḍe : MAN. ; लोढावडे ..	SE.; 8-0	4·8 854 ; 159 ; 720.	Gondavale Bk. 5-0
Lohāre , WAI. ; लोहारे ..	N : 3-0	2·8 731 ; 132 ; 685.	Bopardi; 0-1
Lohom ; KDL. : लोहोम ..	W.; 9-0	1·5 443 ; 97 : 439.	Khandala; 9-0
Loṇand : KDL. ; लोणंद ..	W.. 13-0	9·5 520 ; 152 ; 1517.	Local .

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 45-0	Medha; Mon. 20-0	Medha; 19-0	n.	2tl.
Karad; 50-0	Helwak; Wed. 18-0	.. ..	spr. br	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Padmavati fr. Mg.Vad 13.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 17-0	Satara; Sun. 7-0	Satara; 11-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Bahiroba fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 23-0	Tarale; Sat. 13-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Limb; Sun. 3-0	Nagewadi; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 28-0	Medha; Mon. 3-0	Medha; 3-6	pl.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.;gym.; lib.
Lonand. 4-0	Lonand; Thu. 4-0	Lonand; 4-0	cl.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Karad; 23-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 3-0	Dhebewadi; 3-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mis).; 4tl. gym.; lib.
Rahimatpur; 15-0	Pusesawali; Wed. 3-0	.. .	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.; M.; dh.; gym.;
Satara Rd.; 36-0	Medha. Mon. 10-0	Kelghar; 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Jantidevi fr. Psh.Sud.13.; 2tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 15-0	Budh; Mon. 2-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Padali; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 14-0	Medha; 21-0	spr.,n.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali. Mon. 2-0	Parali; 1-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Karad; 31-0	Morgiri; Thu. 4-0	Morgiri; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 1-0	Koregaon; Mon. 1-0	Koregaon; 1-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 2tl.; mq.
Satara Rd.; 19-0	Bazar. Sun. ..	Local ..	rv.; w.-W.	2Sl(pr,m).; 2Cs(mp).; People's Bank.; 20tl; M.; mq.; dg.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.;
Satara Rd.; 19-0	Parali. Mon. 3-0	Parali; 4-0	w.;rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 30-0	Gondavale Bk.; Thu. 5-0	Local; 1-4	W.; n.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; lib.
Wathar; 22-0	Wai; Mon. 2-0	..	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Lonand; 22-0	Khandala; Sun. 0-0	Local ..	w	Sl(pr); Cs(c).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Sud.8; 2tl.
Rly Station (Local) ..	Local Thu. ..	Local ..	n.; spr.	7Sl (5pr;m.; h).; 2Cs.; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; Mhasoba fr. Krt. Vad.8.; Dnyaneshwar Maharaj fr. Js.Vad.15.; 12tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 8dp.; 2Cch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Loṇi ; KDL. ; लोणी ..	N.; 12-0	1·3 680 ; 150 ; 597.	Shirwal; 5-0
Loṇi ; KTV. ; लोणी .	W.; 7-0	2·8 835 ; 132 ; 755.	Khatav; 2-0
Mācūtar ; MBR. ; माचुतर ..	E.; 5-0	1·0 259 ; 51 ; 239	Mahabaleshwar; 6-0
Māḍosi ; JVL. ; माडोशी ..	SW.; 16-0	2·0 130 ; 27 ; 130.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 6-0
Mahābaḷesvar ; MBR. ; महाबळेश्वर ..	H.; ..	11·3 4972 ; 1020 ; 155.	Local; ..
Mahābaḷesvar (old) ; MBR. ; जुने महाबळेश्वर ..	N.; 3-4	.. 420 ; 94 ; 147.	Mahabaleshwar; 3-0
Mahāgaṅv ; STA. ; महागांव ..	E.; 5-0	2·8 844 ; 184 ; 844.	Kshetra Mahuli, 1-0
Mahāḷuṅge ; JVL. ; महाळुंगे ..	W.. 22-0	3·5 314 . 68 ; 339.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 10-0
Mahāṭe Bk. ; JVL. ; महाटे बु॥ ..	SW ; 3-2	0·8 402 ; 80 ; 374.	Medha; 4-0
Mahāṭe Kh. ; JVL. . महाटे खुर्द.	SW.; 3-4	1·5 493 ; 105 ; 403.	Medha; 3-0
Mahigāṅv ; JVL. ; महीगांव ..	E ; 10-0	1·8 465 ; 91 ; 272.	Saigaon; 0-4
Mahimānagaḍ ; MAN. ; महिमानगड ..	W.; 8-4	16·5 3,591 ; 670 ; 2,938.	Local ..
Mahind ; PTN. ; मोहिद ..	.. 47-0	2·3 755 ; 141 ; 755.	Dhebewadi 7-0
Mahū ; JVL. ; महू ..	N.; 12-0	0·8 519 ; 120 ; 345.	Panchagani 4-0
Mājagāṅv ; PTN. ; माजगाव ..	NE.; 12-0	3·3 1022 ; 194 ; 971.	Chafal; 1-0
Mājagāṅv ; STA. ; माजगांव ..	S.; 12-0	2·5 843 ; 188 ; 813.	Apsinge; 1-2
Majare śembaḍi ; JVL. ; मजरे शेंबडी ..	SW.; 12-0	0·5 141 ; 32 ; 100.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 2-0
Mājarevāḍī ; JVL. ; माजरेवाडी..	W.; 15-0	0·5 34 ; 6 ; 34.	Mahabaleshwar; 5-4
Maḷā ; PTN. ; मळा ..	. 17-0	6·5 195 ; 44 , 195.	Helwak; 10-0
Mālacoṇḍi ; JVL. ; मालचोंडी ..	S.; 4-4	0·8 227 ; 54 ; 227.	Medha; 3-0

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Lonand;	22-0	Shirwal;	Fri.	5-0	Local	..	w.	Sl(m).; Cs.; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Rahimatpur;	10-0	Khatav;	Tue.	2-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar;	46-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	6-0	Mahabaleshwar;	5-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Kalubai Devi fr. Ps.Sud.8.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	41-0	Medha;	Mon.	15-0	..	..	rv.	tl.
Wathar;	40-0	Local	Tue.	..	..	..	W.	7Sl(3pr; 3m; h).; 5tl.; 2mq.; 2dg.; dh.; ch.; lib.; 5dp.; Cch.Hill station.
Wathar;	43-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	3-0	Mahabaleshwar;	3-4	rv., W.	Sl(pr).; 11tl.; M.; 2mq.; 2dg.; dh.; lib.
Koregaon;	0 0	Satara;	Sun.	6-0	..	1-2	rv.	Sl(m).; 2s (mp).; 2tl.; dg.; gym.; lib.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.
Satara Rd.;	44-0	Medha;	Mon.	18-0	Medha;	22-0	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	30-0	Medha;	Mon.	4-0	Medha	3 0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Navalai fr. Mrg.Vad.4.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	28-0	Medha;	Mon.	3-0	..	..	rsr.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Satara Rd.;	21-4	Anewadi,	Fri	3-0	..	..	w.	Sl(pr).; 2tl. gym.; lib.
Koregaon;	20-0	Local	Wed.	..	Local;	0-4	W.	5Sl (5pr).; pyt.; Baloba fr. after every 3 years on Vsk. Sud.7.; 7tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad;	28-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	7-0	Dhebewadi;	7-0	W.; spr. rv.	Sl(pr).; Cs.; 2tl.; M.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	24-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	4-0	Panchgani	3-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.;
Masur;	9-0	Chafal;	Thu.	1-0	Local	..	rv.; W.; w	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; Hanuman fr. Ct.Sud.15.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Targaon;	5-0	Nagthane;	Tues	1-2	..	2-0	rv.; w.	Sl.(pr).; Cs(c).; Bhairoba fr.Ct. Vad.8.; 3tl.; dh gym.
Padali;	34-0	Medha;	Mon.	10-0	Medha;	12-0	rv.	Nagoji fr. Ps. Vad. 11.; 3tl.
Satara Rd.;	38-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	5-4	..	..	rv.; spr.	....
Karad;	52-0	Helwak;	Wed.	10-0	.	7-0	W.; rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.; dh.
Satara Rd.;	29-0	Medha;	Mon.	3-0	..	..	spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Māladān ; PTN. ; मालदान ..	SE.; 12-0	3·5 2,227 ; 431 ; 2,130.	Local
Māladev ; JVL. ; मालदेव ..	SW.; 23-0	2·8 185 ; 46 , 163.	Medha, [illegible]
Mālagāṁv ; STA. ; मालगांव ..	N.; 11-0	5·5 1,670 ; 307 ; 1,479 ;	Waduth; [illegible]
Mālakheḍ : KRD. ; मालखेड ..	S.; 9-0	1·5 724 ; 138 ; 684.	Koregaon; 2-0
Mālatapūr ; WAI. , मालतपूर ..	W.; 8 0	1 3 270 ; 61 ; 239.	Panchgani; 2 4
Malavaḍi ; MAN. ; मलवडी ..	NW.; 8 0	7·8 2,000 ; 391 ; 1,791.	Local .
Mālavaḍi ; PHL. ; मालवडी ..	SW.; 9-0	5·3 204 , 61 ; 202.	Phaltan; 10-0
Mālusar ; MBR. ; मालुसर ..	S.. 4-0	1·0 109 ; 18 ; 109.	Malusar; 6-0
Mālośi ; PTN. ; मालोशी .	. ..	0·3 785 ; 174 ; 709.	Tarale, 8-0
Māmurḍi ; JVL. , मामुर्डी ..	NW.; 2-0	1 0 275 ; 50 ; 275.	Medha; 2 0
Māṇḍavakhāḍak : PHL. ; माडवखडक .	S ; 5 0	2 2 104 ; 30 ; 182.	Phaltan· 6-0
Māṇḍave ; KTV. ; माडवे ..	N . 1-4	4·8 778 ; 136 , 632.	Vaduj; 4-0
Māṇḍave ; STA. ; मांडवे ..	S.; 17-0	4·3 1,301 ; 254 ; 1,220.	Parali 3-0
Māṇḍharadev ; WAI. ; माढरदेव ..	N.. 7-0	4·3 820 ; 166 ; 820.	Wai, 8-0
Mandrūḷ Koḷe ; PTN. ; मंद्रूळ कोळे.	S.; 14-0	4·8 2,717 , 544 ; 2,380.	Tombewadi 0-4
Mandrūḷ Tarf Haveli ; PTN. . मंद्रूळ तर्फ हवेली .	SE.; 2-0	3·8 3,400 ; 708 ; 2,618.	Local ..
Mandure ; PTN. ; मंद्रूरे ..	. ..	2·8 531 ; 108 ; 520.	Tarale 7-0
Maṇeri ; PTN. ; मणेरी ..	W ; 8-4	2·5 207 · 53 ; 207.	Helwak, 4-0
Maṅgaḷāpūr ; KRG. ; मगळापूर ..	S.. 5-0	1·0 ; 535 ; 97 ; 533.	Koregaon ; 3-0
Māṅghar ; MBR. ; मांघर ..	SE.; 7-0	0·8 ; 168 ; 27 ; 158.	Mahabaleshwar ; 6-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 19-0	Dhebewadi: Tue. 2-0	Dhebewadi: 2-0	rv.; spr.	Sl (pr;m).; 2Cs (2c).; Bhairav Dev. fr. Ct. Sud. 3.; 5tl.;mq.; dh.; 2 lib.
Satara Rd.; 26-0	Medha: Mon. 6 0	Medha; 6-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 6-0	Limb; Sun. 2 0	.. ..	w.	Sl(m).; Cs.; Bhairavdev fr. Sud.3.; 5tl ; mq.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 13-0	Belavade Bk Wed. 1 4	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; gym., lib.
Wathar; 28-0	Wai: Tue. 2 4	Velang; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.,
Koregaon; 18-0	Local Sun. ..	Dahiwadi; 8-0	rv	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp). Khandoba fr. Mrg.Vad. 11.; 4tl.; M.; mq.; dh. lib.; dp.
Adarki: 8-0	Gibi: Mon. 3 0	.. 1-0	str.; w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(o).; Devi fr. Ct.Vad.8.; tl.
Wathar; 46-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 6 0	Mahabaleshwar; 7-0	spr.	Sl(pr)., tl.
Masur; 24-0	Tarale; Sat. 8-0	. ..	W.; w.	2Sl (pr;h).; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 27-0	Medha: Mon. 2 0		W.;	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand; 20 0	Phaltan: Sun. 8 0	. 5-0	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; tl.
Koregaon. 28 4	Vaduj: Sat. 4-0	.. .	w.	Sl(pr) ; pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 2tl.; dh. gym;. lib.
Targaon; 12 0	Parali; Mon. 3 0	. 17 0	w.	Sl(pr).; Ram fr Ct. Sud.9.; gym.; ch ; lib.; dp
Wathar; 28 0	Wai; Mon. 8 0	. .	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 8tl.; 2dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad: 22-0	Tembewadi; Tue. 0-4	Tembewadi: 0 4	2.; rv.	3Sl(3pr).; pyt.; Maruti fr Ct.Sud15.; 6tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; 2lib; dp..
Karad: 14-0	Malharpeth Wed. 1 0	Malharpeth: 1 0	W.; w.	4Sl (2pr.;m;h).; Maruti fr.; Ct. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; mq. dg. gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 30-0	Tarale; Sat. 7-0	Tarale. 7 0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr;m).; 2tl
Karad 32-0	Helwak ; Wed. 4-0	Helwak; 4-0	W	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon ; 3-0	Koregaon : Mon. 3-0	Tripuri ; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Wathar ; 48-0	Mahabaleshwar ; Tue. 6-0	Mahabaleshwar ; 6-0	spr.	Sl (pr),; Cs (mis).; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Manū ; KRD. ; मनू ..	S.; 11–0	2·8 ; 974 ; 192 ; 722.	Ond ; 0–4
Maraḍamure ; JVL. ; मरडमुरे ..	E.; 7–0	0·8 ; 198 ; 42 ; 198.	Kudal ; 3–0
Maraḍavāk ; KTV. ; मरडवाक ..	S. ; 8–4	1·5 ; 184 ; 33 ; 174.	Mayani ; 2–0
Mārali ; JVL. ; मारली ..	NW.; 5–0	1·0 ; 304 ; 71 ; 300.	Humgaon ; 3–0
Marali ; KRD. ; मारली (मरळी) ..	S.; 18-0	2·8 ; 631 ; 134 ; 582.	Pal ; 2–0
Maraḷi Kasabe ; PTN. ; मरळी कसबे ..	SE.; 7–6	3·8 ; 1763 ; 363 ; 1450.	Local ..
Maraḷośi ; PTN. ; मरळोशी ..	S. ; 15–0	2·0 ; 461; 101 ; 461.	Tarale ; 4–0
Marḍhe ; STA. ; मर्ढे ..	N ; 10–0	0·8 : 1098 ; 216 ; 769.	Limb ; 2–0
Mārḍi ; MAN. ; मार्डी ..	E.; 11–0	13·0 2253 ; 426 ; 1848.	Local ; ..
Māruḷ Tarf Haveli ; PTN. ; मारूळ तर्फ हवेली ..	....	3·3 ; 1,900 ; 370 1,850.	Bahule ; 2–0
Māruḷ Tarf Patan ; PTN. ; मारूळ तर्फ पाटण ..	W. ; 6–4	3·8 : 413 ; 100 ; 371.	Patan ; 9–0
Masave ; STA. ; मसवे ..	N. ; 3–0	2·8 ; 506 ; 99 ; 432.	Satara ; 1-3
Masūr ; KRD. ; मसूर ..	N.; 9-0	9·8 ; 5,814; 1,176; 3,556.	Local ..
Matyāpūr ; STA. ; मत्यापूर ..	NE ; 13–6	.. 293 · 51 ; 282.	....
Māyaṇi ; KTV. ; मायणी ..	SE.; 15-0	17.3 ; 4,485 ; 848 ; 3,086.	Local ; ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad: 14-0	Nandgaon; Fri. 1-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mis).; 2 tl.; mq.; dg.
Satara Rd; 16-0	Kudal: Wed. 3-0	.. ..	pl.; spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon; 32-0	Mayani; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	w.;	Sl (pr).; tl.; dh.
Satara Rd; 34-0	Humgaon; Sun. 3-0	.. ..	spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Masur; 10-0	Pal; Sun. 2-0	Pal; 2-0	str.; W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 3tl.; M.; gym.
Karad; 24-0	Sulewadi; Sun. 2-0	Sulewadi; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs.; Bhairav fr. Ct. Sud. 5.; 6tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Targaon; 12-0	Tarale; Sat. 4-0	Tarale; 4-0	W.; spr.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd; 8-0	Limb; Sun. 2-0	Anewadi; 0-6	rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhairavdev fr. Vsk. Sud. 6.; 3tl.; M.; gym.; lib.
Koregaon; 38-0	Local; Fri. ..	Shinganapur; 7-0	W	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Ambabai fr. Asn. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 20-0	Local; Fri. .	Rahule; 2-0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; h).; 3tl.
Masur; 26-0	Patan; Mon. 0-0	.. ..	W.; spr.	Sl(pr).;tl.
Satara Rd; 9-0	Satara, Sun. 1-2	Wardhe; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 6tl.; gym.
Local;	Local; Wed. .	Local; ..	str.; pl.	2Sl (pr; h).; pyt.; Ganesh fr. Bdp. Sud. 15.; 14 tl.; 2M.; 2mq.; dh.; 3gym ch.; 4lib.; 5dp.; Cch.; Fort.
.. ..	....	.. 1-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Ur. Ct. Sud. 3.; tl.
Koregaon; 36-0	Local; Sun. ..	Local; ..	str.; w.	4Sl (3pr; m).; pyt.; 3Cs (mp; 2 mis).; Shri Nath fr. Mrg. Sud. 1.; 11tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Medhā ; JVL. ; मेढा ..	....	2.0 ; 2.055 ; 313 ; 803.	Local ; ..
Meṇavalī ; WAI. ; मेणवली ..	W.; 2-0	2.0 ; 900 ; 182 ; 665.	Wai ; 1-0
Meṇḍh ; PTN. ; मेंढ ..	...	2.8 ; 1,320 ; 263 ; 1.183.	Dhobewadi 4-0
Meṇḍheghār ; PTN. ; मेंढेघर ..	W. ; 13-4	1.5 ; 118 ; 24 ; 104.	Helwak ; 0-4
Meṇdhośī ; PTN. ; मेंढोशी ..	N. ; 0-0	3.8 ; 874 ; 195 ; 837.	Patan ; 6-0
Meṭa. Gutāḍ ; MBR. ; मेट गुटाड ..	E. ; 4-0	0.8 ; 322 ; 73 ; 312.	Mahabaleshwar. ; 5-0
Meṭa-Inḍavalī ; JVL ; मेट इंदवली	S. ; 19-0	4.8 ; 70 ; 21 ; 70.	Medha ; 12-0
Meṭa Taḷiye ; MBR. ; मेट तळिये..	NW. ; 3-0	0.8 ; 141 ; 32 ; Nil.	Mahabaleshwar. ; 4-0
Mhasavaḍ ; MAN. ; म्हसवड ..	E. ; 18-0	34.5 ; 9,145; 1851; 3,796.	Local ; ..
Mhasave ; JVL. ; म्हसवे ..	NE. ; 10-0	2.3 ; 1072 ; 251 ; 824.	Kudal ; 1-0
Mhāsolī ; KRD. ; म्हासोली ..	SW ; 16-0	4.3 ; 1,839 ; 359 ; 1,771.	Ond.; 4-4
Mhasurṇe ; KTV. म्हसुर्णे ..	S. ; 14-0	11.0 ; 2,471 ; 450 ; 2,128.	Local ..
Mhāvaśī ; KDL. ; म्हावशी ..	E. ; 3-0	2.5 ; 364 ; 75 ; 330.	Lonand ; 10-0
Mhāvaśī ; JVL. ; म्हावशी ..	S. ; 0-0	1.3 ; 93 ; 15 ; 68.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 1-0
Mhāvaśī ; PTN. ; म्हावशी ..	E. ; 1-4	4.5 ; 1,894 ; 377 ; 1,768.	Local .
Mhopre ; KRD. : म्होप्रे ..	W. ; 8-0	2.3 ; 1,725 ; 260 ; 1,348.	Charegaon 3-0
Mirade ; PHL. ; मिरदे ..	NW. : 11-1	6.8 ; 415 ; 84 ; 387.	Gunware ; 5-0
Miragāṅv ; PTN. ; मिरगांव ..	.. 18-0	2.3 ; 349 ; 75 ; 347.	Helwak ; 6-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information
Satara Rd.; 29-0	Local; Mon. ..	Local; ..	rv.; W pl	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 22-0	Wai; Mon. 1-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; Vaghubai fr. Mg. Vad. 1.; 7tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Karad; 26-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 4-0	Dhebewadi; 4-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Karad; 34-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	Helwak; 0-4	spr.; rv.	tl.
Karad; 28-0	Patan; Mon. 6-0	Patan; 6-0	W.; w.	Sl (m).; 2tl.
Wathar; 45-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 5-0	Mahabaleshwar; 4-4	W.; pl.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 12-0	.. ..	spr.	tl.; 'Vasota' Fort.
Wathar; 36-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 4-0	Mahabaleshwar; 3-0	W.	2tl.
Koregaon; 43-0	Local; Wed. ..	Local; ..	rv.; spr	5Sl (2pr; 2m.; h).; M.; Cs (mp).; Nath fr. Mrg. Sud. 1.: 7tl.; 2M.; 2mq.; 2dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 3dp.
Satara Rd.; 26-0	Kudal; Wed. 1-0	Kudal; 2-0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; lib.
Shenoli; 11-4	Local; Mon. ..	Ond; 5-0	spr.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 5tl.; M.; mq.; dg.; 2gym.
Rahimatpur; 26-0	Local; Tue. ..	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Bhairavnath fr. Vsk. Sud 6tl.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Lonand; 10-0	Lonand; Thu. 10-0	Local; ..	W.; w; n.	Sl (pr).; 2Cs (mp-gr).; Baloba fr. Ct. Vat. 4; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 31-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	Medha; 9-0	W.	3tl.
Karad; 24-0	Patan; Mon. 1-4	Stage 1-4	W.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs. (mp).; Khandjai fr. Ps. Sud. 9.; 6tl.; gym.; lib
Karad; 12-0	Charegaon; Sat. 3-0	.. ..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Baramati 17-0	Barad; Fri. 3-0	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Karad; 40-0	Helwak; Wed. 6-0	Helwak; 5-0	rv.	Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Sud. 13.;tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Miragāṅv ; PHL. ; मिरगांव ..	W. ; 5-1	3.8 ; 518 ; 101 ; 476.	Phaltan ; 4-0
Mirje ; KDL. ; मिर्जे ..	W.; 8-0	3.5 ; 498 ; 107 ; 472.	Shirwal ; 5-0
Mogarāḷe ; MAN. ; मोगराळे ..	N. ; 11-0	6.5 ; 522 ; 126 ; 432.	Malavadi ; 6-0
Mohāṭ ; JVL. ; मोहाट ..	W.; 1-0	1.8 ; 436 ; 80 ; 394.	Medha ; [illegible]
Mohī ; MAN. ; मोही ..	NE. ; 13-0	5.8 ; 1,145 ; 257 ; 739.	Dahivadi 7-0
Moḷ ; KTV. ; मोळ ..	NW.; 25-0	10.5 ; 1,627 ; 270 ; 1,605.	Diskal ; [illegible]
Moḷeśvar ; JVL. ; मोळेश्वर ..	S. ; 5-0	1.3 ; 55 ; 13 ; 51.	Medha ; 4-0
Moḷeśvar ; MBR. ; मोळेश्वर ..	E. ; 6-2	0.3 ; 73 ; 18 ; 66.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 9-0
Moraghar ; JVL. ; मोरघर ..	E.; 9-0	1.5 ; 496 ; 95 ; 401.	Saigaon ; 2-0
Moragiri ; PTN. ; मोरगिरी ..	S. ; 5-0	1.5 ; 1,348 : 202 ; 1,001.	Local ..
Morāḷe ; KTV. ; मोराळे ..	S. ; 10-0	1.8 ; 658 ; 125 ; 628.	Mayani ; 3-0
Moraṇī ; JVL. ; मोरणी ..	W.; 22-0	1:0 ; 193 ; 44 ; 192.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 10-0
Morāvaḷe ; JVL. ; मोरावळे ..	E.; 6-0	0.8 ; 292 ; 60 ; 282.	Medha ; 6-0
Morve ; KDL. ; मोर्वे ..	SE. ; 5-0	4.3 ; 1,209 ; 241 ; 952.	Local
Mugāṅv ; WAI ; मुगांव ..	W. ; 7-0	0.8 ; 173 ; 34 ; 173.	Panchagani ; 4-0
Mukavali ; JVL. ; मुकवली ..	W. ; 9-4	0.5 ; 121 ; 27 ; 120.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 6-0
Muḷagāṅv ; PTN. ; मुळगांव ..	S. ; 1-0	2.8 ; 1,093. 234 ; 843.	Patan ; 4-0
Muṇḍhe ; KRD. ; मुंढे	NW.; 2-0	2.8 ; 1362 ; 229 ; 1074.	Karad ; 2-0
Munāvale ; JVL. ; मुनावले ..	S.; 12-0	6.5 ; 611 ; 147 ; 606.	Medha : 12-0
Munjavāḍi ; PHL. ; मुंजवाडी	E.; 16-0	5.8 ; 945 ; 206 ; 888.	Gunware ; 3-0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Lonand;	14-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	4-0	..	0-1	str.; w. W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (o).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; tl.; dg.
Lonand;	22-0	Shirwal;	Fri.	5-0	Shirwal;	4-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; 3tl.; dg.; 2gym.
Lonand;	30-0	Malavadi;	Sun.	6-0	Local;	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; lib.
Satara Road;	28-0	Medha;	Mon.	2-0	Medha;	1-0	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; Bhairavnath fr. Mg. Sud. 11.; 4tl.
Koregaon;	53-0	Local;	Mon.	..	Shingnapur;	3-0	W.; w.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt; Laxmidevi fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; gym.; 2lib.; 5Coh.
Koregaon;	14-0	Diskal.	Wed.	2-0	..	..	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Padali;	30-0	Medha;	Mon.	4-0	..	..	W.	2tl.
Wathar;	41-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	3-0	Mahabaleshwar;	6-4	W.; pl.	pyt.; tl.
Satara Road;	23-0	Anewadi;	Fri.	3-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; gym.
Karad;	24-0	Local;	Thu.	..	..	..	W.; rv.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.
Koregaon;	35-0	Mayani;	Sun.	3-0	..	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Road;	44-0	Medha;	Mon.	10-0	Medha;	22-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.;
Satara Road;	20-0	Medha;	Mon.	6-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Lonand;	10-4	Lonand;	Thu.	10-4	Ahire;	2-0	W.;w.;n.	2Sl (pr;m.).; Cs (mp).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Wathar;	27-0	Panchagani;	Tue.	4-0	Valang;	3-0	rv.; spr.	5tl.; gym.
Satara Road;	37-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	0-0	..	..	spr.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. Mg. Vad. 5.; 2tl.
Karad;	21-0	Patan;	Mon.	4-0	Patan;	4-0	rv.	Sl (pr); Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 14.; 5tl.
Karad;	4-0	Karad;	Thu.;	2-0	..	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt; Jatnikdevi fr. Phg. Vad. 9.; 4tl.
Satara Rd;	27-0	Medha	Mon.;	12-0	Medha;	12-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Lonand;	29-0	Barad;	Fri.;	3-0	..	3-0	str.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; M.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	**Direction ; Travelling distance.**	**Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.**	**Post Office ; Distance.**
Muruḍ ; PTN. ; मुरूड ..	....	3.0 ; 857 ; 172 ; 731.	Tarale ; 9-0
Murum ; PHL. ; मुरूम ..	NW.; 10-0	2.3 ; 632 ; 164 ; 594.	Lonand ; 9-0
Nāḍe ; PTN. ; नाडे ..	E.; 5-4	1.5 ; 704 ; 101 ; 688.	Malharpeth; 3-0
Naḍhaval ; KTV. ; नढवळ ..	SE.; 3-0	2.8 ; 656 ; 111 ; 563.	Vaduj ; 5-0
Nāgaṭhaṇe ; STA. ; नागठाणे ..	S.; 10-0	7.3 ; 3,120 ; 515 ; 2,298.	Local. ..
Nāgazari ; KRG. ; नागझरी ..	SE.; 17-0	7.0 1,401 ; 283 ; 1,461.	Arvi; 2-0
Nāgevāḍi ; WAI. ; नागेवाडी ..	W.; 7-0	1.8 461 ; 110 ; 280.	Wai: 5-0
Nohimbe ; PTN. ; नोहिंबे ..	W.; 19-0	0.05 244 ; 61 ; 244.	Helwak; 7-0
Nāndagaṇe ; JVL. ; नांदगणे .	W.; 7 0	0-8 79 ; 70 ; 78.	Medha; 7-0
Nāndagaṇe ; WAI. ; नांदगणे ..	W.; 14 0	1.0 225 ; 45 ; 225.	Mahabaleshwar; 6 0
Nāndagāṅv ; KRD. ; नांदगांव ..	S., 10-0	4.0 1,354 ; 284 ; 920.	Karad ; 2-0
Nāndagāṅv ; STA. ; नांदगांव ..	E.; 18-0	4.5 1,536 ; 350 ; 1,592.	Targaon ; 0-[illegible]
Nāndal ; PHL. ; नांदल ..	SW.; 12-0	12.0 1,562 ; 318 ; 1,474.	Lonand ; 11-0
Nāndalāpur ; KRD. ; नांदलापूर..	S.; 3-0	0.8 630 ; 120 ; 486.	Karad ; 3-0
Nandaśi ; KRD. ; नंदशी ..	N.; 6 0	1.3 834 ; 163 ; 820.	Masur ; 2-0
Nāndaval ; KRG. ; नांदवळ ..	NW.; 24-0	3.8 1,451 ; 289 ; 1,399.	Sonake ; 2-0
Nāḍoli ; PTN. ; नाडोली ..	.. ..	1-0 585 ; 137 ; 563.	Malharpeth 2 0
Nāndośi ; KTV. ; नांदोशी ..	NW.; 11-0	4.3 763 ; 160 ; 716.	Aundh; 2-0
Nāṇegāṅv Bk. ; PTN. ; नाणेगांव बु॥ ..	SE ; 20 0	2.5 759 ; 173 ; 656.	Chafal; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 20-0	Tarale; Sat.; 8-0	Tarale; 8-0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m.); 2tl.
Lonand; 9-0	Pimpalwadi; Thu.; 2-0	Sakharwadi. 3-0	Rv.	2Sl (pr; m).; Nath fr. C. Sud. 8.; 2tl.
Karad; 19-0	Malharpeth; Wed.; 3-0	Telewadi; 0-4	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; cs.; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Vad 15.; tl.
Koregaon; 29-0	Vaduj; Sat.; 5-0	.. ..	W; n.	2Sl (pr).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Rahimatpur; 8-0	Bazar; Tue.; ..	Stage 0-9	w.	2Sl (pr; h).; 2Cs (mp; mis).; Chandeshwari fr. Ct. Vad. 10.; 2tl.; mq.; dh.; 2gym. ch.; lib.; 4dp.
Targaon; 7-0	Wathar kiroli. Sun.; 4-0	Local	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 3tl.; gym.
Wathar; 30-0	Wai; Mon.; 5-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Karad; 39-0	Helwak; Wed.; 7-0	Helwak; 7-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd; 33-0	Medha; Mon.; 1-0		W.	2tl.
Wathar; 37-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue.; 6-0	Panchagani; 8-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.;
Karad; 4-0	Karad; Thu.; 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2Cs (2mis).; 3tl.; mq.; lib.
Targaon; 1-4	Targaon; Mon.; 0-2	.. 0-0	rv.	Sl (m).; Cs(c).; Khandoba fr. Ct. Sud. 12.; 9tl.; 2M.; gym.; ch.; lib.; A Fort built by the ancestors of Bajirav Ghorpade.
Lonand; 11-0	Lonand; Thu.; 11-0	Nimbhor. 3-4	w.	Sl (pr) (Montessori).; Ct. Sud. 6.; 7tl.; ch.
Karad; 6-0	Karad; Thu.; 3-0	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 2tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Shiravade; 2-0	Shiravade; Fri.; 3-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2Cs (mis; mp); tl.
Wathar; 9-0	Pimpalkhede Bk. Sun.; 4-0	.. ..	rv.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 17-0	Malharpeth; Wed.; 2-0	Malharpeth 2-0	W.; w.	Sl (m).; 2tl.
Rahimatpur 9-0	Aundh; Tue.; 2-0	Local	w.	Sl (pr).; 5tl.; M.; gym.; ch.
Masur; 14-0	Chafal; Thu.; 2-0	Chafal; 2-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; Jyotirling fr. Mg. Sud. 14.; tl.; gym.; lib.

Village name in English Taluka abbreviation Village name in Deonagari.	Direction Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Nāṇegāṅv Kh.; PTN.; नाणेगाव खुर्द	NE.; 22-0	2.8 932; 213; 919.	Chafal; 4-0
Nāṇel; PTN.; नाणेल ..	W.; 14-0	1.3 207; 49; 204.	Helwak; 3-0
Naraphadev; JVL.; नरफदेव ..	E.; 10-0	0.8 276; 61; 270.	Saigaon; 2-4
Naravaṇe; MAN.; नरवणे ..	SE.; 10-0	18-0 2,269; 404; 1,820.	Gondavale Bk.; 7-0
Navajc; PTN.; नवजे ..	E.; 20-0	8.0 386; 95; 363.	Helwak; 8-0
Nāṭośi; PTN.; नाटोशी ..	SW.; 6-2	4.0 1,603; 328; 1,543.	Morgiri; 2-0
Nāv; PTN.; नाव ..	W.; 10-5	1.8 219; 55; 219.	Helwak; 7-0
Nāvaḍi; PTN.; नावडी ..	E.; 10-0	3.8 2,288; 397; 2,113.	Bahule; 3-0
Nāvali; MBR.; नावली ..	S.; 5-0	0.8 72; 12; 54.	Mahabaleshwar; 3-0
Nāvali; STA.; नावली ..	W.; 13-0	1.5 169; 40; 169	Parali; 6-0
Nāyagāṅv; KDL.; नायगांव ..	NW.; 5-0	2.8 1,100; 240; 1,068	Shirwal; 3-0
Nāyagāṅv; KRG.; नायगांव ..	NW.; 20-0	4.0 603; 126; 604;	Sonake; 3-0
Necel; PTN.; नेचेल .	W.; 15-0	3.5 138; 30; 138.	Helwak; 2-0
Nole; STA.; नेले ..	N.; 4-0	2.8 870; 183; 830.	Satara;
Ner; KTV.; नेर ..	W.; 14-0	5.0 1,398; 300; 1,250.	Pusegaon; 2-0
Neraḷe; PTN.; नेरळे ..	W.; 3-0	1.5 480; 89; 486.	Patan; 2-0
Nhālevāḍi; WAI.; न्हालेवाडी ..	W.; 7-0	1.8 461; 110, 301;	Panchagani 4-0
Nhāvi Bk.; KRG.; न्हावी बु।। ..	S.; 14-0	7.8 1,314; 254; 1,007;	Rahimatpur; 5-0
Nhāvi Kh.; KRG.; न्हावी खुर्द..	NE.; 6-0	2.8 580; 114; 554.	Chimangaon; 2-0
Niḍhal; KTV.; निढळ ..	NW.; 10-0	10.5 2,128, 412; 1,722;	Local .
Nigaḍe, PTN.; निगडे ..	.. ..	1.0 368; 84; 367;	Dhebewadi 6-0
Nigaḍi; KRD.; निगडी ..	N.; 12-0	6.8 1,605; 377; 1,282.	Masur; 4-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Masur; 12–0	Chafal; Thu.; 4–0	Chafal; 4–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Jyotiba fr. Mg. Sud. 11.; tl.
Karad; 33–0	Helwak; Wed.; 3–0	Helwak; 3–0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 23–4	Anewadi; Fri.; 3–4	..	t.	Sl (pr).; tl.; dh.; gym.
Koregaon; 36–0	Gondavale Bk.; Thu.; 7–0	Londhavade. 1–4	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; Ganesh fr. Bdp. Sud. 14,; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 45–0	Helwak; Wed.; 8–0	.. 7–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; Mahashivaratra fr. Mg. Vad. 13.; 2tl.
Karad; 27–0	Morgiri; Thu.; 2–0	Patan; 6–0	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15., 5tl.
Karad; 41–0	Helwak; Wed.; 7–0	..	w.	Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.
Karad; 21–0	Marul T. Haveli; Fri.; 3–0	.. 2–0	rv.; w.	3Sl (2pr.; m).; pyt.; Cs.; 9tl.; mq.; 2gym.; lib.
Wathar; 43–0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue.; 3–0	Mahabaleshwar. 7–0	spr.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 22–0	Parali; Mon.; 6–0	.. 9–0	rv.	tl.
Lonand; 20–0	Shirwal; Fri.; 3–0	Stage;	n.; str.	Sl (pr).; Cs., Ambabai fr. Vsk. Sud. 9.; 11tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 11–0	Pimpode Bk.; Sun.; 9–0	.	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; tl.; lib.
Karad; 36–0	Helwak; Wed.; 2–0	Helwak; 2–0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Satara Rd. 15–0	Satara; Sun.; 5–0	Moujeeete. 1–0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon; 10–0	Pusegaon; Sun.; 2–0	..	w.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.; 4tl.; mq.; ch.
Karad; 25–0	Patan; Mon.; 2–0	.	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Wathar; 28–0	Panchagani; Tue. 4–0	Velang; 1–4	rv.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c). 2tl.; gym.
Rahimatpur; 8–0	Aundh; Tue.; 5–0	Local; ..	W.	2Sl (pr; m).; pyt.; Cs (c).; 4tl.; mq.; dh.; lib.
Koregaon; 7–0	Koregaon; Mon.; 7–0	Chimangaon; 2–3	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt., 4tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 17–0	Pusegaon; Sun.; 6–0	.. ..	cv.; w.	2Sl (pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 28–0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 6–0	Dhebewadi; 6–0	W.; n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Masur; 5–0	Masur; Wed. 4–0	.. ..	w.; spr.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Bhairavdev fr. Vsk. Sud. 3.; 6tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; 2lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Nigaḍi ; KRG. ; निगडी ..	S., 4-0	2·5 652 ; 138 ; 578.	Koregaon; 2-4
Nigaḍi Vandan ; STA. ; निगडी वंदन ..	NE.; 14-0	1·5 300 ; 56 ; 239 ;	Angapur Tarf Vandan; 1-2
Nigaḍi Tarf Sātārā ; STA. ; निगडी तर्फ सातारा ..	E.; 8-0	4·8 1,591 ; 330 ; 1,420.	Local; ..
Niguḍamal ; STA. ; निगुडमल ..	W.; 14.0	0·3 133 ; 35 ; 132.	Parali; 5-0
Nimasoḍ ; KTV. ; निमसोड ..	S.; 11-3	13·3 2,830 ; 511 ; 2,247.	Local ..
Nimbalak ; PHL. ; निंबलक ..	W.; 9-0	14·8 2,384 ; 451 : 2,125.	Local; ..
Nimboḍi ; KDL. ; निंबोडी ..	E.; 11-0	3·8 688 ; 120 ; 557.	Lonand; 4-0
Nimbore ; PHL. ; निंबोरे ..	W.; 5-1	0·5 1,636 ; 342 ; 1,240.	Phaltan; 12-0
Nināṁ ; STA. ; निनाम ..	S.; 14-0	3·5 1,504 ; 315 ; 1,248.	Padali; 1-0
Nipāṇi ; JVL. ; निपाणी ..	W.; 7-0	1·5 330 ; 77 ; 267.	Bamnoli; Kasabe; 4-0
Niraguḍi ; PHL. ; निरगुडी ..	.. 5-0	2·3 927 ; 170 ; 671.	Phaltan; 6-0
Nisarāḷe ; STA. ; निसराळे ..	NE.; 14-0	1·3 622 ; 119 ; 591.	Atit; 2-4
Nisare ; PTN. ; निसरे ..	E.; 9-0	2·3 870 ; 179 ; 786.	Malharpeth; 1-0
Nitraḷ ; STA. ; नित्रळ ..	W.; 12-0	1·0 382 ; 87 ; 381.	Parali; 4-0
Nivaḍe ; PTN. ; निवडे ..	.. ..	0·3 474 ; 101 ; 473.	Tamle; 11-0
Nivaḷi ; JVL. ; निवळी ..	W.; 19-0	3·0 302 ; 69 ; 297.	Medha; 8-0

Railway St.; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Koregaon;	5-4	Koregaon;	Mon.	5-4	..	..	w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; M.; gym.;
Rahimatpur;	4-0	Angapur Tarf Vandan;	Sat.	1-2	..	..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; Bhairav fr. Vsk.; Sud. 2.; tl.
Rahimatpur;	7-0	Tasgaon;	Wed.	2-0	Chinchner;	2-0	..	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; Bahiroba fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 8tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	21-0	Parali;	Mon.	5-0	Parali;	8-0	Str.	Sl (pr).
Rahimatpur;	26-0	Mhasurne;	Tue.	4-0	Local;		W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 10tl.; M.; mq.; 2dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Lonand;	27-0	Bazar;	Thu.	..	..	1-0	..	2Sl (2pr).; Cs (mp).; Nimbjai fr. Ct. Vad. 15; 3tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Lonand;	4-0	Lonand;	Thu.	4-0	Lonand;	3-0	W.; w.; n.;	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; Peer Ur. Ct. Sud. 5.; 5tl.; 2dg.; ch.
Lonand;	12-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	2-0	..	0-1	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (c).; Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; Peer Ur Phg. Vad. 10.; 4tl.; dh.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	21-0	Parali;	Mon.	5-0	Nagthane;	4-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr.); Cs.; Maruti fr.; Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	31-0	Medha;	Mon.	5-0	Medha;	7-0	spr.; n.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Lonand;	22-0	Phaltan;	Sun.	2-0	Local	..	w.; W.	Sl (m).; Cs (mp).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; Mahadev fr. Srn. last Mon.; 5tl.; gym.; lib.
Targaon;	4-4	Atit;	Fri.	2-4	Jawalwadi;	0-4	w.; rv.	Sl (pr).; Janai fr. 2tl.; mq.; lib.
Karad;	16-0	Malharpeth;	Wed.	1-0	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.;	20-0	Parali;	Mon.	4-0	Parali;	9-0	w.	Sl (pr).; Kedar fr. in Ps.; 3tl.
Karad;	22-0	Tarale;	Sat.	11-0	..	..	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m).; 2tl.
Padali	43-0	Medha;	Mon.	8-0	Medha;	..	spr.; n.	Sl (pr).; Vaghjai fr. tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; *Village name in Devanagari.*	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Nivakaṇe ; PTN. ; निवकणे ..	.. ..	7·3 601 ; 151 ; 601.	Tarale; 8-0
Nivi ; PTN. ; निवी ..	.. 2-0	2·5 359 ; 70 ; 359.	Dhebewadi 6-0
Nizare ; JVL. ; निझरे ..	S.; 6-0	1·5 506 ; 116 ; 556.	Medha; 2-0
Nune ; STA. ; नुने ..	W.; 6-1	2·0 1,001 ; 248 ; 870.	Kanher 2-0
Nune ; PTN. ; नने ..	.. ..	3·3 1,075 ; 216 ; 994.	Tarale; 1-0
Ohaḷi ; WAI. ; ओहळी ..	.. 10-0	0 8 124 ; 27 ; 124.	Dhom; 10-0
Okhavaḍi ; JVL. ; ओखवडी ..	W.; 6 0	0·8 155 . 34 ; 151.	Medha; 6-0
Onḍ ; KRD. ; ओंड ..	S.; 11 0	6·3 2 543 ; 510 ; 1,850.	Local ..
Ozarde ; WAI. ; ओझर्डे ..	E.; 0-0	4·8 ; 2,281 ; 497 ; 1,814.	Local ; ..
Ozare ; JVL. ; ओझरे .	E.; 3 0	1·0 : 697 ; 142 ; 502.	Medha ; 4-0
Pācavaḍ ; KTV. ; पाचवड ..	SE.; 14-0	7·8 ; 1,583 ; 313 ; 1,240.	Kaledhon; 3-0
Pācavaḍ ; MAN. ; पाचवड ..	N ; 9-0	8·5 ; 1,205 ; 200 ; 1,054.	Dahivadi ; 10 0
Pācavaḍ ; WAI. ; पाचवड ..	S. ; 8-0	2·8 ; 1,302 ; 265 ; 006.	Local. ..
Pācund ; KRD. ; पाचुंद ..	W. ; 7-0	1·3 ; 242 ; 54 ; 237.	Masur : 6-0
Paḍaḷ ; KTV. ; पडळ	SE.; 12 0	4·0 ; 623 ; 107 ; 552.	Mayani ; 6-0
Pāḍaḷi ; KDL. ; पाडळी ..	NE., 10-0	7·5 ; 7·7 ; 148 ; 577.	Lonand ; 7-0
Pāḍaḷi : STA. ; पाडळी ..	S. : 13-0	1·5 ; 1,106 ; 302 ; 705.	Local. ..
Pāḍaḷi Pr. Karāḍ ; KRD. ; पाडळी प्र. कराड .	NW : 4-0	1 0 ; 347 ; 58 ; 339.	Masur ; 6-0
Pāḍaḷi Pr. Masūr : KRD. ; पाडळी प्र. मसूर ..	....	6·3 ; 1,465 ; 290 ; 1,260.	Supane ; 1-0
Paḍaḷośi ; PTN. ; पडळोशी ..	NE.: 24-0	1·8 : 441 ; 84 ; 334.	Chafal ; 6-0
Pāḍegānv ; KDL. ; पाडेगांव ..	SE. ; 17-0	2·3 ; 650 ; 153 : 433.	Nira.; 2-0
Pāḍegānv ; PHL. ; पाडेगांव ..	W. ; 21-0	5 6 ; 1,580 ; 320 ; 1,332.	Nira ; 1-0

Railway St.; Distance		Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad;	31-0	Tarale;	Sat.	8-0	..	..	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m).; 2tl.
Karad;	28-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	6-0	Dhebewadi;	0-0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; m).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.:	23-0	Medha;	Mon.	2-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; 7gym.
Satara Rd.;	10-0	Kanher;	Tue.	2-0	Local	..	rv.; w.	Sl (m); 2tl.; lib.
Targaon	21-0	Tarale;	Sat	1-0	Tarale;	1 0	W.; w.	2Sl (pr; h).; 4tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar;	37-0	Wai;	Mon.	16-0	..	..	n.	....
Satara Rd.;	32-0	Medha;	Mon.	6-0	..	..	W.	tl.
Karad;	13-0	Nandagaon;	Fri.	0-4	..	..	rv.; rsr. W.	2Sl (pr, m).; pyt.; 2Cs (2mis).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Wathar;	14-0	Bhuinj;	Sat.	1-0	Local	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2Cs. (fmg; mis).; 4tl.; 2M; mq.; dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.
Satara Rd.	22-0	Medha;	Mon.	4-0	..	..	rsr.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Koregaon;	47-0	Kaledhon;	Tue.	3-0	..		w.	Sl (pr.).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Koregaon,	38-0	Vavarhire;	Sat.	7-0	Bajwadi;	3-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 3tl.; gym.
Wathar;	14-0	Local	Tue.	..	Local	..	W.; rv.	2Sl. (pr; m).; pyt.; 5tl.; gym.; lib.; 2dp.
Karad;	4-0	Masur:	Wed.	6-0	..	..	w.; W.	Sl (pr).; tl.; gym.
Koregaon;	40-0	Mayani;	Sun.	0-0	..	-	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl.; dh.; ch.
Lonand;	7-0	Lonand:	Thu.	7-0	Lonand;	7-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).; Cs(mp).; 7tl.; 2dg.; gym., ch.
Rahimatpur:	14-0	Nagthane;	Tue.	2-2	Nagthane;	3-0	W.; w.; rsr.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; 0tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad;	4-0	Masur:	Wed.	6-0	Karad;	4 0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Karad;	7-0	Karad;	Thu.	4-0	Supane;	1 0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; ch.
Masur;	21-0	Chafal:	Thu.	0-0	Chafal;	6-0	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Nira;	2-0	Nira;	Wed.	2-0	Nira;	1-4	cl.; n.	Sl (pr).; Cs.; Mhatobadev fr. Mrg. Sud.15.; 5tl.; dh. Sugar Research Centre.
Nira;	1-0	Lonand;	Thu.	3-0	Nira;	2-0	cl.; str.	Sl (pr).; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pāl ; KRD. ; पाल ..	NW.; 20-0	10·5 ; 3,805 ; 816 ; 2,812.	Local ..
Paḷasagānv ; KTV. ; पळसगांव ..	SE. ; 8-0	2·5 ; 570 ; 119 ; 460.	Local.
Paḷasavaḍe ; MAN ; पळसवडे ..	E. ; 24-0	6·0 ; 178 ; 44 ; 158.	Mhaswad ; [illegible]
Paḷasavaḍe ; STA. ; पळसवडे ..	NW.; 11-0	1·3 ; 52 ; 13 ; 51.	Parah ; [illegible]
Paḷaśī ; KDL. ; पळशी ..	NW.; 8-0	3·3 ; 1,430 ; 310 ; 1,252.	Shirwal ; 2-0
Paḷaśī ; KTV. ; पळशी ..	S.; 9-0	3·5 ; 921 ; 142 ; 876.	Aundh ; 4-0
Paḷaśī ; KRG. ; पळशी ..	N.; 10-4	4·8 ; 1,075 ; 222 ; 990.	Khodi ; 1-4
Paḷaśī ; MAN ; पळशी ..	E.; 11-0	17·5 ; 2,267 ; 491. ; 1,844.	Local ..
Paḷaśī ; PTN ; पळशी ..	S. ; 12-0	3·5 ; 351 ; 83 ; 351.	Morgiri ; 6-0
Pālavaṇ ; MAN ; पालवण ..	SW. ; 16-0	2·5 ; 354 ; 71 ; 354.	Malavadi ; 6-0
Pālī Tarf Āṭegānv ; JVL. ; पाली तर्फ आटेगांव ..	W. ; 13-0	0·5 ; 170 ; 40 ; 170.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 0-0
Pālī ; Tarf Tāmb ; JVL. ; पाली तर्फ तांब ..	S.; 22-0	4·8 ; 99 ; 22 ; 90.	Medha ; 26-0
Pānas ; JVL. ; पानस ..	N. ; 15-0	0·8 ; 304 ; 62 ; 304.	Panchagani 4-0
Pānavaṇ ; MAN ; पानवण ..	SE.; 17-0	6·3 ; 691 ; 150 ; 645.	Mhaswad ; 8-0
Pāñchagaṇi ; MBR. ; पांचगणी ..	E.; 12-0	1·3 ; 4,588 ; 812 ; 143.	Local ..
Pāñchagaṇi ; PTN. ; पांचगणी ..	S. ; 13-0	0·3 ; 263 ; 62 ; 254.	Morgiri ; 5-0
Pānas ; WAI; पानस ..	W.; 9-0	1·3 ; 152 ; 30 ; 149	Dhom ; 5-0
Pāṇḍe ; WAI; पांडे .	E.; 6-0	1·5 ; 805 ; 160 ; 715	Ozarde ; 1-4
Pāṇerī ; PTN.; पाणेरी ..	S ; 10-0	4·8 ; 404 ; 110 ; 482	Morgiri ; 9-0
Pāṅgāre ; STA. ; पांगारे ..	NW.; 10-0	2·3 ; 303 ; 68 ; 302	Parali ; 3-0

Railway St.; Distance	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.			Motor Stand; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Masur; 10-0	Local;	Sun.	..	Local	..	W.; rv.; w.	2Sl. (2pr).; pyt.; 2Cs (mis; mp).; Khandoba fr. Ps. Sud. 13.; 9tl.; mq.; dg.; 4gym.; ch.; 4lib.
Koregaon; 32-0	Katarkhatav;	Sun.	3-0	..	..		Sl (pr).; 3tl.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon: 57-0	Mhaswad;	Wed.	0-0	Mhaswad;	7-0	W.; t.	Sl (pr).; Cs(c).; tl.
Satara Rd.: 19-0	Parali;	Mon.	3-0	Parali;	11-0	..	tl.
Lonand; 19-0	Shirwal;	Fri.	2-0	Shirwal;	2-0	W: w.	Sl (pr).; 2Cs.; Siddheshwar fr. Ct. Sud. 12.; 4tl.; 2gym.; lib.; dp.
Rahimat-pur. 10-0	Aundh;	Sun	4-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr)., pyt.; Jyotirling fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; gym.
Local ..	Deur;	Tue.	3-0	Pimpode;	1-0	rv.; W.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Peersaheb Ur. Ct. Sud. 3.; mq.; 5tl.
Koregaon 35-0	Local	Sat.	..	Local	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 34-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	6-0	Patan	12-0	spr.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Lonand; 22-0	Malavadi;	Sun.	0 0	Kulakajai;	5-0	W.; w.; t.	Sl (pr).; Nath fr. Ct. Sud. 10.; 4tl.
Satara Rd; 38-0	Medha;	Mon.	12-0	Medha;	14-0	spr.; rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.: 51-0	Medha;	Mon.	26-0	Medha;	20-0	spr.; n.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Wathar; 35-0	Humgaon;	Sun.	4-0	Pancha-gani;	4-4	W.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.;
Koregaon; 51-0	Mhaswad;	Wed.	8-0	Divad;	7-0	w; n.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Wathar; 28-0	Local	Tue.	..	Local	..	W.	9Sl (pr; 8h).; Mun., 3Cs. (c; mis); 3tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 12dp.; Cch.
Karad; 24-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	5-0	..	..	W.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Wathar 20-0	Wai;	Mon.	10-0	....		W.	Cs(c).: tl.
Wathar 17-0	Wai;	Mon.	6-0	..	..	spr.: w	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(fmg).; 2tl.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 31-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	9-0	Patan;	16-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 10-0	Parali;	Mon.	3 0	Parali;	10-0	rsr str.	Sl(pr).: Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pāṅgāri ; MBR.; पांगारी ..	E.; 6–0	0·5 ; 60 ; 11 ; 51	Pancha-gani ; 4–0
Paṅgārī ; MAN ; पांगारी ..	N.; 6–0	0·0 ; 749 ; 139 ; 652	Dahivadi ; 7 0
Pāparḍe ; PTN. ; पापर्डे	.. ..	2·3 ; 867 ; 178 ; 867	Local ..
Pārāgāṅv ; KDL.; पारगांव ..	W.; 0-2	4·5 ; 1,066 ; 235 ; 833	Khandala 0-2
Pāragāṅv ; KTV.; पारगांव ..	SE.; 15–0	2·3 ; 587 ; 110 ; 529	Pusesa-wali ; 1–0
Parakhaṇḍi ; WAI; परखंडी ..	NE.; 3-0	4·3 ; 1,240 ; 290 ; 1,140	Wai ; 3-0
Paraḷi ; STA. ; परळी ..	W.; 6 0	1 5 ; 1,196 ; 302 ; 765	Local ..
Paramāle ; STA. ; परमाळे ..	NW.; 12 0	1·5 : 248 ; 54 ; 248	Satara ; 7-0
Pārapār ; MBR.; पारपार ..	W.; 15-0	1·8 ; 66 ; 16 ; 50	Mahabale-shwar , 6–0
Pārasoṇḍ ; MBR. ; पारसोंड ..	W.; 15–0	1·0 ; 133 ; 23 ; 123	Mahabale-shwar ; 6-0
Paratavāḍi ; KRG. ; परतवाडी ..	NW.; 8-0	1·0 ; 118 ; 21 ; 115	Revadi ; 3–0
Paratavāḍi ; WAI ; परतवाडी ..	W.; 12-0	1·0 ; 315 ; 65 ; 314	Mahabale-shwar ; 6–4
Parayanti ; MAN ; परयंती ..	SE.; 25–0	9·3 ; 809 ; 99 ; 682	Mhaswad ; 7–0
Pārle ; KRD. ; पार्ले ..	SE.; 3–0	1·8 ; 1,005 ; 157 ; 798	Ogalewadi; 1–0
Parvat ; JVL. ; पर्वत ..	W.; 20 0	3·3 ; 221 ; 47 ; 221	Medha ; 14-0
Parūṭ ; MBR. ; पारूट ..	SE. ; 8–0	1·3 ; 96 ; 18 ; 93	Mahabale-shwar ; 6–0
Pasaraṇī ; WAI ; पसरणी ..	W ; 2-4	4·8 ; 2,380 ; 424 ; 1,021	Local ..
Pāṭakhaḷ ; STA.; पाटखळ ..	E.; 6–0	4·8 ; 1,717 ; 338 ; 1,506	Wadhuth ; 2–0
Pāṭaṇ ; PTN. ; पाटण ..	hq. ..	2·5 ; 3,630 ; 770 ; 1,282	Local ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Wathar; 33-0	Wai; Mon. 13-0	Pancha-gani; 2-0	spr.	tl.
Koregaon; 46-0	Vavarhire; Sat. 2-0	Local ..	w.	Sl(pr)., Viroba fr. Mrg. Vad. 9.; 2tl.; lib.
Karad; 24-0	Local Mon. ..	Local	W.; w.	2Sl(pr; h).; 2tl; ch.
Lonand; ; 13-2	Khandala; Sun. 0-2	Stage nearby	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; Cs.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3tl.; dh.; gym.
Rahimatpur; 16-0	Pusesawali; Wed 1-0	. ..	str.;W.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Wathar; 22-0	Wai; Mon. 3-0	.. ..	str.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Bhairav fr; Ct. Sud. 8.; 5tl.; gym.. ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Bazar; Mon. ..	Local ..	t.; w.	2sl(2pr).; Ramdas-swami fr. Mg. Vd. 1 to 9.; 10tl; M.; 2mq.; 2dg.; lib.; 2dp.; Historical Sajjangad.
Satara Rd.; 17-0	Satara; Sun. 7-0	Satara; 12-0	pi.	Sl(pr); 15mq.; tl.; gym.
Wathar; 33-0	Wai; Mon. 13-0	Mahabale-shwar 10-0	W.	...
Wathar; 46-0	Mahabale-shwar; Tue. 6-0	. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; ShriRama Var-dhapini Devi. fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; 7tl.
Palashi; 3-0	Satara Rd.; Wed. 3-0	.. ..	rv.	tl
Wathar; 31-0	Mahabale-shwar; Tue. 6-4	Panchagani; 8-0	W.; rv.	2tl.
Pandharpur; 40-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 7-0	Mhaswad; 8-0	W.; n.	Sl(pr); Cs(c).; s.c. 2tl.; ch.
Karad; 1-0	Karad; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	W; str.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; mq;. gym; lib.
Padali; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 13-0	Medha; 13-0	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Wathar; 40-0	Mahabale-shwar; Tue. 6-0	Mahabale-shwar 7-0	W.	pyt.; tl.
Wathar; 23-0	Wai; Mon. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt; Cs(mp).; 6tl.; 2M.; mq.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 5-0	Waduth; Sat. 2-0	.. 2-0	W.	2Sl(m; h).; Cs (c).; 8tl. mq.; gym.; ch.
Karad; 24-0	Local; Mon. ..	.. ..	rv;W.	5Sl(3pr;m;h).; pyt.; 2Cs (c;mp).; Rama fr. Ct. Sud.9.; 9tl.; 2mq.; dg. dh.; lib.; 4dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Pāṭeghar ; STA. ; पाटेघर ..	W.; 16-0	2·3 ; 240 ; 60 ; 220	Parali ; 6-0
Pātharapūñjā ; PTN.; पाथरपुंजा ..	W.; 15-4	3·0 ; 158 ; 37 ; 158	Helwak ; 10-0
Pāṭhavaḍe ; PTN. ; पाटवडे ..	N.; 38-0	1·5 ; 153 ; 34 ; 153	Chafal ; 5-0
Peḍagāṁv ; KTV. ; पेडगांव ..	N.; 5-0	0·5 ; 1,140 ; 218 ; 1,035	Vaduj ; 4 0
Perale ; KRD. ; पेरले ..	N.; 14-0	4·8 ; 1,665 ; 223 ; 1,375	Umbraj ; 5-0
Peṭāpār ; MBR. ; पेटापार ..	W.; 15-0	0·3; 81 ; 21 ; 50	Mahabaleshwar ; 6-0
Peṭri ; STA.; पेट्री ..	W.; 9-0	0·5 ; 191 ; 30 ; 190	Parali ; 6-0
Phaḷaṇi ; JVL. ; फळणी ..	S.; 11-0	1·3 ; 83 ; 25 ; 82	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 2-0
Phatyāpūr ; STA. ; फत्यापूर ..	E.; 10-0	1·5 ; 806 ; 108 ; 585	Satara ; 0 0
Phurus ; JVL. फुरुस ..	W.; 8-0	0·8 ; 141 ; 30 ; 130	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 4-0
Pilāṇi ; STA. ; पिलाणी ..	NW.; 12-0	1·3 ; 117 ; 25 ; 107	Satara ; 6-0
Pimpaḷi ; JVL. ; पिंपळी ..	N.; 11-0	0·8 ; 263 ; 73 ; 241	Panchagani. 3-0
Pimpaḷośi ; PTN. ; पिंपळोशी ..	NW ; 4-2	0·8 ; 343 , 66 ; 310	Patan ; 2-0
Pimparad ; PHL. ; पिंपरद	E.; 0-0	5·0 ; 1,212 ; 238 ; 1,055	Local ..
Pimpare Bk. ; KDL. ; पिंपरे बु।।	E.; 14-0	7·3 ; 1,244 ; 251 ; 912	Lonand ; 5 0
Pimpari ; KTV.; पिंपरी ..	S.; 8-0	5 8 ; 770 ; 146 ; 730	Ambavade. 2-0
Pimpari ; KRG.; पिंपरी ..	S.; 11 0	3·5 ; 1,230 ; 232 ; 1,128	Rahimatpur ; 3-0
Pimpari ; MAN.; पिंपरी ..	E.; 0-3	4·3 ; 729 ; 154 ; 512	Palashi ; 2-0
Pimpari Tarf Meḍha ; JVL.; .. पिंपरी तर्फ मेढा	W.; 1-0	0·5 ; 196 ; 37 ; 196	Medha ; 1-0
Pimpari Tarf Tāmb ; JVL. ; .. पिंपरी तर्फ तांब	SW.; 13-0	4·5 ; 532 ; 142 ; 528.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 3-0
Pimpoḍe Bk. ; KRG ; पिंपोडे बु।।	N.; 21-0	24·8 3,340 ; 603 ; 2,780.	Local ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Parali; Mon. 6-0	.. 8-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; Janai fr.; Phg. Sud. 7; tl.; gym.
Karad; 57-0	Helwak; Wed.; 10-0	.. ..	rv.	tl. ..
Masur; 10-0	Chafal; Thu. 5-0	.. ..	spr.	3tl.
Koregaon; 24-0	Vaduj; Sat. 4-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 3tl.; M.; dh.; gym.
Masur; 4-0	Umbraj; Mon. 5-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2 Cs(mp;mis).; 4tl.; mq: gym.;ch.; lib.
Wathar; 46-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 6-0	Mahabaleshwar 10-0	W.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon. 6-0	Parali; 6-0	pl.; rsr.	Sl(pr).; ; 2tl.
Padali; 30 0	Medha; Mon. 6 0	.. ..	spr.	3tl.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Satara; Sun. 6 0	. 6 0	t.;w; W.	Sl(pr).; 5tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 35-0	Medha; Mon. 10-0	Medha; 8 0	W.;	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 22 0	Satara; Thu 6-0	Satara; 12-0	str.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 11-0	Humgaon; Sun. 5-0	Humgaon; 3-4	W.;	2tl.
Karad; 26-0	Patan; Mon. 2-0	.. ..	spr.;W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; mq.; dg.
Lonand; 24 0	Phaltan; Sun. 6 0	Stage Nearby. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp)., 3tl.; gym.; ch.; lib
Lonand; 5-0	Lonand; Thu. 5 0	.. 3 0	rv.; w.; W.	3Sl (pr).; Cs.; Ramnavmi fr. Ct. Vad. 9.; 3tl. 2lib.
Koregaon; 30-0	Mayni Sun. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).: pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.
Rahimatpur; 6-0	Rahimatpur; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	w.	2Sl(pr;m).; 5tl.; mq.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon; 35-0	Palashi; Sat. 2-0	Local, 1-4	..	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.;ch.
Satara Rd.; 27-0	Medha; Mon. 1-4	Medha 1-0	W.	2tl; gym.
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 12-0	Medha; 13-0	W.; spr.	tl.
Wathar; 3-4	Local . Sun. ..	.. .	w. rv.	2Sl(2pr.); pyt.; 20tl.; M.; mq.; dg.;2 gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Pimpoḍe Kh. ; KRG. ; पिंपोडे खुर्द	SW.: 11–0	3·3 1,144 ; 261 ; 981	Revadi ; 2–0
Piṅgaḷī Bk. ; MAN ; पिंगळी बु।।	SW.; 3–0	8·0 ; 1,100 ; 222 ; 956.	Mahimangad. 4–0
Piṅgaḷī Kh. ; MAN ; पिंगळी खुर्द ..	S.; 3 0	2·5 ; 463 ; 77 ; 463 ;	Dahivad ; 3·0
Pogaravāḍī ; STA. ; पोगरवाडी ..	W.; 3–0	0·8 ; 259 ; 52 ; 244.	Satara ; 3–0
Potaḷe ; KRD. ; पोतले ..	W.; 8–0	3·8 ; 2,077 ; 195 ; 1,784.	Kole ; 2–0
Puḷakoṭī ; MAN ; पुळकोटी ..	E.; 20–0	3·5 ; 604 ; 140 ; 590.	Mhaswad ; 3–0
Punavaḍī ; JVL. ; पुनवडी ..	W.; 8–0	2·5 ; 455 ; 85 ; 454.	Medha ; 7–0
Punavaḍī ; STA. ; पुनवडी	W.; 5–0	0·8 ; 166 ; 42 ; 166.	Parali ; 2–0
Punavaḷī ; PTN.; पुनवळी ..	E.; 22–0	1·5 ; 131 ; 29 ; 129.	Helwak ; 14–0
Pusegāṅv. ; KTV. ; पुसेगांव ..	W.; 11–0	5·8 ; 2,351 ; 466 ; 1,653.	Local ; ..
Pusesāvaḷī ; KTV ; पुसेसावळी ..	S.; 13–0	6·0 ; 3,160 ; 562 ; 1,973	Local ; ..
Rahāṭaṇī ; KTV.; रहाटणी ..	S ; 14–0	2·3 ; 642 ; 115 ; 642 ;	Vadgaon ; 2–0
Rahimatapūr ; KRG. ; रहिमतपूर	S.; 8–0	12·3 ; 8,055 ; 1,464 ; 4,722.	Local ; ..
Rāhuḍe ; PTN. ; राहुडे ..	.. ..	1·5 ; 378 ; 77 ; 332.	Tarale ; 1–0
Rājāḷe ; PHL.; राजाळे ..	NE.; 7–0	5·3 ; 980 ; 210 ; 929 ;	Phaltan ; 1–0
Rājāpūr ; KTV. ; राजापूर ..	NW.; 17–4	7·0 ; 1,762 ; 337 ; 1,259.	Budh ; 1–4
Rājāpūrī ; MBR. ; राजापूरी ..	E. ; 17–0	1·8 ; 491 ; 109 ; 490.	Panchagani ; 5–0
Rājāpūrī ; STA. ; राजापूरी ..	S.; 11–0	2·0; 479 ; 111 ; 457.	Parali ; 8–0
Rājavaḍī ; MAN. ; राजवडी ..	N.; 6–0	8·3 ; 980 ; 195 ; 963.	Dahivad ; 9–0
Rājurī ; PHL. ; राजुरी ..	E.; 15–0	7·0 ; 1,175 ; 226 ; 1,007.	Gunaware ; 4–0
Rān Ādavāgounḍ ; MBR. ; रान-आडवा गौंड ..	W.; 13–0	0·8 ; 80 ; 21 ; 30.	Mahabaleshwar ; 12 0

Railway St.; Distance.*	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information:
Palashi; 2-0	Deur; Tue. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 2tl.; dh.; lib.
Koregaon; 23-0	Dahivadi; Mon. 4-0	Local; .	w.	Sl(pr).; 3tl; lib.
Koregaon 27-0	Dahivadi; Mon. 3-0	Local; 0-2	n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 13-0	Satara; Sun. 3-0	.. 2-0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Karad: 21-0	Kole; Wed. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	3Sl(3pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; lib.
Koregaon; 54-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 3-0	Mhaswad; 4-0	W.; n.	Sl(pr).; 5tl.; dp.
Satara Rd.; 31-0	Medha. Mon. 7-0	Kelghar; 2-0	spr.; rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Parali; Mon 2-0	Parali; 3-0	rv; w.	Sl(pr).;2tl.
Karad; 57-0	Helwak; Wed. 14-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 12-0	Local Sun. ..	Local .	rv.; W.	3Sl(pr;2h).; pyt.; Cs(o).; 6tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Rahimatpur;17-0	Local Wed. ..	.. ..	W.	5Sl(4pr;h).; pyt.; 9tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch: 3dp.
Rahimatpur;18-0	Pusesawali Wed. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.;tl.
Local	Local Thu. ..	Local ..	W.;w.;n.	5Sl(3pr;m;h) Tr clg.; 2Cs.; 30tl.; 2M.; 3mq.; dg.; dh.; 7gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 7dp.
Masur; 13-0	Tarale; Sat. 4-0	Tarale 4-0	W.; w.	2Sl(pr;m).; 2tl.; ch:
Baramati; 10-0	Phaltan; Sun. 1-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; Janai fr. Ct. Sud. 7.; 3tl.; ch.
Koregaon; 18-4	Local Fri. ..	Rahimatpur: 1-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mis).; Janudevi fr. Mg. Vad. 3.; 5tl.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 28-0	Wai; Mon. 8-0	Panchagani. 5-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c)., 3tl.
Satara Rd., 24-0	Parali; Mon. 8-0	. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); Bahiroba fr. Ct. Sud. 11.; 2tl.; gym.
Koregaon, 37-0	Vavarhire; Sat. 5-0	Bijavadi; 0-2	w.	pyt; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud 8.; 4tl.; gym.; ch.
Lonand; 20-0	Barad; Fri. 3-0	. 1-0	str.	Sl(pr.)., 4tl., mq.; dg.; dh.
Wathar; 50-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 12-0	. ..	w. t.	Sl(pr).; Afzal Khan Urus in Feb. Shivaji fr. Vsk. Sud.3.; 4tl.; dg. (i) Bhavani Mandir (ii) Equestrian statue of Shivaji (iii) Afzal Khan darga.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Rāmeghar ; JVL. ; रामेघर ..	W.; 7-0	0·8 ; 240 ; 58 ; 197.	Humgaon ; 3-0
Rāmeśvar ; KTV. ; रामेश्वर ..	NW.; 14-0	.. ..	Deserted ..
Raṇadullābād ; KRG. ; रणदुल्लाबाद ..	NW.; 27-0	3.0 ; 1,034 ; 177 ; 1,010.	Sonake ; 3-0
Rāṇageghar ; JVL. ; राणगेघर ..	NW ; 6-0	1·3 ; 380 ; 75 ; 380.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 6-0
Rāṇand ; MAN ; राणंद ..	E.; 6-4	7·5 ; 1,052 ; 329 ; 1,108.	Local ..
Rāñjaṇī ; JVL. ; रांजणी ..	N.; 16-0	2·3 ; 852 ; 182 ; 843.	Panchagani 4-0
Rañzānī ; MAN ; रंझानी ..	NE.; 24-0	3·3 ; 425 ; 156 ; 320.	Mhaswad ; 7-6
Rāsāṭhī ; PTN. ; रासाठी ..	W.; 13-0	3·0 ; 336 ; 75 ; 211.	Helwak ; 2-0
Rāvaḍī Bk. ; PHL. ; रावडी बु।। ..	NW.; 12-0	2·8 ; 770 ; 167 ; 680.	Lonand ; 7-0
Rāvaḍī Kh. PHL. ; रावडी खु. ..	NW. ; 16 0	2·5 ; 355 ; 82 ; 350.	Lonand ; 5-0
Ravaṇḍī ; JVL. ; रवंडी ..	SW.; 18-0	1·0 ; 105 ; 26 ; 105.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 16-0
Rāyagāṅv ; JVL. ; रायगांव ..	S.; 9-0	2·8 ; 072 ; 106 ; 956.	Saigaon ; 1-0
Rāyaghar ; STA. ; रायघर ..	W.; 7-0	0·5 ; 80 ; 20 ; 70.	Parali ; 6-0
Renāvaḷe ; WAI ; रेनावळे ..	W.; 10-0	1·5 ; 587 ; 133 ; 587.	Dhom ; 6-0
Reṇośī ; JVL. ; रेणोशी ..	W.; 24-0	2·5 ; 217 ; 54 ; 216.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 9-0
Reṭhare Bk. ; KRD. ; रेठरे बु।। ..	S.; 10-0	0·3 ; 4,646 ; 834 ; 3,951.	Local ..
Reṭhare ; Kh. ; KRD. ; रेठरे खुर्द.	S. ; 9-0	2·5 ; 1,656 ; 301 ; 1,509.	Rethare Bk. 0-3
Revaḍī ; KRG. ; रेवडी ..	NW. ; 9-0	2·8 ; 1,045 ; 195 ; 570.	Local ..
Revalī ; STA. ; रेवली ..	W.; 10-0	0·8 ; 230 ; 25 ; 227.	Parali ; 3-0
Revaṇḍe ; STA. ; रेवंडे ..	S.; 9-0	0·8 ; 258 ; 57 ; 253.	Parali ; 6-0
Rikaṭavalī ; JVL. ; रिकटवली ..	E.; 2-0	0·3 ; 254 ; 57 ; 254.	Medha ; 2-0
Risavaḍ ; KRD. ; रिसवड ..	N.; 12-4	3·3 ; 1,023 ; 218 ; 980.	Masur ; 3-0
Risavaḍ ; PTN. ; रिसवड ..	.. 12-0	3·3 ; 58 ; 15 ; 58.	Helwak ; 6-0
Rohiṇe ; PTN. ; रोहिणे ..	E.; 34-0	2·3 ; 234 ; 65 ; 233.	Helwak ; 16-0

Railway St. ; Distance	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Humgaon ; Sun. 3-0	Medha ; 7-0	rv.	3tl.
Deserted.	Deserted	Deserted		2tl.
Wathar ; 12-0	Pimpode Bk; Sun. 5-0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Medha ; Mon. 6-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 42-0	Dahivadi Mon. 7-0	Gondavali Bk.; 5-0	n.	Sl(pr)., pyt.; 3tl.; lib.; dp.
Wathar ; 30-0	Humgaon ; Sun. 7-0	Panchagani. 4-0	pl.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; lib.
Koregaon ; 36-0	Mhaswad ; Wed. 7-0	Mhaswad; 7-0	str.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.
Karad ; 37-0	Helwak ; Wed. 2-0	Helwak 1-0	pl.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Lonand ; 7-0	Sakharwadi ; Thu. 0-0	Taradgaon ; 4-0	ol.	2Sl(pr;m).
Lonand 5-0	Lonand Thu. 5-0	Taradgaon 4-0	rv.	Mahashivratra Fr. Mg., Sud. 13.; tl,; ch.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Medha ; Mon. 16-0	Medha ; 18-0	rv.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Anewadi ; Fri. 1-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.; M ; mq.; lib.
Satara Rd ; 22-0	Parali ; Mon. 6 0	.. 3-0	w.; str.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Wathar ; 31-0	Wai ; Mon. 12-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Medha ; Mon. 21-0	Mahabaleswar, 16-0	spr.	4tl.
Shenoli 4-0	Shenoli ; Sat. 4-0	Wathar ; 3-0	rv.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mis),; 11tl.; mq.; ; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Shenoli ; 4-0	Kole ; Wed. 5-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr.).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Palashi ; 1-4	Satara Rd.; Wed. 3-0	.. .	w.; rv.	Sl(pr.).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Khandoba fr. Mg. Sud. 6.; 3tl.;ch.
Satara Rd.; 19-0	Parali ; Mon. 3-0	.. 4-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Parali ; Mon. 5-0	.. ..	t.; str.	Sl(pr).; gym.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 2 4	Medha ; Mon. 4-0	.. .	W.	Sl(pr) ; Janai devi fr. Phg. Vad. 5. ; 2tl.; gym.
Masur ; 4-0	Karad ; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Ganesh fr. Bdp. Vad. 12.; 4tl ; mq.; gym.; lib.
Karad ; 32-0	Helwak ; Wed. 6-0	.. ..	rv.	tl.
Karad ; 52-0	Helwak Wed. 15-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Rohoṭ ; STA. ; रोहोट ..	W.; 15-0	1·3 ; 508 ; 134 ; 396.	Parali ; 5-0
Ruī ; KRG. ; रुई	NE.; 6-0	4·8 ; 1,075 ; 232 ; 980.	Chiman-gaon. 3-0
Ruī ; KDL. ; रुई	NW.; 12-0	0·3 ; 50 ; 8 ; 44.	Andori ; 2-0
Ruighar ; JVL. ; रुईघर	NW.; 20-0	1·5 ; 512 ; 111 ; 478.	Panchagani 1-4
Ruḷe ; JVL. ; रुळे	W.; 21-0	2·0 ; 260 ; 67 ; 259.	Bamnoli Kasabe. 8-0
Ruvale ; PTN. ; रुवले	S.; 48-0	1·8 ; 622 ; 120 ; 608.	Dhebewadi 8-0
Sadāśivagāḍ ; KRD. ; सदाशिवगड.	E.; 4-0	8·8 ; 5,173 ; 1,062 ; 2,155.	Ogalewadi; 1-0
Saḍāvāghāpūr ; PTN. ; सडावाघापूर	N.; 40-0	4·3 ; 693 ; 173 ; 693.	Chafal ; 8-0
Śahāpūr ; KRD. ; शहापूर	NW.; 7-0	3·8 ; 554 ; 114 ; 540.	Masur ; 2-0
Śahāpūr ; STA. ; शहापूर	S.; 8-0	3·8 ; 1,531 ; 294 ; 600.	Satara ; 2-0
Sĕdāpūr ; KRD. ; सैदापूर	NW.; 1-0	2·3 ; 1,342 ; 267 ; 1,136.	Karad ; 2-0
Sĕdapūr ; STA. ; सैदापूर	N. ; 2-2	0·8 ; 295 ; 52 ; 257.	Satara ; 2-0
Sāīkaḍe ; PTN. ; साईकडे	S. ; 35-0	3·8 ; 1,806 ; 377 ; 1,814.	Dhebewadi; 4-0
Sājūr ; KRD. ; साजूर	SW.; 11-0	1·8 ; 823 ; 170 ; 823.	Tambave ; 2-0
Sākharī ; PTN. ; साखरी	.. 4-0	2·8 ; 683 ; 139 ; 650.	Patan ; 4-0
Sākurḍī ; KRD. ; साकुर्डी	W. ; 7-0	4·8 ; 385 ; 83 ; 348.	Karad ; 7-0
Sālape ; PHL. ; साळपे	W.; 28-0	5·0 ; 870 ; 175 ; 813.	Lonand ; 6-0
Sāḷośī ; JVL. ; साळोशी	W. ; 24-0	1·0 ; 121 ; 27 ; 121.	Mahaba-leshwar. 16-0
Sālasirambe ; KRD. ; साळशिरंबे.	E.; 14-0	4·2 ; 1,607 ; 304 ; 1,529.	Ond ; 2-0
Saḷave ; PTN. ; सळवे	S.; 45-0	3·8 ; 1,226 ; 268 ; 1,173	Dhebewadi; 8-0
Śambhūkheḍ ; MAN ; शंभूखेड	NE. ; 27-0	3·3 ; 219 ; 47 ; 181.	Mhaswad ; 7-0
Saṇabūr ; PTN. ; सणबूर	S. ; 45-0	3·0 ; 1,905 ; 388 ; 1,720.	Dhebe-wadi. ; 5-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Parali Mon. 5-0	.. 0-0	w.	Sl(pr).; (Vikas yojana); Cs(o).; Janai Devi. Fr. Phg. Vad. 5; tl.
Koregaon; 7-0	Koregaon; Mon 7-0	Koregaon; 6 0	w; n.	Sl(pr); pyt.; 5tl.
Lonand; 7-0	Lonand; Thu. 7-0	Andori; 3-0	rv	Cs(gr).; Bhairavnath fr. Vsk. Sud. 7.; tl.
Wathar; 27-0	Humgaon; Sun. 8-0	Panchagani. 2-0	W.; spr.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd., 40-0	Medha: Mon. 14-0	Mahabaleshwar. 16-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.
Karad; 26-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 8-0	Sanabur 3-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; Jugai fr. Ct. Sud. 1.; tl.
Karad; 1-0	Karad; Thu. 3-0	Local; ..	w.	8Sl (6pr; m; h).; pyt.; 4tl.; dh.; gym.; lib.; 2dp; Sadashiv Fort.
Masur; 11-0	Patan; Mon. 8-0	.. ..	spr.	Sl(pr)., dh.
Shiravade; 1-0	Shiravade; Fri. 2-0	. ..	W.	Sl(pr).: 2tl., gym.
Satara Rd; 12-0	Satara; Sun. 21-0	.. 1-0	..	Sl(pr); Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3tl; dh.
Karad; 3-0	Karad; Thu. 2-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr); Tr. clg, pyt; 3tl; M; mq; gym; lib.
Satara Rd; 12 0	Satara; Sun. 2-0	.. 0-2	rv, w.	Sl(pr); Maruti fr. Ct Vad. 10; tl; gym.
Karad; 15-0	Manewadi; Sun. 1-0	. .	rv; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl; gym.; lib.
Karad; 12-0	Tambave; Sat 2 0	.. ..	rv	Sl(pr).; 2tl: gym
Karad; 26 0	Patan; Mon 4-0	Patan, 4-0	W; W.	2Sl(pr; h).; 2tl; ch
Karad; 10-0	Karad; Thu 7-0	.. ..	rv	Sl(pr), pyt.; 2tl.; dh.
Salpe; 1-0	Lonand; Thu 6-0	. 0-1	spr.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; 4tl.; gym. ch.
Padali; 48 0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue 16-0	Medha; 24-0	spr.	2tl.
Karad; 12-0	Nandagaon; Fri, 2-0	.. .	w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; Cs(mp).; 8tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 29-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 8-0	Sanabur; 1-0	rv.; spr.	Sl(pr)., Jyotiba fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 5tl, dh
Koregaon; 43-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 7-0	Mhaswad; 8-0	W.	Sl(pr). Mahadeo fr. Ct Sud. 15.; tl.
Karad; 27-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 6-0	Local: ..	W.; spr.	Sl(pr), pyt; 5tl; gym; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Sanapāne ; JVL. ; सनपाने	S.; 12–0	0·5 ; 464 ; 102 ; 450.	Valuth ; 0–4
Sāṇḍavali ; STA. ; सांडवली	W.; 10–0	2·0 ; 136 ; 33 ; 136.	Parali ; 8–0
Saṅgam Māhuli ; STA. ; संगम माहुली	E.; 3-2	7·8 ; 624 ; 154 ; 421.	Kshetra Mahuli ; 0-2
Sāṅgavaḍ ; PTN. ; सांगवड	SE.; 2–0	2·8 ; 1,508 ; 333 ; 1,401.	Local ..
Sāṅgavi ; KDL. ; सांगवी	NE.; 6–0	1·5 ; 270 ; 65 ; 270.	Shirwal ; 2–0
Sāṅgavi ; KRG. ; सांगवी	SE.; 5–0	2·3 ; 699 ; 149 ; 658.	Chimangaon 1-0
Sāṅgavi ; PHL. ; सांगवी	.. 6-0	6·8 ; 1,578 ; 340 ; 1,046.	Phaltan ; 0–0
Sāṅgavi ; T. Kuḍāḷ ; सांगवी तर्फ कुडाळ	E.; 9–0	0·3 ; 54 ; 14 ; 50.	Kudal ; 1–4
Sāṅgavi T. Meḍhā ; JVL. ; सांगवी तर्फ मेढा	S.; 3-4	1·3 ; 236 ; 50 ; 231.	Medha ; 1–4
Sāp ; KRG. ; साप	SE.; 11 0	3.0 . 1,427 ; 263 ; 1,311.	Rahimatpur ; 3-0
Saraḍe ; PHL. ; सरडे	NE ; 9-0	4.0 ; 1,345 ; 267 ; 1,084.	Phaltan : 5–0
Sarajāpūr ; JVL. ; सरजापूर	E.; 9–0	0.8 ; 504 ; 123 ; 543.	Panchwad; 3–0
Sārakhaḷ ; STA. ; सारखळ	W.; 6-0	602 ; 110 ; 637.	Kanher ; 3–0
	(Included in Thomarewadi and Inglewadi).		
Saratāḷe ; JVL. ; सरताळे	E.; 0–4	2.5 ; 1,001 : 209 ; 907.	Panchwad ; 1–0
Sāsakal ; PHL. : सासकल	.. 6-0	3.0 ; 700 ; 140 ; 609.	Lonand : 6–0
Sāsapaḍe ; STA. ; सासपडे	S. ; 15-0	2.8 : 1,920 ; 338 ; 1,546.	Local ..
Sāsavaḍ ; PHL. ; सासवड	W., 13 0	9.5 ; 1,801 ; 342 ; 1,543.	Nimblak ; 3-0
Sāsurve ; KRG. ; सासुर्वे	SW.; 7–0	3.3 ; 1,073 ; 206 ; 1,022.	Rahimatpur ; 3–4
Sātar ; PTN. ; सातर	.. ..	3·8 ; 215 ; 43 , 214.	Dhebewadi; 8-0
Sātārā ; STA. ; सातारा	H.Q. ..	1·3 ; 38,521 ; 8,165; 2,662.	Local ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 31–0	Humgaon;	Sun.	1–4	..	..	w.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 24–0	Parali;	Mon.	8–0	Parali,	10–0	str.	Sl(pr).; Sandwal Devi fr. Ct.; 2tl.
Koregaon; 8–0	Satara;	Sun.	3–0	Kshetra Mahuli;	0-2	rv.	Sl(pr).; Mahadeo fr. Sru. last Monday; 25tl.; dh,: gym.: ch.
Karad; 19–0	Marul Tarf Haveli	Fri.	2–0	Marul Tarf Haveli	2–0	W.; w.	3Sl(pr; m;h); pyt; 3tl; dg.; gym.; ch.; lib. dp.
Lonand; 20–0	Shirwal;	Fri	2–0	Shirwal;	2-4	W.;n.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp;gr); 2tl
Koregaon; 3–0	Koregaon;	Mon.	3-0	Koregaon;	5–0	w;n.	2Sl(2pr).; pyt.; Mhasoba fr. plg. Vad. 8.; 3tl.; gym.
Baramati; 8–0	Phaltan;	Sun.	6–0	Phaltan	6–0	w.; W.	2Sl(pr; h).; pyt.; 3tl.; ch.; lib; dp.
Satara Rd.; 27-0	Kudal;	Wed.	1-4	Kudal;	1–4	rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 28-4	Medha,	Mon.	2-4	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Rahimatpur; 2-4	Rahimatpur;	Thu.	3–0	..	..	n.;w.;W	Sl(pr)., pyt.; 5tl.; gym.; lib.
Lonand; 23–0	Phaltan;	Sun.	5 0	..	8–0	rv.	Sl(pr).; Vsk. Sud. 10; 2tl.: gym.; lib.
Satara Rd; 13–0	Anewadi;	Fri.	3–0	Kudal;	2–0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd; 19–0	Kanher;	Tue	2-0	..	0-4	w.; str.	Sl(pr).; Bapuji fr. Ct. Vad. 6.; 3tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 26-0	Panchwad;	Tue.	1-0	..	..	W.	2Sl(pr).; pyt.: 8tl.; gym.; lib.
Lonand; 6-0	Lonand;	Thu.	6-0	.	0-5	W., w.	Sl(pr).; Bhairav Nath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; tl.; gym.
Targaon; 10–0	Atit;	Fri.	3 0	..	5-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Baramati; 8-0	Nimblak;	Thu.	3-0	Kalaj;	4-0	w., W.	Sl(pr).; 5tl.; mq.; gym.; lib.
Rahimatpur; 3-4	Rahimatpur;	Thu.	3–4	..	..	w.	Sl(pr).. pyt.; Cs(mp).: 6tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 24-0	Dhebewadi;	Tue.	8–0	..	..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 10–0	Local;	Sun.	..	Local	..	pl.	20Sl(17pr.: 3m).; 6cs.; 20tl.; 2M.; 6mq.; dg.; ch.; 4dh.; gym.; lib.; 27 dp. Throne of Shiv Chhatrapati, famous Fort and Mansions.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Sāṭhe : PHL. ; साठे	NE.; 11-0	3·5 ; 676 ; 121 ; 651.	Phaltan ; 5-0
Savāde ; KRD. ; सवादे	SW.; 14-0	3·3 ; 2073 ; 395 ; 1033.	Ond ; 3-0
Sāvaḷī ; JVL. ; सांवळी	W.; 2-0	0·8 ; 436 ; 88 ; 436.	Medha ; 2-0
Sāvalī ; STA. ; सावली	N., 14-0	.. 262 ; 65 ; 223.	.. ..
Sāvaraṭ ; JVL. ; सावरट	S.; 22-0	1·5 ; 121 ; 27 ; 121.	Medha ; 29-0
Sāvarī ; JVL. ; मावरी	S.; 9-0	0·8 ; 94 ; 24 ; 94.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 1-4
Sāveraghar ; PTN. ; सावेरघर	.. ..	0·2 ; 378 ; 77 ; 378.	Taralo ; 11-0
Sāyagāṅv ; JVL. ; सायगांव	E.; 11-0	1·5 ; 1420 ; 284 ; 1053.	Local ..
Sāyagāṅv ; STA. ; सायगांव	NW.; 8 0	2·3 ; 766 ; 180 ; 669.	Kanher ; 1-0
Sayaghar ; JVL. ; नायघर	NW.; 16-0	0·5 ; 135 ; 20 ; 135.	Pancha-gani ; 1-4
Sāyali ; JVL. ; सायली	S.; 7 0	0·8 ; 95 ; 20 ; 95.	Medha ; 6-0
Sāyalī ; STA. ; सायली	W.; 10 0	1·8 ; 392 ; 86 ; 384.	Parali ; 4-0
Sayāpūr ; KRD. ; सयापूर	E.; 4 0	0·5 ; 92 ; 10 ; 50	Ogalewadi ; 2-0
Śeḷake Vāḍi ; STA. ; शेळकेवाडी	S.; 5 0	1·8 ; 300 ; 80 ; 365.	Satara ; 4-0
Śembaḍī Mauje ; JVL. ; शेंबडी मौजे	.. ..	0·3 ; 150 ; 32 ; 141.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 3-0
Śenavāḍi ; KTV. ; शेनवाडी	S.; 12 0	3·0 : 754 ; 148 ; 717.	Mhasurne ; 3-0
Śenāvaḍī ; MAN ; शेनावडी	SE. ; 30 0	0·3 ; 642 ; 137 ; 584.	Mhaswad ; 12-0
Śendre ; STA. ; शेंद्रे	S.; 5-0	2·8 ; 918 ; 188 ; 857.	Local ..
Śendurajaṇe ; KRG. ; शेदुरजणे	N.; 7-0	2·5 ; 618 ; 113 ; 508.	Kinhi ; 2-0
Śendūrajaṇe ; WAI; शेंदूरजणे	SE.; 2-0	4·8 ; 1444 ; 266 ; 987.	Wai ; 2-0
Śeṇoli ; KRD. ; शेणोली	SE. ; 15-0	4·0 ; 2110 416 ; 1597.	Local ..
Śere ; KRD.; शेरे	S.; 12-0	5·3 ; 2312 ; 393 ; 1398.	Local ..
Śete ; JVL.; शेते	E ; 7-0	0·5 ; 193 ; 45 ; 191.	Kudal ; 2-0
Śevari ; MAN; शेवरी	E.; 4-0	7·3 ; 769 ; 157 ; 654.	Dahiwadi ; 4-0
Śindhī ; JVL.; शिंधी	W.; 20-0	3·3 ; 295 ; 50 ; 289.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 18-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Lonand; 17-0	Phaltan; Sun. 5-0	.. 5-0	rv.	Sl(pr.); 4tl.; mq.; ch.; lib.
Shenoli; 10-0	Mhasoli; Mon. 1-4	.. ..	w.; str.	Sl(pr.).; pyt.; Cs(mp); M,; 2gym. lib.
Satara; 28-0	Medha; Mon. 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Parali; 8-0	w.; rsr.	Sl(pr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad. 15.; tl.
Satara Rd.; 54-0	Medha; Mon. 29-0	Medha; 29-0	W.;n.	tl.
Satara Rd.; 34-0	Medha; Mon. 8-0	Medha; 9 0	spr.	2tl.
Karad; 22-0	Tarale; Sat. 11-0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr).; tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Anewadi; Fri. 1-4	.. ..	pl.	2Sl(pr;m).. pyt.; 3tl.; M.; gym.; lib., dp.
Satara Rd.; 18-0	Kanher; Tue. 1-0	Kanher; 0-2	rv.; w	2Sl (2pr.); Navalaidevi fr. Ct. Sud 2.; 4tl.; gym.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Humgaon 1-0	rsr.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	.. ..	rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 20-0	Parali; Mon. 4-0	Parali; 4-0	w.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.
Karad; 2-0	Karad; Thu. 2-0	.. ..	str.;	tl.
Satara Rd.; 14 0	Satara; Sun. 2-0	.. 4-0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; mq.; tl.; gym.
Padali; 35-0	Medha; Mon. 11 0	.. ..	..	pyt.
Rahimatpur; 20-0	Mhasurne; Tue 3-0	Mhasurne; 3-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Pir Ur. Vsk. Sud. 5.; 3tl.; dg. gym.
Koregaon: 63-0	Vaikute Malavadi. Fri. 3-0	Local; ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.; dh.
Satara Rd.; 16-0	Satara; Sun. 0-0	.. 0-3	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; Bapujideo fr. Ct Vad. 7.; 3tl.; mq.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon; 6-0	Kinhi; Fr 2-0	Satara Rd.; 6-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; 2tl.; mq.
Wathar; 19-0	Wai; Mon. 2-0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr); pyt; 4tl.; mq.; 2gym; ch; lib.
Local 1-0	Local; Sat. ..	Local ..	w.	3Sl(pr); pyt; 10tl.; M. mq.; gym.; 2lib; dp.
Shenoli; 1-0	Shenoli, Sat. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); pyt; 7tl; mq.; dh; lib.
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Kudal; Wed. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); tl; gym.
Koregaon; 39-0	Dahivadi, Mon. 4-0	Dahivadi; 4-0	W.	Sl(pr); Cs(c); 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 48-0	Medha; Sun. 22-0	Medha; 22-0	W.; rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Śindi Bk.; MAN; शिंदी बु॥ ..	.. ..	0·5 ; 608 ; 112 ; 585.	Mahimangad ; 3–0
Śindi Kh.; MAN; शिंदी खुर्द ..	NW.; 10–1	5·5 ; 831 ; 173 ; 607.	Malavadi ; 2–4
Śindoḷā ; MBR.; शिंदोळा ..	W.; 5–0	1·5 ; 84 ; 16 ; 30.	Mahabaleshwar ; 3–0
Śiṅgaṇāpūr ; MAN; शिंगणापूर ..	N. ; 13–0	5·8 ; 1145 ; 257 ; 739.	Dahivadi ; 7–0
Śiraḍhoṇ ; KRG. ; शिरढोण ..	W. ; 2 4	4·3 ; 1081 ; 314 ; 1420.	Local ..
Śiragāṅv ; KRD.; शिरगांव ..	N.; 15 0	3·5 ; 1076 ; 207 ; 1001.	Indoli ; 2–0
Śiragāṅv ; WAI ; शिरगांव ..	E. ; 10 4	4·8 ; 1357 ; 271 ; 1015.	Local ..
Śiraḷ ; PTN.; शिरळ ..	W. ; 5 4	3·8 ; 700 ; 140 ; 684.	Patan ; 5–0
Śirambe ; KRG. शिरंबे .	S ; 3–0	1·8 ; 1063 ; 213 ; 1038.	Koregaon ; 4–0
Śiranār ; JVL.; शिरनार ..	W.; 21 0	1·0 ; 70 ; 15 ; 70.	Mahabaleshwar ; 8 0
Śirasavaḍi ; KTV.; शिरसवडी ..	S.; 7 0	6·8 ; 1594 ; 324 ; 1460.	Aundh ; 7–0
Śiraśiṅge ; PTN ; शिरशिंगे ..	E. ; ..	7·3 ; 146 ; 40 ; 146.	Helwak ; 16–0
Śiratāv ; MAN ; शिरताव ..	SE.; 20–0	7·0 ; 295 ; 67 ; 240.	Mhaswad ; 3–0
Śiravaḍe ; KRD.; शिरवडे ..	N ; 7–0	2·0 ; 1578 ; 289 ; 1371.	Local ..
Śiravaḷ ; KDL. ; शिरवळ ..	SE. ; 7–0	11·5 ; 4587 ; 1057 ; 2480.	Local ..
Śiravali ; MBR. ; शिरवली ..	W.; 7–0	1·5 ; 124 ; 33 ; 110.	Mahabaleshwar. 7–0
Śiravali ; MAN ; शिरवली ..	NW. ; 12–0	2·3 ; 618 ; 123 ; 548.	Malavadi ; 4–0
Śivaḍe ; KRD.; शिवडे ..	N.; 9 4	1·8 ; 1078 ; 198 ; 899.	Umbraj. 0–2
Śivandeśvar ; PTN.; शिवंदेश्वर ..	W.; 16–0	0·3 ; 94 ; 25 ; 72.	Helwak ; 1–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Koregaon; 30-0	Mahimangad; Wed. 3-0	Dahivadi; 5-0	..	Cs(c).
Koregaon; 26-0	Malavadi; Sun. 2-4	Dahivadi; 10-0	rv.; W	Sl(pr); pyt.; 4tl., ch.
Wathar; 40-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 3-0	Mahabaleshwar. 5-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 53-0	Local Mon. ..	Local ..	..	2Sl(pr;m).; pyt.; Mahadeo fr Mg. Sud. 14.; Mahadeo fr. Ct Sud 5.; 5tl; 4M.: mq.; 11dh.; lib.; 5Ch.
Koregaon 3-0	Koregaon; Mon. 3-0	Koregaon; 2-4	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 5tl.; mq.; ch.
Masur; 6-0	Indoli; Fri. 2-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.
Wathar; 10-0	Bhuinj; Sat. 2-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; bh.; dp.
Masur; 45-0	Patan; Mon. 5-0	.. ..	rv	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon; 4-0	Koregaon; Mon. 4-0	Local ..	w; n	Sl(pr); pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 42-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 8-0	Mahabaleshwar. 8-0	rv.	tl.
Rahimatpur; 19-0	Aundh; Tue. 7-0	Gopuj. 3-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt., 3tl.; lib.
Karad; 53-0	Helwak; Wed. 16-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); tl
Koregaon 54-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 3-0	Mhaswad; 3-0	W.; n.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Local ..	Local Fri. ..	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl., gym.; ch.; lib.
Lonand; 17-0	Local; Fri. ..	Local ..	rv.;w.;W	3Sl(pr;m,h).; 4Cs(mp; 3mis).; Avabai fr. Vsk.; Sud. 3.; Pir Ur. Ct. Sud. 13.; 18tl.; M.; mq.. dg.; gym.; ch.; lib. Caves, Carvings.
Wathar; 45-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 7-0	Mahabaleshwar. 7-0	rv.; w.	2tl.
Koregaon; 18-0	Malavadi; Sun. 4-0	Dahivadi; 12-0	W.	Sl(pr).; 7tl.
Masur, 3-0	Umbraj; Mon. 0-2;	Umbraj; 0-4	rv.; w.	2Sl(2pr); pyt., Cs(mp).; 5tl.; dh; gym.; ch.
Karad; 34-0	Helwak; Wed. 1-0	Helwak 3-0	str.	tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Śivathar ; STA.; शिवथर ..	N.; 6–0	2.8 ; 786 ; 166 ; 710.	Waduth ; 2–0
Sokāsan ; MAN ; सोकासन ..	NE. ; 10–0	6.0 ; 670 ; 139 ; 600.	Dahivadi ; 6–0
Soḷaśī ; KRG. ; सोळशी ..	NW.; 27–0	4.0 ; 987 ; 165 ; 938.	Sonake ; 5–0
Somaṇathaḷī ; PHL. ; सोमणथळी ..	.. 5–0	3.8 ; 908 ; 178 ; 853.	Phaltan ; 5–0
Somarḍī ; JVL.; सोमर्डी ..	N.; 9–0	1.5 ; 266 ; 48 ; 260.	Kudal ; 2–0
Sonadarī ; JVL. ; सोनदरी ..	W.; 1–8	1·8; 381 ; 77 ; 378.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 6–0
Sonagāṅv ; JVL. ; सोनगांव ..	E.; 8–0	1.5 ; 784 ; 150 ; 758.	Kudal ; 2–0
Sonagāṅv ; PHL. ; सोनगांव ..	.. 8 0	2.8 ; 387 ; 173 ; 271.	Phaltan ; 8–0
Sonagāṅv S. Limb. STA. ; सोनगांव स. लिंब ..	E.; 6–0	2 8 ; 750 ; 143 ; 606.	Kshetra Mahuli ; 1–0
Sonagāṅv Tarf Sātārā ; STA. ; सोनगांव तर्फ सातारा ..	S.; 3 0	2.8 ; 1006 ; 169 ; 946.	Satara ; 3–0
Sonake ; KRG. ; सोनके ..	NW ; 23–0	2 8 ; 1029 ; 355 ; 1629.	Local ..
Sonāpūr ; STA. ; सोनापूर ..	.. ..	2.8 : 786 ; 166 ; 703	Padali ; 1–0
Sonāṭ ; JVL. ; सोनाट ..	W.; 11-0	1.3 ; 156 ; 35 ; 140.	Mahabaleshwar ; 7–0
Sonavaḍe ; PTN. ; सोनवडे ..	S.; 6-0	5.0 ; 2518 ; 544 ; 2219.	Local ..
Sonavaḍī ; STA. ; सोनवडी ..	W.; 4–0	0.8 ; 576 ; 95 ; 481.	Parali ; 2–2
Sonavaḍī Bk. , PHL. ; सोनवडी बु।। ..	E.; 5–0	1.5 ; 341 ; 69 , 298.	Phaltan ; 4–0
Sonavaḍī Kh. ; PHL. ; सोनवडी खुर्द ..	E.; 5-0	2.0 ; 238 ; 46 ; 224.	Phaltan ; 8-0
Sukheḍ ; KDL. ; सुखेड ..	E.; 8-4	3 9 ; 647 ; 130 ; 647.	Lonand ; 6-0
Sundarapūr ; KTV. . सुंदरपूर	SE.; 4-4	.. ..	Deserted. ..
Supane ; KRD. ; सुपने ..	N.; 5–0	3.0 ; 2334 ; 404 ; 2259.	Local , ..
Suravāḍī ; PHL. ; सुरवाडी ..	W.; 7–0	4.0 ; 1116 ; 206 ; 936.	Sakharwadi; 2–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 4-0	Waduth; Sat. 2-0	Local ..	w.	Sl(m); 5tl; mq; gym. ch; lib; Kailas Hill.
Koregaon; 42-0	Vavarhire; Sat 2-0	Dahivadi; 10-0	w.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Wathar; 12-0	Wagholi; Sat 7 0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr); pyt; tl; gym.
Lonand; 17-0	Phaltan Sun. 5-0	Phaltan 5-0	W.; w.	2Sl(pr;h).; cs.; 2tl.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 25 0	Humgaon; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	W; w	Sl(pr); pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 36-0	Medha; Mon. 10 0	.. ..	W	Sl(pr).; pyt.
Wathar; 18-0	Kudal; Wed. 2-0	Kudal; 3-6	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; M.
Lonand; 28-0	Phaltan; Sun. 8-0	Phaltan 8-0	w.	Sl(pr).; tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 5-0	Satara; Sun 5-0	.. 1-2	rv.	3Sl(3pr).; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud 9; 7tl; M.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 13-0	Satara; Sun. 3 0	.. 3 0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; 2tl.; ch.; lib.
Wathar; 6-0	Pimpode Bk.; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	w., rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 15tl.; mq; gym.; ch., lib.
Targaon; 8-0	Nagthane; Tue. 4-0	.. ..	o.	Sl(pr); 2tl.; gym.
Satara; 37-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 7 0	.. ..	..	Sl(pr).
Karad; 24-0	Sulewadi; Sun. 1 0	.. ..	W.; rv.	3Sl(2pr;h).; pyt.; Cs(c)., Ganesh fr. Bdp. Sud. 11.; Navalai fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 9tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 16 0	Parali; Mon. 2-2	. 1-0	w.; str.	Sl(pr); tl.
Lonand; 19-0	Phaltan; Sun. 4 0	.. 0-2	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Lonand; 28-0	Phaltan; Sun. 8-0	Nearby ..	str.	1tl
Lonand; 6-0	Lonand; Thu. 6-0	.. 1-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 6.; 6tl.; gym., ch.; lib. tl.
Karad; 6-0	Tambave; Sat. 1 0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); pyt., Cs(c).; 4 tl; M.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.
Lonand; 10-0	Sakharwadi; Thu. 2-0	.. 0-4	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; Bhairavdeo fr. Ct. Vad. 14.; 5tl.; mq.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post office ; Distance.
Surli ; KRD. ; सुर्ली ..	W.; 8-0	4.5 ; 1275 ; 226 ; 1197.	Kadegaon; 4-0
Surli ; KRG. सुर्ली ..	S.; 11-0	2.5 ; 824 ; 177 ; 752.	Rahimat-pur ; 4-0
Surul ; PTN ; सुरूळ ..	N.; 1-0	0.8 ; 426 ; 72 ; 407.	Patan ; 1-0
Surur ; WAI ; सुरूर ..	E.; 7-0	4.8 ; 1781 ; 359 ; 1224.	Local ; ..
Tadavale ; KTV. ; तडवळे	NE.; 5-0	4.3 ; 1228 ; 212 ; 992.	Vaduj ; 5-0
Tadavale ; PHL. ; तडवळे ..	NW.; 11-0	3.3 ; 993 ; 223 ; 718.	Nimblak ; 1-0
Tadavale S. Koregānv ; KRG. ; तडवळे स. कोरेगांव	N.; 3-0	3.3 ; 1685 ; 308 ; 1469.	Satara Road. 3-0
Tadavale S. Wāgholi ; KRG. ; . तडवळे स. वाघोली.	N.; 20-0	7.8 ; 1218 ; 256 ; 1171.	Local ; ..
Ṭākalavade ; PHL. ; टाकळवडे ..	W.; 8-0	2.0 ; 503 ; 118 ; 461.	Nimblak ; 1-0
Ṭakale ; KRG. टकले ..	S.; 13-0	1.3 ; 543 ; 103 ; 319.	Koregaon ; 3-0
Ṭākavali ; JVL. ; टाकवली ..	S.; 20-0	1.5 ; 160 ; 38 ; 160.	Medha ; 22-0
Ṭākavali ; STA. ; टाकवली ..	W.; 13-0	1.0 ; 115 ; 28 ; 115.	Parali ; 0-0
Talabid ; KRD. ; तळबीड ..	N.; 7-4	6.0 ; 2201 ; 442 ; 2190.	Local ; ..
Taladev ; MBR. ; तळदेव ..	W.; 12-0	1.5 ; 145 ; 31 ; 114.	Mahabale-shwar ; 12-0
Ṭālagānv ; KRD. ; टाळगांव ..	.. ..	2.3 ; 870 ; 184 ; 810.	Ond ; 13-0
Taliye ; KRG. तळिये ..	N.; 18-0	3.0 ; 804 ; 166 , 817.	Deur ; 2-0
Taliye ; PTN. ; तळिये .	W.; 9-5	1.3 ; 206 ; 46 ; 206.	Helwak ; 4-0
Talośi ; JVL. ; तळोशी ..	W.; 9-0	0.8 ; 141 ; 25 ; 141.	Medha ; 9-0
Talośi · PTN. ; तळोशी ..	E., 25-0	2.0 ; 230 ; 50 ; 226.	Helwak ; 12-0
Tāmakade ; PTN. ; तामकडे ..	W.; 2-4	1.0 ; 433 ; 137 ; 168.	Patan ; 4-0
Tāmakane ; PTN. ; तामकणे ..	N.; 1-0	1.3 ; 274 ; 53 ; 274.	Patan ; 8-0
Tāmbave ; KRD. ; तांबवे ..	SW.; 8-0	8.3 ; 4383 ; 810 ; 3752.	Local ..
Tāmbave ; PHL. ; तांबवे ..	W.; 21-0	3.8 ; 1320 ; 266 ; 1194.	Lonand ; 4-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad; 4-0	Karad; Thu. 4-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.
Rahimatpur; 4-0	Rahimatpur; Thu. 4-0	Rahimatpur; 3-0	w.; n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Shri Jyotirling fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5tl; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.
Karad; 25-0	Patan; Mon. 1-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; gym.
Wathar; 17-0	Local Sun. ..	.. ..	w.	2Sl(pr;m).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 7tl.: 2M.; mq.; dh.; gym; ch.; lib.; 2dp.
Koregaon; 20-0	Vaduj; Sat. 5-0	Mandare; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand; 25-0	Nimblak Thu. 1-0	Bodakhan; 2-0	w.; cl.	2Sl(pr;m).: Bhairav fr. Ct. Sud. 8.; 5tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 3-0	Satara Rd.; Wed. 3-0	Koregaon; 3-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl.; M.; dg.; 2gym. ch.; lib.
Wathar; 2-0	Pimpode Bk.; Sun. 4-0	Wathar; 2-0	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(c)., 5tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Lonand; 25-0	Nimblak; Thu. 1-0	Pusad 2-0	W.	Cs(mp).; Padmadevi fr. Ct. Vad. 6.; 2tl. ch.
Targaon; 3-0	Koregaon; Mon. 3-0	.. ..	rv.; w.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 47-0	Medha: Mon. 22-0	Medha 20-0	W.	Sl (pr.);tl
Satara Rd.; 22-0	Parali; Mon. 0-0	Parali; 1-0	str.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Shiravade. 3-0	Shiravade; Fri. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2Cs(mp; mis).; 7tl.; M.; mq.; gym.; 2lib.; Fort.
Wathar; 46-0	Mahabaleshwar. Tue. 12-0	Mahabaleshwar. 13-0	spr.	Sl(pr.); tl.
Shenoli; 13-0	Nandgaon; Fri. 3-0	Local ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Wathar; 2-0	Deur: Tue 2-0	.. ..	n.; w.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.; ch.
Karad; 33-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	.. ..	..	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 25-0	Medha; Mon. 9-0	.. ..	pl; spr.	tl.
Karad; 40-0	Helwak; Wed 12-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); tl.
Karad; 20-0	Patan; Mon. 4-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); tl.
Masur; 13-0	Patan; Mon. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Karad; 10-0	Local; Sat. ...	.. ..	rv; W.	Sl(pr); pyt; Khadak Patra fr; 5tl; M; mq. 3gym; lib; dp.
Salpe; 2-0	Lonand; Thu. 4-0	... 0-3	str.; w	Sl(pr).; Cs(c).; 6tl., mq.; gym.; ch.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Tāmbi T. Meḍhā ; JVL. ; .. तांबी तर्फ मेढा	S.; 1–4	0·5 ; 80 ; 18 ; 77.	Medha ; 2–0
Tāmbi Kasabe ; JVL. ; तांबी कसबे	S.; 15–0	3·8 ; 346 ; 89 ; 280.	Medha ; 12–0
Tāmiṇe ; PTN. तामीणे ..	S.; 15–0	2·3 ; 381 ; 70 ; 380.	Helwak ; 7–0
Tāndulavāḍi ; KRG. ; तांदुळवाडी	W.; 5–0	2·3 ; 809 ; 180 ; 776.	Koregaon ; 5–0
Tapoḷe ; JVL. ; तपोळे ..	W.; 11–0	0·5 ; 61 ; 13 ; 61.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 4–0
Taraḍagāṅv ; PHL. ; तरडगांव ..	W.; 13–0	13·0 ; 4370 ; 861 ; 3472.	Local ..
Taraḍaph ; PHL. ; तरडफ ..	.. 10–0	4·5 ; 606 ; 133 ; 530.	Phaltan ; 10–0
Ṭāragāṇv ; KRG. ; तारगांव ..	S.; 15–0	9·0 ; 8677 ; 518 ; 3212.	Local ..
Tārale ; PTN. ; तारळे ..	NE.; 4–0	7·8 ; 3804 ; 661 ; 2323.	Local .
Tārukh ; KRD. ; तारूख ..	W.; 10–0	6·3 ; 2408 ; 512 ; 2226.	Shiravade ; 1–0
Tāsagāṅv ; STA. ; तासगांव ..	E.; 9–0	4·8 ; 2057 ; 422 ; 1621.	Local .
Tāsavaḍe ; KRD. ; तासवडे .	N.; 7–2	1·3 ; 598 ; 106 ; 596.	Ogalewadi ; 2–0
Tāṭhavaḍā ; PHL. ; ताठवडा ..	NW.; 12–0	11·0 ; 1002 ; 190 ; 800.	Phaltan ; 12–0
Tāvaḍi ; PHL. ; तावडी ..	SW.; 3–0	1·8 ; 100 ; 23 ; 90.	Phaltan ; 4–0
Tāyaghāṭ ; MBR.; तायघाट ..	E ; 10–0	0·5 ; 206 ; 34 ; 165.	Panchagani ; 1–0
Ṭekavali ; MBR. ; टेकवली ..	E ; 6–0	0·8 ; 98 ; 15 ; 88.	Mahabaleshwar ; 12–0
Ṭembhū ; KRD. ; टेंभू ..	SE ; 5–0	4·0 ; 1089 ; 193 ; 899.	Ond ; 3–0
Teṭali ; JVL. ; तेटली ..	SW.; 8–0	2·3 ; 439 ; 103 ; 439.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 1–0

Railway St. : Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.: 28–0	Medha ;	Mon.	2-0	Medha ;	2 0	n.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.: 37–0	Medha ;	Mon.	12 0	Medha ;	13 0	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Karad ; 41–0	Helwak ;	Wed.	7–0	Patan ;	15 0	spr.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon ; 5–0	Koregaon ;	Mon.	5-0	Tripuri ;	1 0	w.; n.	Sl(pr).; Koleshwar fr. Mg. Vad. 14.; 2tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; Koleshwar Temple.
Satara Rd.: 36–0	Medha ;	Mon.	10 0	Medha ;	11-0	rv.	2tl.
Lonand ; 4–0	Lonand	Thu.	4–0	Stage	..	w , W.	Sl(m).; Cs(o).; 5tl.; mq. 2gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Adarki ; 14–0	Phaltan ;	Sun.	10–0	..		W.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.; ch.
Local ..	Local ;	Mon.	..	Local	..	rv ; w.	9Sl(7pr;m., h).; pyt ; Cs (mp).; 6tl.; mq.; dh. gym.; ch.; lib ; 3dp.
Masur , 14–0	Local	Sat.	..	Local	..	w.; W.	4Sl(2pr ; m;h).; pyt.; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 6tl ; mq.; gym.; ch ; lib.; dp.
Shiravade ; 2–0	Shiravade ;	Fri.	1–0	.	..	W.	Sl(pr) ; Cs(mp).; gym.; lib.
Rahimatpur ;1-0	Bazar ;	Wed.	..	..	1 0	w.; rv.	3Sl(2pr;h).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15 ; 6tl.; mq.; ch ; lib.; 2dp.
Karad ; 2 0	Karad ;	Thu.	2–0	.	..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; dg.; gym.
Adarki ; 10–0	Phaltan	Sun.	12-0	..	0–2	w.	2Sl(2pr).; 11tl ; mq.; dh. Fort-Santoshgad.
Lonand ; 12–0	Phaltan ;	Sun.	4–0	.	3-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; ch.
Wathar ; 29-0	Wai ;	Mon.	9-0	Panchagani · 1-4		W ; spr.	Janni devi. Fr. 26th Jan.; tl.; gym.
Wathar ; 46–0	Mahabaleshwar ;	Tue.	12 0	Mahabaleshwar ;	0–0	W.	Sl(pr.).; tl.
Karad ; 18–0	Nandgaon ;	Fri.	3–4	..	..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Shri Jyotirling fr. Vak. Sud. 9.; mq.; 3tl ; gym ; lib.
Padali ; 32-0	Medha ;	Mon.	8-0	Medha ;	8–0	W.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Thaḍāḷe ; MAN. ; थडाळे ..	N.; 10–0	7·5 ; 999 ; 194 ; 910.	Dahivadi ; 10–0
Ṭhomase ; PTN. ; ठोमसे ..	E.; 12–0	2·8 ; 842 ; 178 ; 823.	Urul ; 1–0
Ṭhoseghar ; STA. ; ठोसेघर ..	S.; 13–0	6·3 ; 530 ; 125 ; 528.	Parali ; 6–0
Tirakavāḍi ; PHL. ; तिरकवाडी ..	E.; 6–0	1·8 ; 327 ; 69 ; 282.	Giravi ; 5–0
Ṭoḷevāḍi ; PTN. ; टोळेवाडी ..	W.; 3–1	1·0 ; 296 ; 78 ; 296.	Patan ; 3–0
Toṇḍaḷ ; KDL. ; तोंडळ ..	N.; 15–0	3·0 ; 621 ; 138 ; 594.	Shirwal ; 6–0
Toṇḍale ; MAN. ; तोंडले ..	N.; 13–0	6·5 ; 656 ; 134 ; 635.	Malavadi ; 6–0
Toṇḍośi ; PTN. ; तोंडोशी ..	.. ..	0·5 ; 299 ; 56 ; 269.	Tarale ; 8–0
Toraṇe ; PTN. ; तोरणे ..	W.; 20–0	4·0 ; 190 ; 42 ; 177	Helwak ; 3–0
Tripuḍi ; PTN. ; त्रिपुडी ..	SE.; 2–4	0·1 ; 641 ; 128 ; 639.	Patan ; 3 0
Trimāḷi ; KTV. ; त्रिमाळी ..	SW.; 13-0	3·8 ; 820 ; 162 ; 756.	Aundh ; 3–0
Tripuṭi ; KRG. त्रिपुटी ..	W.; 4–4	2·3 ; 488 ; 105 ; 456.	Koregaon ; 4–0
Tuḷasaṇ ; KRD. ; तुळसण ..	W.; 14–0	4·8 ; 1704 ; 338 ; 1050.	Local ; ..
Uccāṭ ; JVL. ; उच्चाट ..	W.; 21–0	4·5 ; 674 ; 151 ; 561.	Medha ; 16–0
Uḍatāre ; WAI ; उडतारे ..	S.; 10–0	2·8 ; 1711 ; 341 ; 1301.	Local ; ..
Udhavaṇe ; PTN. ; उधवणे ..	S.; 48–0	1·3 ; 338 ; 77 ; 338.	Dhebowadi ; 8–0
Ulumb ; WAI ; उलुंब ..	W.; 15–0	1·8 ; 217 ; 45 ; 217.	Mahabaleshwar ; 4–0
Umarakāñchan ; PTN. ; उमरकांचन	S.; 14–0	2·3 ; 1027 ; 209 ; 793.	Tembewadi ; 5–0
Umbarāḷe ; KTV. ; उंबराळे ..	NW.; 12–0	1·5 ; 361 ; 66 ; 343.	Khatav ; 3–0
Umbari ; JVL. ; उंबरी ..	N.; 9–0	1·0 ; 244 ; 51 ; 244.	Panchagani ; 4–0
Umbraj ; KRD. ; उंब्रज ..	N.; 10–0	5·3 ; 4507 ; 918 ; 2490.	Local ; ..
Uñchaṭhāṇe ; KTV. ; उंचठाणे ..	S.; 11–0	1·5 ; 360 ; 77 ; 359.	Pusesawali ; 1–4
Undāḷe ; KRD. ; उंदाळे ..	NE.; 12–0	2·0 ; 1341 ; 253 ; 1217.	Local ; ..
Upaḷi ; STA. ; उपळी ..	W.; 3–0	0·8 ; 175 ; 38 ; 157.	Satara ; 4–0
Upālve ; PHL. ; उपाल्वे ..	.. ..	9·0 ; 1013 ; 188 ; 990.	Giravi ; 5–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Koregaon; 50–0	Shingnapur; Mon. 3–0	Local ..	w.	2Sl(2pr).; Maskoba fr. Kt. Sud. 1.; 4tl.; gym.; 5Cch.
Masur, 10–0	Malharpeth; Wed. 5–0	Malharpeth; 3–0	W.; pl.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mis).; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 22–0	Parali; Mon. 6–0	Parali; 6–0	pl.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand; 18–0	Giravi; Sat. 5–0	.. ..	str.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp); 3tl.
Karad; 17–0	Patan; Mon. 3–0	.. ..	n.	tl.
Lonand; 10–0	Shirwal; Fri 6–0	.. 1–0	..	Sl(pr).; cs; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3tl.; gym.
Lonand; 30–0	Malavadi; Sun. 6–0	Mograle; 3–0	W.;w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; Hanuman fr. Ct Vad 8; 2tl.; ch'; lib.
Karad; 20–0	Tarale; Sat. 8–0	.. ..	w.; W.	Sl(pr); tl; ch.
Karad; 41–0	Helwak; Wed. 30–0	Helwak; 7–0	str.	2tl.
Karad; 17–0	Patan; Mon. 3–0	Adul; 3–0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Rahimatpur; 10–0	Local Tue. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr), pyt; Cs(mp).; 5tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 4–0	Koregaon Mon. 4–0	Koregaon 4–4	t.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Gopalnath fr. Srn. Vad. 8.; 3tl.; M.; gym.
Masur; 3–0	Local Mon. ..	.. ..	t.; w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; Cs(mp).; 4t.
Padali; 48–0	Medha; Mon. 16–0	Medha; 16–0	W.;	Sl(pr).; pyt; 3tl.; dp.
Wathar; 19–0	Panchwad; Tue. 2–0	.. ..	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; dh. gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Karad; 24–0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 8–0	Sanabur, 1–0	str	Sl(pr); 2tl.
Wathar; 35–4	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 4–0	Mahabaleshwar; 4–0	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Karad; 27–0	Tembewadi; Tue. 5–0	.. ..	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.; lib.
Koregaon; 13–0	Khatav; Tue. 3–0	.. ..	str.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Wathar; 33–0	Medha; Mon. 10–0	.. ..	n.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Shenoli; 12–0	Nandagaon, Fri. 1–0	Local ..	rv.	5Sl(3pr;m,h).; pyt.; 8tl. 2M.; mq., dg.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.; 4dp.
Rahimatpur; 18–4	Pusesawali; Wed. 2–0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.
Shenoli, 12–0	Local; Mon. ..	Local; ..	rv.;W.; w.	2Sl (pr;h).; pyt.; 7tl. dh.; lib; dp.
Satara Rd; 14–0	Satara; Sun. 4–0	.. 2–0	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Lonand; 18–0	Giravi; Sat. 5–0	Giravi; 5–0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; ch.; lib; dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Uruḷ ; PTN. ; उरुळ ..	E.; 10-0	0·4 ; 1251 ; 204 ; 1111.	Local ; ..
Vaḍagāṅv ; KDL. ; वडगाव ..	W.; 0-0	0·8 ; 440 ; 89 ; 402.	Shirwal ; 3-4
Vaḍagāṅv ; KTV. ; वडगांव ..	S.; 14 0	5·3 ; 2098 ; 352 ; 1544.	Local ; ..
Vaḍagāṅv ; MAN ; वडगाव ..	N.; 3 0	0·8 ; 711 ; 138 ; 608.	Malavadi ; 3-0
Vaḍagāṅv ; PHL. ; वडगांव ..	NW.; 17-9	1·8 ; 295 ; 61 ; 270.	Lonand ; 14-0
Vaḍagāṅv ; STA. ; वडगांव ..	W.; 12-0	0·8 ; 223 ; 40 ; 221.	Parali ; 0-0
Vaḍagāṅv Haveli ; KRD. ; वडगांव हवेली ..	SE.; 11-0	6·3 ; 3492 ; 578 ; 2931.	Indoli ; 2-0
Vaḍagāṅv Umbraj ; KRD. ; वडगांव उंब्रज ..	S.; 14-0	2·8 ; 901 ; 170 ; 755.	Masur ; 2-0
Vaḍajāl ; MAN ; वडजाल ..	SE.; 78-0	4·8 ; 750 ; 140 ; 655.	Kukudwad ; 2-0
Vaḍajāl ; PHL. ; वडजाल ..	.. 4-0	1·0 ; 191 ; 30 ; 172.	Phaltan ; 4-0
Vaḍakhaḷ ; KTV. ; वडखळ ..	W.; 8-0	1·2 ;	.. ..
Vaḍaḷe ; PHL. ; वडळे ..	E.; 8-0	7·0 ; 575 ; 120 ; 490.	Pimprad ; 3-0
Vaḍi ; KTV. ; वडी ..	SW.; 14-0	2·5 ; 840 ; 155 ; 718.	Aundh ; 3-0
Vāḍhe ; STA. ; वाढे .	N.; 3-0	0·8 ; 1027 ; 102 ; 980.	Khed . 1-0
Vāḍi Kotevaḍe ; PTN. ; वाडी कोतेवडे ..	SW.; 6-0	0·5 ; 407 ; 91 ; 401.	Morgiri ; 1-0
Vaḍoli ; WAI ; वडोली ..	W.; 14-0	1·0 ; 212 ; 44 ; 199.	Dhom ; 8-0
Vaḍoli Bhikeśvar ; KRD. ; वडोली भिकेश्वर ..	N.; 21-0	2·3 ; 835 ; 158 ; 714.	Ogalewadi ; 4-0
Vaḍoli Niḷeśvar ; KRD. ; वडोली निळेश्वर ..	NE.; 7-0	3·5 ; 1315 ; 214 ; 1235.	Ogalewadi ; 4-0
Vaḍūj ; KTV. ; वडूज ..	.. ..	23·0 ; 6838 ; 1310 ; 3901.	Local ; ..

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information
Masur; 9-0	Malharpeth; Wed. 4-0	.. .	str.;W.; w.	Sl(pr)., pyt.; Cs(c).: Bhimsen fr Bdp. Vad. 5.; 8tl.; dh.; 2gym.; lib.
Lonand: 20-0	Shirwal: Fri. 3-4	0-1	w.;n.;str.	Sl(pr).; Chamundadevi fr. Vak. Sud. 8.; 7tl. gym.; ch.
Rahimatpur; 15-0	Pusesawali; Wed. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.: 5tl.; 2M.; mq.; dg.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon; 42-0	Dahivadi: Mon. 3-0	Local ..	w.	Sl(pr).; Khandoba fr. Mrg. Vad. 15.; 2tl.
Adarki; 6-0	Adarki Bk.; Sat. 5-0	.. 2-0	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; Maruti fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; tl.
Satara Rd.: 22-0	Parali; Mon. 6-0	Parali; 4-0	rv.; w.	sl(pr).; 2tl.
Masur; 7-0	Indoli; Fri. 2-0	. ..	w.	2Sl (pr;h;).; Khandoba fr. Psh. Sud. 15.; tl.; 2gym.; 2lib.; dp.
Masur, 1-4	Masur; Wed. 2-0	.. ..	rv.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 2tl Dome.
Koregaon: 53-0	Kukudwad: Fri. 2-0	Kukudwad; 2-0	n.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).
Lonand; 13-0	Phaltan; Sun. 4-0	Phaltan; 1-0	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Deserted.	Deserted.	Deserted.		Deserted.
Lonand; 24-0	Phaltan Sun. 7-0	Stage Nearby ..	str.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; 2tl.; ch.
Rahimatpur 12-0	Pusesawali; Wed. 3-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; 4tl.; mq.; dg.
Satara Rd; 8-0	Satara; Sun. 3-0	Local ..	rv.	Sl(m); Cs(c).; Shri Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 5.; 4tl.; gym.; lib.
Karad; 26-0	Morgiri; Thu. 1-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Wathar: 35-0	Wai; Mon. 14-0	.. .	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; tl
Karad; 4-0	Karad; Thu. 8-0	. ..	rv.	Sl(pr); Cs(mp); 5tl; dh. gym; lib.
Karad; 4-0	Karad; Thu. 8-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr); pyt.; 2tl; dh. gym; lib.
Koregaon; 23-0	Local Sat. ..	Local .	rv.	3Sl(2pr;h), pyt; 3Cs (mp; sp, fc); Shri Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.. 16tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; gym. ch.; lib.; 5dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Vadūth ; STA. ; वडूथ ..	E.; 6-0	2·8 ; 1292 ; 244 ; 1103 ;	Local ; ..
Vāgadare ; JVL ; वागदरे ..	SW.; 5-0	0·8 ; 345 ; 72 ; 317.	Medha ; 4-0
Vāghalī ; JVL ; वाघली ..	S.; 13-0	1·3 ; 120 ; 29 ; 116.	Medha ; 4-0
Vāghaṇe ; PTN. ; वाघणे ..	.. ..	2·3 ; 85 ; 18 ; 85.	Helwak ; 11-0
Vāgherī ; KRD. ; वाघेरी ..	NE.; 6-0	5·3 ; 1428 ; 270 ; 937.	Local ; ..
Vāgheśvar ; JVL. ; वाघेश्वर ..	E.; 4-4	1·3 ; 629 ; 127 ; 501.	Medha ; 5-0
Vāgholī ; KRG. ; वाघोली ..	.. 21-0	13·3 ; 4212 ; 470 ; 2749.	Local ; ..
Vāghośī ; KDL. ; वाघोशी ..	E.; 10-0	3·0 ; 319 ; 66 ; 279.	Andori ; 1-4
Vāghośī ; PHL. ; वाघोशी ..	NW.; 16-0	1·8 ; 281 ; 50 ; 223.	Lonand ; 14-0
Vahāgāṅv ; JVL. ; वहागांव ..	N.; 15-0	0·8 ; 335 ; 70 ; 309.	Pancha-gani ; 5-0
Vahāgāṅv ; KRD. ; वहागांव ..	N.; 4-4	2·5 ; 1507 ; 270 ; 1047.	Belavade Bk.; 2-0
Vahāgāṅv ; WAI ; वहागांव ..	E.; 8-4	1·3 ; 389 ; 77 ; 284.	Surur ; 1-0
Vahiṭe ; JVL. ; वहिटे ..	W.; 11-0	0·3 ; 64 ; 15 ; 64.	Mahabale-shwar ; 6-0
Vāi ; WAI. ; वाई ..	Hq.; ..	1·3 ; 16099; 3044; 4786.	Local ; ..
Vajarośī ; PTN. ; वजरोशी ..	N.; 33-0	4·3 ; 1093 ; 224 ; 1050 ;	Tarale ; 3-0
Vājegāṅv ; PTN. ; वाजेगांव ..	W.; 20-0	0·1 ; 836 ; 174 ; 833.	Helwak ; 5-0
Vākeśvar ; KTV. ; वाकेश्वर ..	W.; 3-0	3·3 ; 953 ; 187 ; 853.	Vaduj ; 3-0
Vākharī ; PHL. ; वाखरी ..	NW.; 8-0	6·3 ; 905 ; 174 ; 860.	Phaltan ; 7-0

Railway St. ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 4-0	Bazar ; Sat. ..	Stage on Satara Rd.; ..	rv.;w.	Sl(m).; Cs(c).; 6tl.; 2dp.; (Vet ; mat).
Satara Rd.: 30-0	Medha , Mon. 4-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr)., 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd.; 30-0	Medha ; Mon. 4-0	Medha ; 13-0	..	tl.
Karad ; 54-0	Helwak ; Wed. 11-0	.. ..	..	tl.
Karad ; 3-0	Karad ; Thu. 7-0	.. ..	w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; mq.; dg.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 21-0	Medha ; Mon. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Hanuman fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 2tl.; gym.; lib.
Wathar ; 4-0	Local Sat. ..	Wathar ; 4-0	w.; W.	2Sl(pr;h).; pyt.; 3Cs. (2c; mp).; Shri Ram fr. Ct. Sud ; 0.; 8tl.; dh.; 5gym.; 4lib.
Lonand ; 6-0	Lonand ; Thu. 6-0	.. 2-0	w.;W.	Sl(pr).; Cs(gr).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; tl.
Adarki ; 7-0	Lonand ; Thu. 14-0	.. 5-0	w.	Sl(pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4tl.; gym.
Wathar ; 30 0	Humgaon ; Sun. 1-0	Panchagani; 3 0	pl.; W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Shiravade ; 2-0	Shiravade ; Fri. 2-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; mq.; gym.
Wathar ; 17-0	Surur ; Sun. 1-0	Surur ; 1-4	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Vadjai fr. Mg. Vad. 9. dg.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.: 39-0	Mahabaleshwar Tue. 6-0	.. ..	spr.; rv.	tl.
Wathar ; 16-0	Local Mon. ..	Local ..	w.;n.;rv.	11Sl(8pr).; Tr. clg., 65tl.; M.; 4mq.; 6dg.; 4dh. 3gym.; ch.; lib.
Targaon , 8-0	Tarale ; Sat. 2-0	.. ..	W.	3Sl(2pr;h).; Vakoba fr. Ct. Sud. 5., Bahiroba fr. Ct. Sud. 8.; Vakoba fr. Mg. Sud.; 13 ; 7tl.; gym.
Karad , 41-0	Helwak ; Wed. 5-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon ; 21-0	Vaduj ; Sat. 3-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 2tl.; gym.
Lonand ; 16-0	Phaltan ; Sun. 7-0	.. ..	str.	Sl(pr).: Cs(c).; Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 8.; 6tl.; ch.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Vāki ; JVL. ; वाकी	W.; 8-0	1.3 ; 223 ; 53 ; 102.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 6-0
Vāki ; MAN ; वाकी ..	NE.; 16 0	3.8 ; 182 , 32 ; 121.	Mhaswad ; 4 0
Vuḷai ; MAN ; वळई ..	S.; 25-0	8.3 ; 687 ; 140 ; 600.	Kukudwad; 6-0
Vāḷuṇe ; JVL. ; वाळणे ..	W., 15 0	0.3 ; 397 ; 87 ; 397.	Bamnoli Kasabe, 6-0
Vāḷañjavāḍi ; JVL. ; वाळंजवाडी ..	W.: 9 0	0.3 ; 121 ; 27 ; 121.	Medha ; 9-0
Vaḷase ; STA. ; वळसे ..	S.: 6-0	1.8 ; 368 ; 85 ; 352.	Padali : 1 2
Valavaṇ ; JVL. ; वलवण ..	W.: 28 0	4.8 ; 190 ; 41 ; 196.	Bamnoli Kasabe, 14 0
Vāluth ; JVL. ; वालुथ ..	S.: 12-0	1.8 ; 1165 ; 244 ; 860.	Local -
Vanagūḷ ; STA. ; वनगूळ ..	E.: 12 0	1.3 ; 514 ; 103 ; 461.	Limb ; 2-0
Vānavali T. Āṭegānv ; JVL. ; वानवली तर्फ आटेगांव ..	W.; 14-0	0.8 ; 170 ; 43 ; 167.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 5-0
Vānavali T. Solaśe ; JVL. ; वानवली तर्फ सोळशी ..	W.: 12 0	0.8 ; 190 ; 59 ; 148.	Bamnoli Kasabe: 2-0
Vanavāsamāchi ; KRD. ; वनवासमाची ..	N. 3-4	2.3 ; 933 ; 180 ; 765.	Karad ; 3-0
Vañzoḷe ; PTN. , वांझोळे ..	W.: 10-0	1.8 ; 241 ; 65 - 240.	Helwak ; 4 0
Vañzoḷi ; KTV. : वांझोळी ..	S.: 13-0	2.8 ; 523 ; 96 ; 517.	Pusesawali ; 6 0
Varāḍe ; KRD. ; वराडे ..	N.: 8-0	1.8 ; 498 ; 101 ; 479.	Umbraj ; 2-0
Varakhaḍavāḍi ; WAI ; वरखडवाडी ..	W.: 4 0	1.3 ; 559 ; 107 ; 530.	Wai ; 3-4
Varakuṭe Malavaḍi ; MAN ; वरकुटे मलवडी ..	SE.; 26-0	26.0 2971 ; 572 ; 2100.	Mhaswad ; 9-0
Varakuṭe Mhasvaḍ ; MAN ; वरकुटे म्हसवड ..	SE.: 10-0	8.0 ; 1010 ; 221 ; 888.	Mhaswad; 4-0
Vārasoḷi Dev. ; JVL. ; वारसोळी देव ..	W.: 7-4	0.5 ; 177 ; 40 ; 177.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 7-0
Vārasoḷi Koḷi ; JVL. ; वारसोळी कोळी ..	W.; 6-0	0.8 ; 107 ; 22 ; 89.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 6-0
Vardhangaḍ ; KTV. ; वर्धनगड ..	W.; 16-0	0.5 ; 1080 ; 325 ; 1490	Pusegaon ; 3-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	Medha; 7-0	n.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Koregaon; 30-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 4-0	Divad; 2-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Koregaon; 50-0	Kukudwad; Fri. 6-0	Kukudwad; 3-0	w.; n.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Satara Rd.; 38-0	Medha; Mon. 12-0	Medha; 12-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Satara Rd.; 35-0	Medha; Mon. 9 0	.. ..	pl.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 17-0	Nagthane; Tue. 4-0	.. 0-2	w.	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.
Satara Rd., 48-0	Medha; Mon. 20-0	Medha; 28-0	W.; rv.	2tl.
Satara Rd.; 30 0	Humgaon; Sun. 1-4	Humgaon; 2-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.
Satara Rd.; 5-0	Limb; Sun. 2-0	Limb; 2-4	rv.	Sl(pr).; Maruti fr. Vak. Sud. 3.; 3tl.; gym.; lib.
Satara Rd.; 37-0	Medha; Mon. 11-0	Medha; 14-0	w.; rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 33-0	Medha; Mon. 7-0	Medha; 7-0	..	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Shirsvade; 3-0	Karad; Thu. 3-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; mq.; gym.
Karad; 32-0	Helwak; Wed. 4-0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur; 18-0	Pusesawali; Wed. 6-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Shri Gajanan fr. Bdp. Vad 4; 2tl.; gym.
Masur; 3-4	Umbraj; Mon. 2 0	.. ..	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Wathar; 24-4	Wai; Mon. 3-4	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.;
Koregaon; 60-0	Local Fri. ..	Local; ..	w.	Sl.(pr.); pyt.; 6tl.; M.; dg.; dh.; ch.; 2lib.; dp.
Koregaon; 39-0	Mhaswad; Wed. 4-0	Mhaswad; 4-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; 3tl.; ch.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	Medha; 7-4	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Satara Rd.; 32-0	Medha; Mon. 6-0	Medha; 6-0	spr.	tl.
Koregaon; 8-0	Pusegaon Sun. 3-0	Local; ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl; mq.; gym.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Varṇe ; STA. ; वर्णे ..	E.; 13-3	6.2 ; 2249 ; 376 ; 1958.	Angapur Tarf Vandan ; 1-2
Vārośi ; JVL. ; वारोशी ..	W.; 7-0	0.8 ; 477 ; 104 , 414.	Bamnoli Kasabe ; 7-0
Varuḍ ; KTV. ; वरुड ..	S.; 6-0	4.8 ; 1201 ; 208 ; 1190.	Local ..
Vārugaḍ ; MAN ; वारुगड ..	SW.; 16-0	7.5 ; 880 ; 190 ; 872.	Mhaswad ; 6-0
Vāruñji ; KRD. ; वारुंजी ..	W.; 1-0	2.3 ; 1381 ; 190 ; 1260.	Karad ; 1-0
Varye ; STA. ; वर्ये ..	N.; 4-0	3.3 ; 964 ; 238 ; 720.	Satara ; 4-0
Vasantagaḍ ; KRD. ; वसंतगड ..	N.; 3-4	2.8 ; 1417 ; 208 ; 1205.	Supane ; 1-0
Vāśivali ; WAI ; वाशिवली ..	W.; 16-0	1.3 ; 374 ; 91 ; 372.	Dhom ; 6-0
Vāsole ; WAI ; वासोले ..	W.; 12-0	3.8 ; 765 ; 180 ; 704.	Dhom ; 5-0
Vāsoṭā ; JVL. ; वासोटा ..	W., 14-0	1.5 ; 156 ; 38 ; 156.	Medha ; 10-0
Vasti Sākurḍi ; KRD. ; वस्ती साकुर्डी ..	W.; 7-0	1.8 ; 664 ; 142 ; 630.	Karad ; 7-0
Vāṭambe ; JVL. ; वाटंबे ..	W.; 9-0	0.8 ; 97 ; 25 ; 97.	Mahabaleshwar ; 8-0
Vāṭhār ; KRD. ; वाठार ..	S.; 7-0	2.5 ; 1511 ; 176 ; 1274.	Kale ; 2-0
Vāṭhār ; PHL. ; वाठार ..	W.; 5-0	8.3 ; 1500 ; 300 ; 931.	Phaltan ; 4-0
Vāṭhār Bk. ; KDL. ; वाठार बु॥ ..	NE.; 11-0	4.8 ; 648 ; 137 ; 590.	Andori ; 5-0
Vāṭhār (kiroḷi) ; KRG. ; वाठार (किरोळी) ..	S., 14-0	6.3 ; 2555 ; 522 ; 2132.	Local ..

Railway St. ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Bazar Day ; Distance.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Rahimatpur ;	4-2	Angapur T. Vandan ;	Sat.	1-2	Borgaon Nagthane ;	4-0	str.; pl.	Sl(pr).; Cs.; Bahirideo fr. Phg. Vad. 10.; 5tl.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Satara Rd. ;	30-0	Medha ;	Mon.	10-0	..	..	W.; rv.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Rahimatpur. ;	13-0	Aundh ;	Tue.	4-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; mq.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 2Coh.;
Lonand ;	22-0	Malavadi ;	Sun.	0-0	Kulakjai;	5-0	rsr.; W.; w.;	pyt.; Nath fr. Ct. Sud. 8. 3tl.; M.; Fort.
Karad ;	4-0	Karad ;	Thu.	1-0	Karad ;	1-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; Vetal fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; 3tl.; dh.; gym.
Satara Rd. ;	14-0	Satara ;	Sun.	4-0	Stage nearby..		rv. ;w	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Karad ;	6-0	Karad ;	Thu.	6-0	..	..	w.	Sl(pr).; Cs(mp).; 2tl.; gym.
Wathar ;	33-0	Wai ;	Mon.	12-0	..	..	rv.	tl.
Wathar ;	35-0	Wai ;	Mon.	11-0	..	..	W.; n.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd. ;	32-0	Medha ;	Mon.	10-0	Medha ;	14-0	rv.	tl.
Karad ;	10-0	Karad ;	Thu.	7-0	..	..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd. ;	36-0	Mahabaleshwar.	Tue.	8-0	..	..	spr.; rv.	2tl.
Karad ;	21-0	Kale ;	Thu.	2-0	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; M.; mq.; dh.; gym.; lib.
Lonand ;	14-0	Phaltan ;	Sun.	4-0	..	0-5	W.; w.	Sl(m).; Maruti fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; mq.; ch.
Lonand ;	6-0	Lonand ;	Thu.	8-0	Local.	..	rv.; t.	3Sl (2pr.; m).; cs. Bhairavnath fr. Ct. Vad. 7.; 4tl.; dh.; gym.; 2llib.; dp., Pyramid type Dam on Nira River.
Local ;	..	Deur ;	Tue.	3-0	Local ;	..	w.; W.	3Sl (pr.; m.; h).; pyt.; Cs(c).; Yamaidevi fr.; Krt. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; mq.; 2 gym.; ch.; lib.; 2dp.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Devanagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Vāṭhār Station ; KRG. ; वाठार (स्टेशन) ..	N.; 18-0	.. ..	.. ..
Vāṭoḷe ; PTN. ; वाटोळे ..	NW. 11-3	3.8; 477; 105; 477.	Patan; 11-0
Vāvadare ; STA. ; वावदरे ..	S.; 11-0	0.8; 242; 50; 232.	Satara; 10-0
Vāvarahire ; MAN ; वावरहिरे ..	N.; 8-0	11.0; 2415; 382; 2128.	Dahivadi; 7-0
Vayagāṅv ; WAI ; वयगांव ..	W.; 13-0	1.3; 380; 77; 380.	Mahabaleshwar; 5-0
Vāzoḷi ; PTN. ; वाझोळी ..	.. ..	1.8; 241; 65; 240.	Dhebewadi; 4-0
Vechaḷe ; STA. ; वेचळे ..	S.; 0-2	2.8; 1182; 247; 880.	Shendre; 0-1
Velaṅg ; WAI ; वेलंग ..	W.; 7-0	2.8; 910; 168; 704.	Dhom; 1-0
Veḷāpūr ; JVL. ; वेळापूर ..	W.; 17-0	1.3; 334; 92; 304.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 7-0
Veḷe ; JVL. ; वेळे ..	S.; 25-0	8.5; 600; 148; 607.	Medha; 25-0
Veḷe ; WAI ; वेळे ..	NE.; 9-0	5.8; 1372; 282; 1131.	Surur; 2-0
Veḷośī ; PHL. ; वेळोशी ..	.. 16-0	3.5; 180; 38; 179.	Phaltan; 16-0
Veḷū ; KRG. ; वेळू ..	SE.; 8-0	6.3; 1186; 225; 1095.	Rahimatpur; 5-0
Venegāṅv ; STA. ; वेणेगांव ..	SE.; 18-0	8.8; 2005; 415; 1665.	Local ..
Veṅgaḷe ; JVL. ; वेंगळे ..	W.; 10-0	1.8; 225; 53; 224.	Bamnoli Kasabe; 6-0
Veṭaṇe ; KTV. ; वेटणे ..	NW.; 15-0	1.5; 1370; 235; 1334.	Budh; 2-0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar: Bazar Day: Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Local; 0-4	W.; n.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 4tl.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.; 3dp.
Karad; 33-0	Patan; Mon. 11-0	.. ..	str.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Rahimatpur; 10-0	Satara; Sun. 10-0	.. ..	rsr.; p.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Koregaon; 46-0	Local; Sat. ..	Local; ..	n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp). Mahadeo fr. Phg. Vad; 11.; 2tl.; mq.; dh.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Wathar; 33-0	Mahabaleshwar; Tue. 5-0	Panchagani; 7-0	W.	Sl (pr).; 4tl.
Karad; 26-0	Dhebewadi; Tue. 4-0	Dhebewadi; 4-0	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.; ch.
Rahimatpur; 10-0	Satara; Thu. 6-0	Shendre-fata; 1-0	w.; n.	Sl (pr).); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9.; Cs (c).; 6tl.; gym.; ch.
Wathar; 27-0	Wai; Mon. 7-0	Local;	rv.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs (mp).; 3tl.; gym.; dp.
Satara Rd.; 7-0	Medha; Mon. 13-0	Medha; 14-0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd; 53-0	Medha; Mon. 28-0	Medha; 25-0	rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Lonand; 23-0	Surur; Sun. 2-0	Vele, 1-4	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(c).; 2tl.; dh.; ch.
Lonand; 20-0	Phaltan; Sun. 16-0	.. ..	W.; w.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Rahimatpur; 8-0	Rahimatpur; Thu. 5-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.; gym.
Targaon; 4-0	Atit; Fri. 5-0	Jawalwadi-pali; 3-4	rv.; W.	Sl (pr).; Cs (mp).; Padmawati fr. Ct. Vad. 1.; Malang Maharaj fr. Phg. Vad. 14; 3tl.; M.; dh.; gym.; ch.; lib.
Satara Rd; 36-0	Medha; Mon. 10-0	Medha; 10-0	W.; rv.	Sl (pr).; 3tl.
Koregaon; 15-0	Budh; Mon. 2-0	Budh; 1-4	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; Vadjai fr. Ct. Sud. 4.; 7tl.; gym.; lib.

Village name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agricultural population.	Post Office ; Distance.
Viḍaṇī ; PHL. ; विडणी ..	E.; 4–0	6·5 ; 2632 ; 468 ; 2236.	Phaltan ; 3–0
Vihe ; PTN. ; विहे ..	E.; 11–0	3·9 ; 1699 ; 347 ; 1629.	Local ..
Vikhaḷe ; KTV. ; विखळे ..	SE. ; 19–0	9·5 ; 1560 ; 207 ; 1452.	Kaledhon ; 2–0
Vikhaḷe ; KRG. ; विखळे ..	N.; 21–0	6·8 ; 1142 ; 224 ; 1084.	Deur ; 5–0
Viñcūrṇī ; PHL. ; विंचुर्णी ..	E.; 3–0	3·5 ; 311 ; 52 ; 292.	Giravi ; 3–0
Vinekhol ; STA. ; विनेखोल ..	W.; 14–0	1·0 ; 260 ; 71 ; 229.	Parali ; 5–0
Viṅg ; KRD. ; विंग ..	W.; 6–0	6·0 ; 2729 ; 471 ; 2550.	Local ..
Viramaḍe ; WAI ; विरमडे ..	S.; 14–0	1·3 ; 741 ; 151 ; 604.	Salgaon ; 2–0
Viravaḍe ; KRD. ; विरवडे ..	W ; 4–0	1·5 ; 815 ; 142 ; 416.	Karad ; 1–0
Viśāpūr ; KTV. ; विशापूर ..	W ; 13–0	8·8 ; 2778 ; 565 ; 2411.	Local ..
Vivar T. Kuḍāḷ ; JVL. ; विवर तर्फ कुडाळ ..	NW.; 15–4	1·0 413 ; 91 ; 407.	Pancha-gani. 4–0
Viṅg ; KDL. ; विंग ..	SW.; 12–0	9·3 ; 2209 ; 418 ; 2044.	Local ..
Viraḷī ; MAN ; विरळी ..	SE.; 30–0	11·0 1176 ; 271 ; 1148.	Kukud-wad ; 5–0
Vivar ; MBR. ; विवर ..	S.; 9–0	1·0 ; 118 ; 27 ; 117.	Mahabale-shwar ; 10–0
Mouje Veḷe ; STA. ; मौजे वेळे ..	NW.; 10–0	2 5 ; 1155 ; 210 ; 1093	Kanher : 3–0
Vyahāḷī ; WAI ; व्यहाळी ..	W.; 5–0	1·3 ; 355 ; 85 ; 338.	Wai ; 6–0
Vyājavāḍī ; WAI ; व्याजवाडी ..	E.; 5–4	1·5 ; 858 ; 161 ; 753.	Wai ; 6–0
Yekīv ; JVL ; येकीव ..	S.; 6–0	2·0 ; 191 ; 37 ; 191.	Medha ; 6–0

Railway St.; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Bazar Day; Distance.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Lonand ; 20-0	Phaltan ; Sun. 3-0	.. 0-1	w.	2Sl (2pr).; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 5tl.; ch.; lib.
Karad ; 12-0	Charegaon ; Sat. 4-0	.. ..	rv.; W.	2Sl (2pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; 2gym.; ch.; lib.
Koregaon; 45-0	Kaledhon ; Tue. 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; dh.
Wathar ; 3-0	Deur ; Tue. 5-0	Wathar ; 3-0	W.; w. n.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; tl. ; M.; gym.; ch.
Lonand ; 20-0	Giravi ; Sat. 3-0	.. 3-0	w.	Sl (pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Satara Rd. ; 21-0	Parali ; Mon. 5-0	.. 0-0	str.	Sl (pr).; tl.
Karad ; 7-0	Local ; Mon. ..	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2lib.
Satara Rd. ; 19-0	Anewadi ; Fri. 0-4	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).; pyt.; 2tl.
Karad ; 3-0	Karad ; Thu. 1-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; tl.; gym.; ch.; lib.; dp.
Koregaon ; 14-0	Pusegaon ; Sun. 2-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 6tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; 2 lib.; dp.
Wathar ; 30-0	Humgaon ; Sun. 4-0	Panchagani. ; 6-0	pl.	2tl.; ch.
Lonand ; 23-0	Bhor ; Tue. 5-0	Stage ; 0-4	rv.; str.; W.; w	3Sl(3pr).; Cs(o).; Bhairavdeo fr. Ct. Sud. 11.; Janai Devi fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 6tl.; dg.; 4gym.; ch.; lib.;
Koregaon ; 48-0	Kukudwad ; Fri. 5-0	Kukudwad. 4-0	n.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 5tl.; M.; mq. ; ch.
Wathar ; 46-0	Mahabaleshwar.; Tue. 10-0	Mahabaleshwar 11-0	pl.; W.; O; t.	Sl(pr).; Janni Devi fr. Mg. Vad. 5.; 2tl.
Satara Rd. ; 20-0	Kanher ; Tue. 3-0	.. 3-0	W.	2Sl(pr;m).; cs.; Bhairav fr. Ct. Vad. 4 ; 7tl.; gym.; lib. dp.
Wathar ; 26-0	Wai ; Mon. 6-0	Dhom ; 0-1	rv.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.; gym.
Wathar ; 18-0	Wai ; Mon. 6-0	.. ..	W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.; gym.
Padali ; 22-0	Medha ; .. Mon. 6-0	.. ..	spr.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.

Village-name in English ; Taluka abbreviation ; Village name in Deonagari.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Household; Agricultural population.	Post Office; Distance.
Yelagāṅv ; KRD. ; येळगांव ..	SW.; 18–0	6·0 ; 2094 ; 532 ; 2858.	Local. ..
Yeḷake ; KDL. ; येळके ..	.. 3-4	4·0 ; 1270 ; 283 ; 893.	Khandala ; 3–4
Yelamāravāḍi ; KTV. ; येळमारवाडी ..	E.; 7–0	2·5 ; 470 ; 107 ; 395.	Katar-khatav ; 2–0
Yeḷiv ; KTV.: येळीव ..	SE.; 12–0	3·5 ; 682 ; 123 ; 609.	Aundh ; 3–0
Yeṇake ; KRD. ; येणके ..	W.; 9–0	1·3 ; 948 ; 180 ; 832.	Kole ; 2–0
Yeṇape ; KRD. ; येणपे ..	SW.; 18-0	4·3 ; 1476 ; 284 ; 1446.	Yelgaon ; 2–0
Yerāḍ ; PTN. ; येराड ..	W.; 3-4	3·3 ; 1084 ; 217 ; 1055.	Patan ; 3–0
Yeraphaḷe ; PTN. ; येरफळे ..	NE.; 2-5	2·0 ; 1077 ; 235 ; 1064.	Mandrul T. Haveli ; 3–0
Yeravaḷe ; KRD. ; येरवळे ..	W.; 3–0	2·3 ; 1680 ; 337 ; 1445.	Ving ; 2–0
Yerṇe Bk. ; JVL. ; येर्णे बु॥ ..	W.; 12-0	2·8 ; 233 ; 55 ; 224.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 4–0
Yerṇe Kh. ; JVL. ; येर्णे खुर्द ..	NW.; 13-0	0·8 ; 102 ; 22 ; 101.	Mahaba-leshwar ; 5–0
Yeruḷi ; WAI ; येरुळी ..	NW.; 8–4	2·3 ; 308 ; 69 ; 308.	Wai ; 8–0
Yevatī ; KRD. ; येवती ..	W.; 20–0	6·3 ; 2007 ; 475 ; 1087.	Yelgaon ; 2–0
Yavateśvar ; STA. ; यवतेश्वर ..	W.; 3–0	2·5 ; 643 ; 133 ; 565.	Satara ; 3–0
Zāḍāṇi ; JVL. ; झाडाणी ..	W.; 28–0	1·3 ; 79 ; 18 ; 79 ;	Mahabale-shwar ; 14–0
Zāḍoli ; PTN. ; झाडोली ..	.. ..	1·5 ; 87 ; 17 ; 86.	Helwak ; 9–0
Zagalavāḍi ; KDL. ; झगलवाडी ..	W.; 9–0	1·8 ; 422 ; 90 ; 420.	Khandala; 10–0
Zākaḍe ; PTN. : झाकडे ..	.. 5–0	3·5 ; 310 ; 59 ; 310.	Patan ; 4–0
Zañjavāḍi ; MBR. ; झांजवाडी ..	SE.; 0–0	1·5 ; 198 ; 48 ; 189.	Mahabale-shwar ; 2–0

Railway St.;	Distance.	Weekly Bazar;	Bazar Day;	Distance.	Motor Stand;	Distance.	Drinking water facilities.	Institutions and other information.
Karad;	21-0	Local	Thu.	..	Local;	..	W.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp). 4tl.; mq.; gym.; ch.; dp.; 4Cch.
Lonand;	13-0	Khandala;	Sun.	3-4	Khandala;	3-4	w.; W.	Sl(pr;m).; tl.; ch.
Koregaon;	30-0	Katar-khatav;	Sun.	2-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.
Rahimatpur;	13-0	Aundh;	Tue.	3-0	Aundh;	3-0	rv.; W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 4tl.; mq. gym.; lib.
Karad;	10-0	Kole;	Wed.	2-0	Gharewadi.	2-0	rv.	Sl(pr).; tl.; gym.
Karad;	23-0	Local	Thu.	..	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 3tl.; gym.; ch.
Masur;	13-0	Patan;	Mon.	3-0	..	..	rv.; W.	Sl(pr).; Shri Yedoba fr. Ct. Sud. 15.; 4tl
Karad;	22-0	Patan;	Mon.	3-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; 4tl.
Karad;	7-0	Ving;	Mon.	2-0	..	..	rv.;	Sl(pr)., pyt.; 5tl.; M.; gym.; ch.; 2lib
Satara Rd.;	39-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	4-0	Mahabaleshwar;	6-0	rv; W.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.
Satara Rd.;	38-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	5-0	Kelghar;	6-0	rv.	tl.
Wathar;	29-0	Wai;	Mon.	8-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; 3tl.; gym.
Shenoli;	13-4	Mhasoli;	Mon.	2-0	..	..	str.; w.	Sl(pr).; pyt.; Cs(mp).; 5tl.
Satara Rd.;	13-0	Satara,	Sun	3-0	Satara;	3-0	t.	Sl(pr).; Yavateshwar fr. Krt. Sud. 2.; 2tl.; dh.; gym.
Padli;	48-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	14-0	Medha;	25-0	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Karad;	52-0	Helwak;	Wed.	9-0	..	..	w.; W.	tl.
Lonand;	23-0	Khandala;	Sun.	10-0	.	1-0	W.	Sl(pr).; Shirasobai fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 2tl.; gym. ch.
Karad;	30-0	Morgiri;	Thu.	4-0	..	..	W.	Sl(pr).; tl.
Wathar;	48-0	Mahabaleshwar;	Tue.	8-0	Mahabaleshwar;	9-0	spr.	Sl(pr).; 2tl.

APPENDIX I.

SECTION I.

*DEPARTMENTS TRANSFERRED TO ZILLA PARISHAD.

INTRODUCTION.

Public administration in the State in the last century consisted mostly of providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political consciousness in the country and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of Governmental activities into what were called "Nation Building Departments," namely, Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc.

After the close of World War II and the attainment of independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort was made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the 19th century.

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the following departments of the State operating in the District have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad :—

1. General Administration Department.

2. Local Self-Government, excluding Municipalities and Municipal Boroughs.

3. Developmental Departments : Agriculture, Veterinary, Forests, Co-operation, Industrial Co-operatives and Village Industries, Industries, Public Works and Road Transport.

4. Welfare Departments : Education, (excluding training colleges and higher education), Technical Industrial Training, Medical. Public Health, Labour, Prohibition and Excise, Backward Classes, Charity Commissioner, Community Projects and National Extension Service, Social Welfare.

5. Miscellaneous Departments : Publicity and Administration of Managed Estates.

Before the Zilla Parishad came into existence, Local Self-Government in the district was working at district, taluka and village level. It was conducted by various statutory bodies, enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions was in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitutions, from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have become entirely elective. Secondly, their franchise, which was widening, had, with the enactment of the Bombay Local Authorities Adult Franchise and Removal of Reservation of Seats Act (XVII of 1950), reached the widest limits possible, *viz.*, universal adult franchise; every person who :—

(*a*) is a citizen of India,
(*b*) has attained the age of 21 years, and
(*c*) has the requisite residence, business premises or taxation qualification, is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter.

Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies for the administration of the areas under their charge. There are nine municipalities in Satara District, including one Municipal Borough of Satara, which are not under the control of Zilla Parishad. However, the primary schools lying in the area of these municipalities, with the exception of the primary schools under the Municipal School Board, Satara, are run by the Zilla Parishad.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, which came into force from 1st May, 1962, all ex-Boards, *i.e.*, District Local Board, District School Board, District Building Committee, District Development Board, were abolished and their work was vested in the Zilla Parishad. All Village Panchayats have to work under their respective Taluka Samitis.

The following offices of the Government also have been taken over by the Zilla Parishad :—

1. District Village Panchayat Mandal.
2. Agricultural Department.
3. Education Department.
4. Animal Husbandry.
5. Co-operative Department (partial).
6. Social Welfare Department.
7. Publicity Department, excluding Publicity Officer.
8. Industries Department, excluding District Industrial Officer.
9. Health Department, excluding malaria eradication.
10. Works, excluding national highways.
11. Irrigation upto 250 acres.
12. Dry Farming.

1. *Agriculture.*

SUBJECTS OF ACTIVITIES.

(*a*) Establishment, management, maintenance and the giving of grants to Agricultural Schools (including grants-in-aid to Agricultural Schools), but not including matters relating to (*i*) laying down of syllabus, (*ii*) prescription of text-books and (*iii*) conducting annual examination.

(*b*) Crop competitions.

(*c*) Crop protection.

(*d*) Crop campaign, (including Kharif and Rabi crop campaign and intensive paddy cultivation.).

(*e*) Compost and green manures.

(*f*) Distribution of fertilisers, agricultural implements and agricultural quota of iron, steel and cement.

(*g*) Demonstration of improved agricultural practices.

(*h*) Model demonstration or subsidiary seed farms.

(*i*) Importation and distribution of improved seeds.

(*j*) Establishment and maintenance of godowns.

(*k*) Advancement and improvement of agriculture.

(*l*) Eradication of noxious plants.

(*m*) Acclimatisation of exotics.

2. *Animal Husbandry.*

(*a*) Veterinary aid (excluding district veterinary hospitals but including veterinary dispensaries, veterinary aid centres and village veterinary chests).

(*b*) Improvement of breed of cattle, horses, and other live-stock, (including artificial insemination sub-centres, key village centres, premium bull centres fodder development plots, silo pits, formation of taluka and district live-stock improvement association and the like, and distribution of improved breed of sheep.)

(*c*) Distribution of improved poultry.

(*d*) Organisation of cattle shows and rallies.

3. *Forests.*

(*a*) Village forests and grazing lands, (including measures for development of village woodlands for purposes of pasture and fuel.)

4. *Social Welfare.*

(*a*) Educational development of backward classes, including, measures relating to :—

1. grant of scholarships, freeships and examination fees to backward class students.

(*b*) Economic development of backward classes, including :—

(1) giving of financial assistance to individual cultivators in the form of loans and subsidies for the purpose of purchasing agricultural requisites,

(2) giving of financial assistance to individual artisans in the form of loan and subsidies for cottage industries and professions,

(3) supply of spinning wheels to *Vimukta Jatis*,

(4) development of communications in backward areas,

(5) maintenance of co-operative stores and grant of subsidies to multipurpose co-operative societies for maintenance of staff (so far as co-operative societies having not more than rupees five lakhs working capital each and having jurisdiction over less than a district, are concerned),

(6) establishment of handicraft centres, and

(7) development of cattle-breeding and poultry farms.

(*c*) Removal of untouchability, including :—

(1) celebration of Harijan weeks,

(2) *Zunka-bhakar* programme,

(3) encouragement of inter-caste marriages between caste-Hindus and Harijans and

(4) awarding prizes to villages which do outstanding work in the removal of untouchability.

(*d*) Programmes for welfare of backward classes, including :—

(1) women's and children's welfare programmes or projects,

(2) establishment and maintenance of *Balwadis*,

(3) undertaking propaganda and publicity for welfare of backward classes,

(4) organisation of entertainment programmes for backward classes,

(5) holding social *melas*,

(6) Sanskar Kendras, community-*cum*-recreation centres and community halls for backward classes,

(7) supply of clothes to *Vimukta Jatis*,

(8) financial assistance to individuals for purchase of medicines, and giving of grants to voluntary agencies for administering medical relief,

(9) provision of houses for backward class persons, and

(10) provision of drinking water wells.

(*e*) Training of backward classes including :—

(1) organisation of training camps, and

(2) technical training and training in improved methods of hereditary occupations.

5. *Education*.

(*a*) Establishment, management, maintenance, inspection and visiting of primary schools and basic schools, including grants-in-aid to schools but excluding items relating to :—

(*i*) laying down of syllabus,

(*ii*) prescription of text-books,

(*iii*) conducting scholarship examinations,

(*iv*) conducting Primary School Certificate Examination and Standard IV examination and

(*v*) such other powers as are vested in the State Government under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947.

(*b*) Establishment, management, maintenance, inspection and visiting of Secondary Schools, excluding items relating to :—

(*i*) prescription of curriculum,

(*ii*) prescription of text-books,

(*iii*) rates of and conditions for maintenance grant,

(iv) permission for conversions of high schools into higher secondary schools,

(v) rates of fees,

(vi) laying down general conditions for recognition,

(vii) conduct of primary and high school scholarship examinations, and

(viii) such other powers as may be specifically entrusted to the Director of Education or reserved for the State Government, under the Grant-in-Aid Code.

In the case of private secondary schools, only recommendation of grants and loans and their disbursement on sanction from the Director of Education is done.

(c) Grant of loans and scholarship to students in respect of primary and secondary education.

(d) Construction and maintenance of primary and secondary school buildings of the Zilla Parishad.

(e) Other educational objects.

(f) Provision of equipment and playgrounds for schools.

6. *Medical.*

(a) Taluka dispensaries, including their upgrading.

(b) Hospitals, excluding civil and cottage as also big Government Hospitals.

(c) Subsidised Medical Practitioners' Centres.

(d) Rural Medical Relief Centres and Public Medical Relief.

(e) Grant of financial assistance to institutions giving anti-rabic treatment to indigent persons.

(f) Grants-in-aid to private charitable hospitals, dispensaries, maternity homes and other such institutions.

7. *Ayurvedic.*

(a) Ayurvedic and Unani dispensaries, (including the giving of grants to such dispensaries).

(b) Replenishing stock of Ayurvedic medicine chest in villages.

8. *Public Health.*

(a) Primary Health Centres.

(b) Mobile Hygiene Units.

(c) Combined Medical and Public Health Units.

(d) Vaccination.

(e) School Health Service.

(f) Measures for treatment of Anti-yaws.

(g) Maternity and Child Welfare Centres.

(h) Maintenance of medicine boxes in villages.

(i) Facilities for health education.

(j) Rural sanitation.

(k) Taking of necessary measures in the interest of public health.

(l) Reclamation of unhealthy localities.

9. *Buildings and Communications.*

(a) Construction, maintenance and repairs of :-

(i) Village Roads,

(ii) Other District Roads,

(*iii*) Major District Roads, and

(*iv*) Bridges on above mentioned roads.

(*b*) Rural parks and gardens.

(*c*) Construction of administrative and other buildings in connection with Zilla Parishad's requirements.

(*e*) Means of communications, other than roads.

(*f*) Public ferries.

(*g*) Maintenance of trees in the vicinity of roads.

(*h*) Light, railways and tramways.

(*i*) Telephone lines.

10. *Public Health Engineering.*

(*a*) Rural water supply.

(*b*) Protected water supply for fairs in rural areas.

(*c*) Rural drainage.

(*d*) Works for preservation of water for drinking, bathing and cooking, from pollution.

11. *Irrigation.*

Minor Irrigation Works (only those works which irrigate 250 acres or less).

12. *Industries and Cottage Industries.*

(*a*) Local Industries .. } Only to the extent of grant of loans upto
(*b*) Local Arts .. } rupees ten thousand in each case in respect of small-scale or cottage industries.

(*c*) Training institutes and schools, excluding research institutes and institutes meant for an area larger than a district.

(*d*) Training-*cum*-production centres and production centres.

(*e*) Sales depots and emporia.

(*f*) Giving of grants-in-aid and loans to individual craftsmen.

(*g*) Giving of stipends to trainees.

(*h*) Promotion and development of cottage and village industries.

(*i*) Organising marketing facilities for cottage and village industries products.

(*j*) Giving of grants-in-aid and loans to industrial co-operatives.

(*k*) Handlooms.

(*l*) Executive work relating to enforcement of Weights and Measures Act.

13. *Co-operation.*

(*a*) Registration of co-operative societies (only in respect of those societies whose working capital does not exceed rupees five lakhs each and whose jurisdiction is less than the district).

(*b*) Approval to bye-laws of the type of societies mentioned above.

(*c*) Appeals arising out of non-admission of members to the type of societies mentioned above.

(*d*) Administrative supervision over co-operative societies (only to the extent of examination of the general working of societies, their management and financial position, with a view to improving the business standards adopted by the societies and their office-bearers and also extending their activities).

(*e*) Promotion and extension (in respect of all types of co-operative societies).

(*f*) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies for financial assistance from the State Government.

(*g*) Sponsoring of applications of co-operative societies (such as may be specified by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies) to concerned federal societies in respect of participation in share capital.

(*h*) Taking shares in co-operatives in those cases in which the State Government can take shares subject to conditions laid down by the Registrar of Co-operative Societies.

(*i*) Supervision and control over Agricultural Produce Markets (only the district level work of supervision and control).

14. *Publicity.*

(*a*) Mobile publicity vans.

(*b*) Organising district exhibitions.

(*c*) Publicity through recreational activities.

(*d*) Rural broadcasting.

15. *Community Development.*

(*a*) Community Development Programme.

(*b*) Local Development Works Programme.

16. *Social Education.*

(*a*) Community recreation centres.

(*b*) Adult literacy centres.

(*c*) Sports, games, playgrounds, equipment and welfare organisations.

(*d*) Kisan melas.

(*e*) Conduct visits.

(*f*) Dissemination of information.

(*g*) Short camps.

(*h*) Women's organisations and welfare.

(*i*) Children's organisation and welfare.

(*j*) Mobile cinema vans.

(*k*) Libraries and reading rooms.

(*l*) Fairs, shows and exhibitions.

17. *Rural Housing.*

(*a*) Rural Housing.

18. *Miscellaneous.*

(*a*) Village uplift.

(*b*) Building model villages, (including grants and loans for the purpose).

(*c*) Economic welfare of villages.

(*d*) Local works or measures likely to promote health, safety comfort or convenience of the public.

(*e*) Markets.

(*f*) Dharmashalas, resthouses, travellers' bungalows, sarais and the like.

(*g*) Chawadis.

(*h*) Other public institutions.

(*i*) Local unemployment, other than industrial unemployment.

(*j*) Improvement and extension of village sites, (including grants and loans for the purpose).

(*k*) Laying new village sites, (including grants and loans for the purpose).

(*l*) Well-being of employees of Zilla Parishad.

(*m*) Provision of houses for employees of Zilla Parishad.

(*n*) Planting and preservation of trees on public grounds and gardens.

(*o*) Rewards for destruction of wild animals.

(*p*) Public receptions and ceremonies and entertainment.

(*q*) Arrangement for local pilgrimages.

(*r*) Burial and cremation grounds.

(*s*) Sammelans of Panchas, Sarpanchas of Village Panchayats and other non-officials.

(*t*) Local vagrancy relief for the poor.

(*u*) Maintenance of poor-houses.

SECTION II.

Previous history of the Boards and other Local Self-Government Institutions.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND CONSTITUTION OF THE ZILLA PARISHAD.

Like the Greek City States, the villages in ancient India had always been autonomous units. The characteristic feature of administration in ancient India was the prevalence of freedom and autonomy in governing the village institutions. In course of time due to invasions and depradations of Muslim rulers the villages lost their autonomy as more power came to be vested and concentrated in the sovereign kings.

During the British Administration, some attempts were made to revive the Local Self-Government Institutions in India with a view to giving people training in the administration of such institutions by giving them representations in such local bodies. As a result of this, subsequently, Municipalities, District School Boards and Taluka Local Boards came to be established In course of time, village panchayats came to be founded and as a result of this it was possible for British Government to regenerate confidence among the masses inhabiting the rural areas.

Vidarbha organised its Gram Panchayats and Nyaya-Panchayats in 1946, while as in Marathwada Region the Village Panchayats started functioning in every village with a population of 5,000 and above in 1941. After the reorganisation of the erstwhile State of Bombay, the Village Panchayats Act was passed in 1958, for the whole State. Due to this Act for every district a Village Panchayat Mandal was set up. Not only this but Gat-Nyaya Panchayats came to be organised for groups of five or more than five Village Panchayats.

In course of time, the experience gained indicated that the progress of rural development was not commensurate with the expectation of the Government. Various developmental activities introduced in the various Plan periods could not achieve a commendable amount of success owing to non-participation of the villagers in the implementation of such developmental schemes. On the other hand, a trend could be noticed among the masses for undertaking more developmental activities. The Central Government came to the conclusion that it was necessary for the Government to investigate the causes behind such a state of affairs and appointed a Committee called 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee'.

The 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee' visited all the developmental activities, met hundreds of Government Officers, social workers in the Country, interviewed them and submitted its report to Government. The Committee pointed out mainly, among other findings, that the Government could not succeed in appealing and attracting the leadership of the masses in participating in the Community Development and National Developmental Schemes. Institutions of the type of the Local Self-Government had not taken any deep interest in participating in such developmental schemes and had not shown any initiative for such work. The part played by the village gram panchayats in such works was also not very encouraging. There was very often interference from the Government in the affairs of the working of the Local Boards. The Committee came to the conclusion that the urgent necessity of the day, to remedy the above-mentioned state of affairs, was the decentralisation of power and responsibility at the lower level. The Committee, therefore, suggested that the responsibility for such regional and local development work should be assigned to such local institutions at the district level with the Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finances and so on.

The 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee' recommended the formation of Local Committees on par with Block Development Committees, to be named as Panchayat Samitis, and at the district level a District Committee to be called 'Zilla Parishad', instead of the Local Boards, etc., in order to secure integration in the various developmental activities. From the above it may easily be seen that the Gram Panchayat, the Panchayat Samiti, and the Zilla Parishad are the three responsible functionaries in the decentralisation of administration, who are entrusted with the implementation of the Developmental Schemes.

Thus an Act, to provide for the establishment in rural areas of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis, to assign to them local Government functions, and to entrust the execution of certain works and development schemes of the State Five Year Plans to such bodies, and to provide for the decentralisation of powers and functions under certain enactments to those local bodies for the purposes of promoting the development of democratic institutions and securing a greater measure of participation by the people in the Plans and in local and government affairs, was passed in 1961, known as The Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

Constitution of the Zilla Parishad.

As per provisions contained in Section 9 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the Satara Zilla Parishad has since been constituted and it has started functioning since 12th August, 1962. The Zilla Parishad consists of the following Councillors :—

(1) Fifty-four elected Councillors, one each from fifty-four electoral divisions in the district.

(2) One woman co-opted by the elected Councillors of the Zilla Parishad.

(3) Eleven Chairmen of eleven Panchayat Samitis in the district, (*ex-officio* Councillors).

(4) Five Chairmen of five co-operative societies in the district, nominated by Government as detailed under the heading 'Election Procedure.'

Functions, Powers and Duties.

Administrative Duties and Powers.

Under Section 100 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, it shall be the duty of the Zilla Parishad so far as the district fund at its disposal will allow, to make regional provision within the district with respect to all or any of the subjects enumerated in the first schedule as amended from time to time under sub-section (2) (in the Act referred to as 'District List'), and to execute or maintain works of developmental schemes in the district relating to any such subjects.

Among other things, the Zilla Parishad has been empowered under the same section (i.e., 100) :—

1. to make provision for carrying out within the district any other work or measure which is likely to promote the health, safety, education, comfort, convenience or social, economic, or cultural well-being of the inhabitants of the district;

2. to endeavour, to promote plan development of the district by utilising to the maximum extent, local resources and for that purpose, prepare annual and long term plan, regard being had to the plans already prepared by the Panchayat Samitis;

3. subject to the rules, made by the State Government in this behalf, the Zilla Parishad may by resolution, passed at its meeting and supported by 2/3rds of its councillors (other than associate councillors) make provision for any public reception, ceremony or entertainment within the district or to contribute towards gathering sponsored by it in the district;

4. the Zilla Parishad shall carry out the directions given or orders issued from time to time by the State Government and shall provide adequate funds for purposes of measures to be undertaken for the amelioration of the conditions of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and any socially and educationally backward classes, and in particular, in the removal of untouchability;

5. the Zilla Parishad shall perform such duties and functions as are entrusted to it, or under any other law for the time being in force;

6. the Zilla Parishad may incur expenditure outside the district on any matter in relation to any of the purposes of this Act, such matters being of interest to the residents of the district;

7. the Zilla Parishad shall make adequate arrangements and provisions for payment to its Councillors, members of Panchayat Samitis, and members of Standing Committee, Subjects Committees and any other Committee, all

expenses incurred in travelling for the purpose of business of the Zilla Parishad or as the case may be, the Panchayat Samiti, in accordance with the rules, made by the State Government in this behalf;

8. the Zilla Parishad may contribute to any fund sponsored by Government to meet any calamity affecting the public in any part of India;

9. subject to the provisions of this Act, the Zilla Parishad may exercise general supervision and control over the work of the Chief Executive Officer;

10. it shall be lawful for the Zilla Parishad, under provisions of the Section 102, of the Act, to undertake, upon such terms and conditions, as may be agreed upon, the construction, maintenance or repairs of any work, or the management of any Institution on behalf of the Central or State Government, or any other local authority, or any Court of Wards;

11. the Zilla Parishad may compromise (*vide* Section 105), in respect of any suit instituted by or against it, or in respect of any claim or demand arising out of any contract entered into by or on behalf of it under this Act, for such sum of money or other compensation as it shall deem sufficient;

12. the Zilla Parishad may pay compensation out of the District Fund to any person sustaining any damage by reason of the exercise, in good faith, of any of the powers vested in it, in its Committees or in Panchayat Samitis and in the presiding authorities, officers and servants by or under this Act.

Powers and Functions.

Subject to the provisions of this Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government, a Zilla Parishad may (*vide* Section 106 of the Act) :—

(*a*) do all things necessary for the proper discharge of the functions and duties imposed on it by or under the Act,

(*b*) sanction works or development schemes within the district (not being works or development schemes which a Panchayat Samiti has been empowered by this Act to sanction within the Block from block grants),

(*c*) at any time, call for any proceedings of the Standing Committee or any Subjects Committee, or for any return, statement, account or report concerning or connected with any subjects allotted thereto,

(*d*) require any of its officers or servants to attend any meeting of the Zilla Parishad and tender advice on any matter which concerns the department, under which such officer or servant is working; and every such officer or servant shall comply with such requisition,

(*e*) exercise powers or perform functions in respect of matters which by or under this Act, are not expressly conferred or imposed on the Panchayat Samitis or Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee, presiding authority or officer or servant of or under the Zilla Parishad,

(*f*) revise or modify any decision taken by the Standing Committee, a Subjects Committee, presiding authority, or officer of or under, or servant of the Zilla Parishad,

(*g*) exercise administrative control over officers and servants holding office under it and

(*h*) supervise generally the execution of all duties and functions, under this Act.

Duties during famine, etc.

Where the State Government, during any year, has declared any area as a famine stricken or an area of acute scarcity, and has granted suspension or remission of land revenue, according to the scale prescribed by the State Government in this behalf, under the relevant Code or where distress is caused by floods or other natural calamities in any area, it shall be the duty of the Zilla Parishad having jurisdiction over the area, if so directed by the State Government, to undertake relief operations in such area either by the grant of gratuitous relief in the form of doles of money or through expenditure on such public works or such preventive or remedial measures as may be specified by the State Government in the direction. (*vide* rule 107 of the Act).

SECTION III.

Constitution of Various Committees of the Parishad.

As per provisions contained in section 78 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the Zilla Parishad shall appoint a Standing Committee and also the following Subjects Committees :—

1. Finance Committee,
2. Works Committee,
3. Agricultural Committee,
4. Co-operative Committee,
5. Education Committee,
6. Health Committee.

In view of the provisions contained in section 79 (*1*) of the said Act, the Standing Committee shall consist of :—

1. The President,
2. The Chairmen of the Subjects Committees,
3. Seven Councillors elected by the Zilla Parishad from amongst its Councillors, of whom not less than two shall be members from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes or socially or educationally backward classes, as far as possible,
4. Not more than two persons to be co-opted by the Parishad, who shall be associate members.

The members to be co-opted, under item 4 above, shall be persons having special knowledge or experience in respect of any of the subjects allotted to the Standing Committee.

The President of the Parishad shall be the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Standing Committee. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer, shall be the *ex-officio* Secretary of the Standing Committee.

Subjects-Committees.

1. *Committee for Co-operatives.*—It shall consist of :—

(*i*) Five councillors not being associate councillors elected by the Zilla Parishad from amongst its councillors,

(*ii*) Five associate councillors who shall have the right to vote. [*vide* section 80 (*1*) of the Act.]

Other Subjects Committees shall each consist of :—

(*i*) Seven councillors elected by the Zilla Parishad from amongst its councillors,

(*ii*) Not more than two persons to be co-opted by the Parishad, who shall be associate members. The members to be co-opted under this item shall be the persons having special knowledge or experience in respect of the subjects allotted to the relevant Subjects Committees.

The Head of the Department of the Zilla Parishad shall be the *ex-officio* Secretary of such Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct.

As per provisions contained in section 81 of the Zilla Parishad Act, no Councillor shall be elected on more than two Committees, including the Standing Committee. No Chairman or Deputy Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is eligible for election on any Committee appointed under section 78. Every election to a Committee, including the Standing Committee, shall be held in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of a single transferable vote.

The term of office of members of a Standing Committee and a Subjects Committee of the Parishad shall be co-terminus with the term of the office of councillors of that Parishad. [*vide* Section 82 (*1*) of the Zilla Parishad Act.]

The Vice-President of the Parishad shall be the Chairman of such two Subjects Committees, as the Parishad may determine. The Councillors will, from amongst the elected Councillors, elect two persons to be Chairmen of the remaining Subjects Committees and two such Subjects Committees as determined by the Parishad, are going to be under the same Chairman. (*Vide* Section 83 of the Zilla Parishad Act.)

Each of the three Chairmen referred to above, will be getting a consolidated honorarium of Rs. 300 per month, with the facilities of free residential accommodation and will be entitled to such T. A. and D. A., as may be prescribed by the Government. (*Vide* Section 84 of the Act).

SECTION IV.

PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

As per provisions contained in section 57 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, for every block a Panchayat Samiti has been provided, and every Panchayat Samiti shall consist of the following members :—

(a) All councillors who are elected on the Zilla Parishad from the electoral divisions in the block.

(b) The co-opted Councillor of the Zilla Parishad residing in the block.

(c) The Chairmen of such Co-operative societies conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural products in the block as nominated by Government (to be associate members).

(d) The Chairman of a co-operative society conducting business relating to agriculture (not being a society falling under 'c' above) in the block co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member).

(e) In case of non-availability of woman member or a member of Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribe, one member each to be co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti, from the block who is a regular resident.

(f) Sarpanchas elected by members of the Village Panchayats.

For the purpose of election of Sarpancha as mentioned in 'f' above, the 54 electoral divisions in the district have been sub-divided into 108 electoral colleges. Each College has returned one member.

Electoral Roll.—All the members of the Village Panchayat included in a College have been registered as the voters for the purpose of election. A Sarpancha of a Village Panchayat is entitled to contest the election under clause 'f' above.

The 11 Panchayat Samitis, since formulated, consist of the following members at present.

Serial No.	Name of the Panchayat Samiti.		Members at present.
1	Mahabaleshwar	..	Four elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman, of Panchagani No. 5 Vividh Karyakari Society, Ltd., Panchagani, (associate member). Two Zilla Parishad Councillors (elected).
2	Wai	..	Eight elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Sale Purchase Union Ltd., Wai. Four Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
3	Satara	..	Twelve elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Satara Taluka Sale Purchase Union, Ltd., Satara, (associate member). Six Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
4	Jaoli	..	Seven elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Jaoli Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Jaoli. (associate member). Four Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
5	Khandala	..	Six elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Khandala Peta Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Khandala (associate member). Three Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
6	Phaltan	..	Eight elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Phaltan Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Phaltan (associate member). Four Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.

Serial No.	Name of the Panchayat Samiti.	Members at present.
7	Man ..	Eight elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Man Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Man (associate member). Four Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
8	Khatav ..	Twelve elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Khatav (associate member). Six Zilla Parishad elected Councillors
9	Koregaon ..	Ten elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Koregaon Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd. Koregaon (associate member). Five Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
10	Patan ..	Fourteen elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Patan Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Patan. (associate member). Seven Zilla Parishad elected Councillors.
11	Karad ..	Eighteen elected Sarpanchas. One Chairman of Karad Taluka Sale and Purchase Union, Ltd., Karad. (associate member). Nine Zilla Parishad elected members.

Chairman.

The first meeting of all Panchayat Samitis in the district was called on 7th August, 1962, in all the respective Blocks, for election of their Chairmen. Accordingly, the Chairmen of all the Panchayat Samitis were declared elected on the same date. The term of the office of the Chairmen and members of the Panchayat Samitis is going to be co-terminus, *vide* Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.

The Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 per month with the facilities of free residential accommodation. (*vide* Section 69 of the Act). The Deputy Chairman of Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month (*vide* Section 69 of the Act). The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman shall devote sufficient time and attention to the duties of their offices.

Each Panchayat Samiti has yet to co-opt its members falling under clauses 'd' and 'e' of Section 57 (*1*) of the Zilla Parishad Act.

The elections of Sarpanchas under clause 'f' of section 57 of the Zilla Parishad Act, were held under the secret ballot system.

Powers and functions of Chairman.

Subject to the provisions of this Act and the rules or regulations made thereunder :—

(1) the Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti shall—

(*a*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Panchayat Samiti.

(*b*) have access to the records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*c*) exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants of or under the Zilla Parishad and working in the Block in matters of execution or administration (including the carrying into effect the resolutions and decisions of the Panchayat Samiti) and the accounts and records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(*d*) in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property or sale or transfer thereof as may be specified by the State Government.

(2) The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may—

(a) call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad, or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad, or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction.

Powers and Functions of Deputy Chairman.

(1) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti shall—

(a) in the absence of the Chairman, preside at the meetings of the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti as the Chairman from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in that behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of the Chairman, or during the absence of the Chairman exercise the powers and perform the duties of the Chairman.

(2) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti may enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction and shall send a report of such inspection to the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti.

SECTION V.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE PRESIDENT, THE VICE-PRESIDENT AND OTHER OFFICIALS.

Powers and Functions of President.

1. The President shall—

(a) convene, preside at, and conduct meetings of the Zilla Parishad,

(b) have access to the records of the Zilla Parishad;

(c) discharge all duties imposed, and exercise all the powers conferred on him by or under this Act;

(d) watch over the financial and executive administration of the Zilla Parishad and submit to the Zilla Parishad all questions connected therewith which shall appear to him to require its orders; and

(e) exercise administrative supervision and control over the Chief Executive Officer for securing implementation of resolutions or decisions of the Zilla Parishad or of the Standing Committee, or of any Subjects Committee, or of any Panchayat Samiti.

2. The President may in cases of emergency direct the execution or suspension or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Zilla Parishad or any authority thereof, and immediate execution or doing of which is, in his opinion, necessary for the service or safety of the public, and may direct that the expense of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the District fund:

Provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this section, and the full reasons thereof to the Zilla Parishad, the Standing Committee and the appropriate Subjects Committee at their next meetings and the Zilla Parishad, or the Committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

Powers and Functions of Vice-President.

The Vice-President shall—

(a) in the absence of the President, preside at the meetings of the Zilla Parishad;

(b) exercise such of the powers and perform such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegate to him by an order in writing; and

(c) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

Powers and functions of Chairman of Standing Committee and Subjects Committees.

1. Subject to the provisions of the Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government—

(*a*) the Chairman of the Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee shall—

(*i*) convene, preside at and conduct meetings of the Committee; and

(*ii*) have access to the records of the Committee;

(*b*) the Chairman of any such Committee may, in relation to subjects allotted to the Committee—

(*i*) call for any information, return, statement, account, or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof; and

(*ii*) enter on and inspect any immovable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction :

Provided that, the Chairman of the Standing Committee may, in relation to any subject allotted to any Subjects Committee, also exercise the powers under this clause.

2. The Chairman of the Standing Committee may grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of Class I Service (other than the Chief Executive Officer) or Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

Duties, Procedure, etc., of Committees to be prescribed by regulations.

Save as otherwise provided by or under this Act, the powers to be exercised and the duties to be discharged by, and which subject enumerated in the district list are to be allotted to, the Standing Committee and each of the Subjects Committees, shall be such as may be prescribed by regulations; but all subjects in relation to social welfare enumerated in the District List are by this section allotted to the Standing Committee.

Executive Officers of the Parishad.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, 11 Block Development Officers and the Heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers of the Zilla Parishad. They are all gazetted officers and are transferable by the State Government to other districts. The Chief Executive Officer belongs to the cadre of Indian Administrative Service and his rank is equal to that of the Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are Class II Officers while the Heads of the Departments are either Class I or Class II Officers. All the executive officers, are to draw their pay and allowances from the consolidated fund of the State except travelling allowance (other than travelling allowance on transfer) which is to be drawn from District Fund.

There are five State Government Officers in the General Administration Department, two in the Finance Department, three in the Agriculture Department, five in the Education Department (including the Head Master of the Pratapsinh High School, Satara), one in the Industries and Co-operative Department, five in the Works Department, six in the Health Department, one in the Revenue Department, and eleven Block Development Officers. Of the Gazetted Officers, the Chief Executive Officer, the Deputy Chief Executive Officer, the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer, the Educational Inspector and District Engineer are Class I Officers.

Powers and duties[1] of the Executive Officers.

(1) *Chief Executive Officer* :—

(*i*) He shall lay down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the State Government.

(*ii*) He shall be entitled to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any office or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

(*iii*) He shall supervise and control the execution of all activities of the Zilla Parishad.

(*iv*) He shall have custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its committees (excluding Panchayat Samitis).

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[1] Vide Sections 95 to 99 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

(v) He shall draw and disburse money out of the District Fund.

(vi) He shall exercise supervision and control over the acts of officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad.

(vii) He shall be entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any Panchayat Samiti).

(viii) Any of the powers conferred or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Maharashtra State Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, may also be exercised. performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing. All such orders of the Chief Executive Officer shall, however, be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant Subject Committees for information. The Chief Executive Officer has already delegated some powers to his subordinates.

(ix) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of Class I Service and Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad; forward them to such authorities as may be prescribed by the State Government and lay down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of Class III service and Class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

(2) *Deputy Chief Executive Officer* :—

(1) He shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee. (*vide* section 9 and 79 of the Act).

(3) *Block Development Officer* :—

(1) He shall have the custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Panchayat Samitis.

(2) He shall be the Secretary, *ex-officio*, of the Panchayat Samiti. (*vide* Section 57 of the Act).

(3) He shall, subject to the general order of the Chief Executive Officer grant leave of absence to officer or servant of Class III service or of Class IV service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti.

(4) He shall call for any information, return, statement, account, report or explanation from any of the officers or servants working under the Panchayat Samiti.

(5) He shall draw and disburse money out of the grant or grants payable to the Panchayat Samiti under Sections 185 and 188.

(6) He shall, in relation to the works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants, exercise such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property, sale or transfer thereof, as may be specified by the State Government.

(4) *Heads of Departments* :—

(1) Every head of the Department of the Zilla Parishad may, in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his Department, accord technical sanction thereto.

(2) He shall assess and give his opinion confidentially every year on the work of officers of class II service working in his Department and shall forward them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(3) The Head of a Department of a Zilla Parishad specified by the Zilla Parishad in this behalf, shall be the secretary, *ex-officio*, of such Subject Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct, (*vide* Section 80 of the Act).

The various Subject Committees are :—

(a) Finance Committee,
(b) Works Committee,
(c) Agriculture Committee,
(d) Co-operatives Committee,
(e) Education Committee and
(f) Health Committee.

SECTION VI.

Election Procedure

Under clause A of Sub-section (*1*) of Section 9 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, Satara District has been divided into 54 electoral divisions for the purpose of the elections of the Councillors to Satara Zilla Parishad. These divisions have been formed on the basis of population, every Councillor being elected approximately for a population of 35,000. Due attention has also been paid to variations in geographical conditions of the Block, for instance, in Mahabaleshwar Block, 2 electoral divisions have been formulated entitling them to return two elected Councillors.

2. Each Electoral Division has returned one Councillor and there was separate election for each Electoral Division. Three seats for Scheduled Castes are reserved, one each for Targaon Division, Taluka Koregaon; Vaduj Division, Khahtav Block and Nimblak Division, in Phaltan Block. No reservation has been given to Scheduled Tribes in the district.

3. The break up of the number of Councillors in the Satara Zilla Parishad is as follows :—

(*a*) 54 Councillors elected by direct elections. The details of the elected Councillors are as under :—

Serial No.	Name of the block	No. of elected Councillors.
1	Phaltan	4
2	Khandala	3
3	Mahabaleshwar	2
4	Wai	4
5	Man	4
6	Khatav	6
7	Koregaon	5
8	Satara	6
9	Jaoli	4
10	Patan	7
11	Karad	9

(*b*) One woman has been co-opted by the elected Councillors in (*a*) above

(*c*) 11 Chairmen from the Panchayat Samitis in the district (out of these 11 chairmen, 8 are already elected Councillors and remaining three are from elected Sarpanchas of Village Panchayats on Panchayat Samitis in the district), and

(*d*) 5 Chairmen of Co-operative Societies as nominated by Government are as under :—

1. Chairman of Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., Karad.
2. Chairman of Satara District Sale and Purchase Union Ltd., Satara.
3. Chairman of Satara District Co-operative Association Ltd., Satara.
4. Chairman of Satara District Co-operative Board Ltd., Satara.
5. Chairman of Satara District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Satara.

Thus it will be seen that the Satara Zilla Parishad consists of 62 Councillors in all, of which 9 Councillors are in dual capacities.

4. *Electoral Roll*.—The electoral rolls of the Maharashtra Legislative Assembly Constituencies prepared under the provisions of the Representation of the Peoples Act, 1950, and which were in force on 30th April, 1962, were utilised as the Voter's list for the purpose of electing the 54 Councillors mentioned above. The elections of the Zilla Parishad were organised and carried out on the same lines as those of the Assembly and Parliamentary Elections, held in February, 1962, i.e., by secret ballot system. Every person whose name is in the list of the voters of any Electoral Division of the District is entitled to contest the election, *vide* Section 15 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961. The disqualifications for being Councillors are enumerated in Section 16 of the said Act.

Term of Offices.—The term of office of the President, the Vice-President and the Councillors will be of 5 years duration from 12th August, 1962 *vide* Section 10 of the Act.

Honorarium.—In accordance with the provisions of Section 46 of the Act, the President, who is supposed to devote sufficient time and attention to the duties of his office, shall be paid an honorarium of Rs. 500 per month in addition to the facilities of free residential accommodation. The Vice-President shall be paid Rs. 300 per month as honorarium besides free residential accommodation. He will receive this honorarium by virtue of his being the Chairman of the two Subject Committees as shall be determined by the Zilla Parishad *vide* Section 83 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961. The other two Chairmen of the two Subject-Committees each will also be paid Rs. 300 each per month as honorarium with free residential accommodation.

SECTION VII.

Finances of the Zilla Parishad (including Financial resources) :— FINANCE.

A local fund called a "District Fund" has been created in this district. The following amounts are to be paid into it : (1) the balances of the local fund of the Ex-District Local Board and the Ex-District School Board, (2) the net proceeds of the cesses in the District authorised by Sections 144 and 146, (3) the balance of the amount of the tax on professions, trades, callings and employments, (4) all rents and profits accruing from the property (including ferries) vested in the Zilla Parishad, (5) the proceeds of all tolls and leases of tolls on roads and bridges vested in Zilla Parishad, (6) all sums received by the Zilla Parishad, for execution of or from taxation under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, (7) the interest on the sale proceeds of any securities held by the Zilla Parishad, (8) the receipts on account of charities and trusts placed under the management of the Zilla Parishad, (9) all grants, loans, assignments and contributions made by the State Government, (10) all grants, loans and contributions meant for Panchayat Samitis or any institutions or persons which are to be paid through the Zilla Parishad by Government, (11) all sums paid by the State Government to Zilla Parishad to meet the expenditure towards the performance of any agency functions, (12) all amounts received from persons for supplying or providing services, facilities, benefits or amenities, (13) all sums realised by way of penalties otherwise than by way of a fine in a criminal case and (14) other miscellaneous sources.

The Satara District Fund is to be deposited in the Satara District Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Satara. The following are the charges to be defrayed by the Zilla Parishad from the District Fund.

(i) The monthly honoraria to the presiding authorities (e.g. the President, the Vice-President, Chairmen of the subject committees and Chairmen and Deputy Chairmen of the Panchayat Samitis).

(ii) The travelling and other allowances of the Councillors, members of any Panchayat Samiti or committee and of officers holding posts under and the servants of Zilla Parishad.

(iii) The salaries and allowances of the officers and the servants of the Class III service and Class IV service working under the Zilla Parishad.

(iv) Pensions (including contributions towards pensions) and other retiring allowances, gratuities or compassionate allowances payable to officers and servants and their families.

(v) The cost of acquisition of land and establishment of markets.

(vi) The cost of performance of agency functions entrusted to it.

The main source of income of the Zilla Parishad is the financial assistance received from the Maharashtra State Government in the form of various grants enumerated below :—

(1) 70 per cent. of the amount of the ordinary land revenue including non-agricultural assessment realised during the previous revenue year from lands within the limits of the Satara District (*vide* section 180).

(2) An equalisation grant equal to the difference between the amount arrived at on the basis of rupees two *per capita* of the population according to 1961 census and the amount paid to the Zilla Parishad under Section 180.

(3) 75 per cent. of the expenditure incurred in respect of certain specific works and development schemes transferred to Zilla Parishad. The grant is known as Purposive Grant.

(4) An establishment grant equal to 75 per cent. of the average annual cost on account of the salaries and allowances of the staff of the State Government transferred to the Zilla Parishad to be appointed in the District Technical Service, Class III and the District Service, Class III and IV.

(5) Deficit adjustment grant :—The duration of this grant is for the first five years of the Zilla Parishad regime. Thereafter in every succeeding year the grant is to be progressively reduced during the course of the next ten years.

(6) Local Cess Matching Grant :—Certain proportion (to be determined by the State Government) of a cess on land revenue collected at a rate in excess of the minimum prescribed by the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

(7) Incentive Grants :—This grant is to serve as incentive for speedier progress of the developmental activities of the Zilla Parishad.

(8) Grants for Plan Schemes :— These grants are meant for works and developmental schemes included in the development plan of the State and related to any subject included in the District list.

(9) Block Grants :—These grants are to be paid by the State Government through the Zilla Parishad to the blocks for carrying out specific types of works and developmental schemes in the block area.

(10) Advances to be made out of the Land Revenue Recoupment Fund for the purposes of meeting any deficit in the amount of Land Revenue grant (The deficit being due to the suspension of remission of the land revenue.).

(11) Grant-in-aid approximately equal to the extra stamp duty realised under Section (1) of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, in respect of the properties situated within the jurisdiction of the Zilla Parishad.

(12) Sums paid by the State Government to meet expenditure on account of the execution or maintenance of the works or developmental schemes entrusted to the Zilla Parishad by the State Government on Agency basis (*vide* Section 123).

(13) Other Sources of Income :—(Taxes, Fees, etc.) :—

(*i*) Income on account of the Local Fund Cess.

(*ii*) Income by way of a cess not exceeding nineteen naye paise per every rupee of water rate leviable under the provisions of the Bombay Irrigation Act, 1879 (*vide* Section 146).

(*iii*) Income by way of the following taxes levied by the Zilla Parishad :—

(*a*) tax on persons carrying on any profession, trade, calling or employment within the limits of the District,

(*b*) a general water tax,

(*c*) a tax on public entertainment and amusement,

(*d*) a pilgrim tax,

(*e*) a special tax on lands or buildings.

(*iv*) Income by way of fees in any public market :—

(*a*) a licence fee on brokers, commission agents, weighmen or measurers practising their calling therein.

(*b*) a market fee for the right to expose goods for sale in the market or for the use of any building or structure therein,

(*c*) the fees on the registration of animals sold in the markets (*vide* Section 157).

The balances of the former District Local Board and the District School Board as they stood on 30th April, 1962, balance in the ledger account of the District Building Committee (including public contributions) as on 30th April, 1962, the balance in the Pension and Provident Fund accounts of the Predecessor and the District School Board were Rs. 12,765·97, Rs. 22,317·57 and Rs. 8,729·44, respectively.

In 1962-63, the Zilla Parishad, Satara, expected that the following amounts would be realised :—

		Rs.
Government Help :—		
Land Revenue Grant	.. ..	16,50,000
Equalisation Grant	.. ..	6,89,470
Purposive Grant	.. ..	75,52,338
Establishment Grant	.. ..	6,31,861
Deficit Grant	.. ..	21,00,000
Plan Grant	.. ..	8,47,341
Block Grants	.. ..	14,04,500
Other Sources–		
Local Fund Cess	.. ..	7,12,800
Water Rate Cess	.. ..	1,34,040
Profession Tax	.. ..	35,000
Contributions from the Municipalities	..	85,930
Receipts from the Basic Schools	..	25,670
	Total ..	1,58,78,950

The expenditure on various items was expected to be as under :—

		Rs.
Education	.. ..	81,90,765
Medical	.. ..	4,05,044
Public Health	. ..	4,33,344
Ayurved	.. ..	80,893
Agriculture	.. ..	2,25,997
Animal Husbandry	.. ..	2,17,393
Social Welfare	.. ..	2,84,763
	plus	1,14,240
Co-operative	.. ..	28,746
Industries	.. ..	1,98,541
Block Expenditure	.. ..	16,79,500
Works	.. ..	29,45,278
Health Engineering	.. ..	1,89,754
Irrigation	.. ..	18,320
Pension, Provident Fund	.. ..	1,41,230
Miscellaneous	.. ..	2,30,325
	Total ..	1,53,84,153

SECTION VIII

General Administration Department.

WORKING ON VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS.

Introductory.—The General Administration Department of the Zilla Parishad came into being with effect from 1st May, 1962, along with six other Departments of the Zilla Parishad. The General Administration Department is headed by the Chief Executive Officer himself who is helped by two Officers in the Deputy Collector's grade, *viz*., the Deputy Chief Executive Officer and Administrative Officer. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer plays an important role in the Administration of Zilla Parishad next to Chief Executive Officer, as he has to look after the whole affairs of the General Administration Department in the absence of the Chief Executive Officer. Besides he is the secretary of the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. Prior to 1st May, 1962, the General Administration Department was not in existence but two branches of the Collector's office *viz*. Development Branch and Village Panchayat Branch were dealing with the development work. The Development Branch was headed by the District Project Officer in the Deputy Collector's grade and the Village Panchayat Branch by Village Panchayat Officer who was also in the Deputy Collector's grade. The important role of the General Administration Department of Zilla Parishad is to control the whole non-gazetted establishment of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis, to arrange for the meetings of Zilla Parishad and Subject Committee, to plan for the Development Works to be undertaken by Zilla Parishad and to keep administrative control on all Departments and Panchayat Samitis.

All Revenue and Village Panchayat matters of Zilla Parishad are dealt with by this department. According to the budget estimates prepared for the year 1962-63 the following provisions have been made for incurring expenditure :—

(1) For payment of Honorarium, T. A. etc., to President, Vice-President, Taluka Chairmen and Members of Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis	1,48,125
(2) Expenditure on staff etc.	1,18,382

II(*a*) *Staffing pattern of Panchayat Samitis*.—At present there are 11 Panchayat Samitis in the District which are headed by Block Development Officers who are Gazetted Officers in the rank of Mamlatdars. Formerly i.e. before the 1st May, 1962 the Panchayat Samitis were termed as Development Blocks. Government is now considering to fix the staffing pattern of Panchayat Samitis on the basis of population of blocks. For this purpose the blocks have been put into three grades as shown below :—

(1) Blocks having population less than 60,000.

(2) Blocks having population between 60,000 and 1,20,000.

(3) Blocks having population over 1,20,000.

In the proposed staffing pattern the above categories of blocks will roughly get the following staff :—

	Clerical strength.	Extension strength.
(1) Block of 1st Category ..	16	18
(2) Block of 2nd Category .	20	30
(3) Block of 3rd Category ..	25	32

There are 1, 4 and 6 blocks of 1, 2 and 3 categories in the District respectively.

III. *Powers, duties and functions*.—The Chief Executive Officer holds the powers as mentioned in section 95 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

IV. *Works and schemes undertaken and to be implemented*.—The Community Development Programme and the Local Development Programme were formerly dealt with by the Collector's Development Branch. The General Administration Department is now dealing with these two programmes. The details of the Community Development programme, Local Development and Housing Programme are as under :—

Community Development Programme.—The Community Development Programme started in Satara district from the year 1953 and talukas one after the other were taken up under this programme. At present all the 9 talukas and 2 mahals in the district are covered by Community Development Programme. They are in the following stages :—

(1) Stage one Block :—	Date of starting 1st stage.
(1) Koregaon. ..	2nd October 1960.
(2) Jaoli ..	1st April 1961.
(3) Mahabaleshwar ..	1st October 1961.
(4) Khatav ..	1st April 1962.
(2) *Stage two* :—	
(1) Karad ..	1st July 1958.
(2) Satara ..	1st May 1959.
(3) Patan ..	1st October 1959.
(4) Wai ..	1st October 1959.
(5) Khandala ..	1st October 1960.
(3) Pre-extension and Community Development :—	
(1) Man .	1st April 1960.
(2) Phaltan ..	2nd October 1960.

The schematic budget provision for these blocks is as under :—

(1) Koregaon ..	24 lacs. ..	For five years.
(2) Jaoli ..	12 lacs. ..	Do.
(3) Mahabaleshwar ..	12 lacs. ..	Do.
(4) Khatav ..	24 lacs. ..	Do.

Stage II—

(1) Karad 12·5 lacs	.. ..	For five years.
(2) Patan 10 lacs	.. ..	Do.
(3) Satara 10 lacs	.. ..	Do.
(4) Khatav 5 lacs.	.. ..	Do.
(5) Wai 5 lacs.	.. ..	Do.

Pre-extension in Community Development :—

Man	..	21,000	.. For five years.
Phaltan	..	Do.	.. Do.

The blocks have to incur the expenditure on the following sectors of development programme :—

(1) Project Headquarters.
(2) Agriculture and Animal Husbandry.
(3) Irrigation.
(4) Reclamation.
(5) Education.
(6) Social Education.
(7) Health and Sanitation.
(8) Communication.
(9) Rural arts and Crafts Industries.
(10) Housing.

The expenditure under the above heads was being incurred by the Block Development Officers prior to 1st May 1962. The same procedure is adopted by the Block Development Officers after the formation of the Zilla Parishad.

Rural Housing Scheme.—The scheme of Rural Housing was previously dealt with by the Community Development Branch of the Collector's Office. From 1st May 1962 i.e. after formation of Zilla Parishad, the Community Development Branch is merged with the Zilla Parishad and the Chief Executive Officer sanctions loans subject to the availability of the funds in the block budget. From 1st May 1962 loans to the extent of Rs. 5,448 in respect of 7 cases have been sanctioned.

Under the Government orders the scheme has not been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. The scheme is therefore, being transferred to the Collector of Satara and all the Block Development Officers, have been informed accordingly to send the cases duly enquired into, direct to the Collector for further action.

Local Development Works Programme.—A grant of Rs. 1,50,000 was placed at the disposal of the Collector of Satara for execution of the Local Development Works during the year 1961-62. Out of this sanctioned grant Rs. 1,18,455·51 nPs. were utilised on 15 Local Development Works up to the end of March 1962 and for completing previous works.

As no separate grants were sanctioned by Government the Finance Department of the Zilla Parishad has taken the matter with Government as District Funds cannot be utilised by the Zilla Parishads for Local Development Works.

Works and Schemes retained by State Government.—The Five Year Plan schemes which were dealt with by the Collector's Development Branch are now being dealt with by the Collector and the programme has not been transferred to Zilla Parishad.

Village Panchayat Branch.—Prior to 1st May 1962, the Village Panchayat Administration was run under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958. One District Village Panchayat Mandal was constituted for each District to perform the duties and exercise the powers, given under the above act. The strength of the Satara District Village Panchayat Mandal was 19, out of which the Collector; the President, District Local Board; the Chairman, District School Board and the Vice-Chairman, District Development Board were the *ex-officio* members. Out of the remaining, four members were nominated by the District Local Board and the others were the non-official members elected by the Sarpanchas of the Village Panchayats at one per Taluka. Generally, the meetings of the District Village Panchayat Mandal were convened quarterly. The total strength of the Village Panchayats in the district is 744 and that of the Village Panchayat Secretaries is 381. All the villages in the district were covered under Village Panchayats except 61 villages in Koyna valley in Patan and Jaoli talukas. As some of these villages are

submerged and the others are going to be submerged under the waters of the Koyna Dam, no Village Panchayats have been established at these villages.

Now, after the inception of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the control of general administration of the Village Panchayat is transferred to Zilla Parishad. The post of the District Village Panchayat Officer is abolished The District Village Panchayat Mandal is also abolished with effect from 1st May 1962. At present, the Village Panchayat administration is run at the Block and District levels under the general control of the Taluka Panchayat Samitis and Zilla Parishad. The staffing pattern of the Village Panchayat Staff is shown separately under General Administration Department.

Revenue Branch.—Prior to 1st May 1962 the Revenue Branch was not in existence. It is established since 1st May 1962. It consists of one Revenue Officer and other necessary staff. No specific scheme or work has been entrusted to this branch. However, the work of the following nature is done in this branch :—

(1) Grant of permission to the Village Panchayat to lease, sell or otherwise transfer lands vested in them for development work.

(2) Removal of encroachments on the properties and roads vested in the Zilla Parishad, and the Village Panchayats.

(3) Proposals for Acquisition of Lands for development works.

(4) Miscellaneous recoveries due to Zilla Parishad.

Social Welfare Branch.

The office of the Social Welfare Officer, Satara, is now transferred to the Zilla Parishad with effect from 1st May 1962. The subjects transferred to Zilla Parishad under Social Welfare are enumerated in the Maharashtra Government Gazette extraordinary, dated 1st May, 1962. Though the hostels therein have been shown as transferred to the Zilla Parishad, in actuality however, the hostels continue to be with the Director of Social Welfare, Maharashtra State, Poona i.e., with the Government in State sector.

1. *The genesis of the present Department.*—In the year 1928, the then Government of Bombay had appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. O. B. H. Starte, I.C.S., to investigate into the problems of the untouchables and to suggest various schemes for the uplift and amelioration of the Backward Classes. Early efforts were directed for long to emancipate the backward classes from the stigma of untouchability. The Committee viewed the problem of the untouchables from all angles and submitted its report to Government in the following year, with the result that the Department of the Backward Classes was founded in the year, 1931. It may be pointed out here that this was not a new beginning. Prior to this, Mr. O. B. H. Starte was already working as Criminal Tribes Settlement Officer, right from 1909. Government had opened various Settlements for rehabilitation of the Criminal Tribes in places like Bijapur, Sholapur, Hubli, etc., which were considered as the citadels of criminal depredations leading to high-way robberies, looting, and so on. This position was taken advantage of and the new Department for Backward Classes started functioning, as pointed above. In the initial stages the office of the Backward Class Officer, Bombay State, was located at Poona The Department of the Backward Classes looked after the admission of the untouchable pupils in primary and secondary schools, problems of segregation of Backward Classes from public schools, opening hostels for the Backward Classes, awarding lump-sum-scholarships to Backward Class pupils, watching their recruitment under Government, giving them lands for construction of houses and so on. This position continued till the year 1947 when the Government of Bombay repealed the Criminal Tribes Settlement Act, 1924, from the Statute Book and in the subsequent years the offices of Backward Class Officers at the District levels were opened to do justice to the demands of the Backward Classes who had by then completely been conscious of their political social and economic rights. The nomenclature, the Social Welfare Officer, vice the Backward Class Officer at the District level and the Director of Social Welfare in place of Director of Backward Class Welfare for Bombay State was introduced in 1957 and since then the work of the Social Welfare Department has been expanding progressively on more wider lines than hitherto, before.

The work of the amelioration of the Backward Classes has been channelised in three avenues :—

1. Education uplift.
2. Economic uplift.
3. Miscellaneous, pertaining to eradication of untouchability and so on.

2. *Working of the Department.*—The District Social Welfare Officer is the representative of the Director of Social Welfare at the District level. He is a Gazetted Officer in Class II and is expected to look after all sorts of educational and economic concessions and various other matters affecting the welfare of Backward Classes. The grants are released by the Director of Social Welfare and the Social Welfare Officer administers them in accordance with the rules of grant-in-aid in this behalf. Since the transfer of the District Social Welfare Officer to Zilla Parishad, there is no change in the pattern of work and *status quo* in the matter of the procedure of work has been maintained.

3. *Previous Committee and its abolition.*—With the transfer of the Social Welfare Department at the District level the Social Welfare Sub-Committee of the District Development Board has been abolished. Hereafter the subject of Social Welfare will be administered by the Standing Committee under the Chairmanship of the President of the Zilla Parishad. The Social Welfare Sub-Committee worked in the capacity of an advisory committee :—

(1) The Committee always discussed matters relating to offences emerging out of the observance of the Removal of Untouchability (Offences) Act, 1955.

(2) Award of prizes to villages for having done outstanding work in the removal of untouchability and propaganda of Backward Class Welfare Measures and observance of Harijan weeks.

(3) To provide information regarding grievances and needs of Backward Classes.

(4) To form a channel of communication between the Director of Social Welfare and the Backward Classes.

(5) To give their opinions on the questions referred to them by the Backward Class Board or the Director of Social Welfare.

(6) To help backward classes by bringing their needs and grievances to the notice of the local officers concerned.

(7) To adopt suitable measures for the removal of untouchability and other special disabilities and removal of harmful social customs among the various Backward Classes.

(8) To carry on propaganda work as far as possible among the Backward Classes.

Backward Class and Cosmopolitan Hostels.

4. *Administration of the Backward Classes Measures*—(1) *Grant-in-Aid*—Hitherto (up to 30th April, 1962) the grant-in-aid to Backward Class and Cosmopolitan Hostels were paid by the Social Welfare Officer. The grants were paid at the rate of Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 per month per inmate for ten months in a year respectively for boys and girls, on the sanctioned strength of the inmates of the hostels. Ten per cent of the inmates of the category of the economically Backward Classes (whose or whose parents' or guardian's annual income from all sources does not exceed Rs. 1,200) were also held eligible for the purposes of grant. The Government intentions in releasing grants on account of Economically Backward Class pupils to such hostels on 10 per cent of their strength were to give an incentive to the scheme of the removal of untouchability and to assist the backward class pupils to lead a co-operative life and to develop common cultural traditions. The backward class boys and girls pursuing courses up to Pre-S. S. C. stage, staying in Cosmopolitan Hostels are also eligible for payment of grant-in-aid on their messing allowances on full-cost basis. The concession of payment of grant-in-aid on account of messing allowances is restricted to boys and girls belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes only. It is however, observed here that this concession is also admissible to candidates who have failed in the Post-S. S. C. Course only once and who prefer to stay in backward class hostels. In addition to concessions of the payment of grant-in-aid at the rates pointed out above, the voluntary agencies also receive grants on the emoluments of qualified resident Superintendents or the scales prescribed by the Department at 50 per cent basis up to Rs. 100 per month whichever is less. Besides, such

managements of hostels also receive a grant on the rents of the hostel buildings which are duly certified by the Officers of Buildings and Communications Department as reasonable at 50 per cent basis. The non-recurring grants for purchase of equipments, utensils, clothing, beds, etc., are also paid by the Director of Social Welfare on the recommendations of the Social Welfare Officer, provided the managements pay 1/4 share of such proposed expenditures. Managements desirous of constructing the hostel building according to Government specification are also eligible to receive building grants at the prescribed rates.

The hostels continue to remain into the State sector with the Director of Social Welfare and the responsibilities regarding payment of grant-in-aid, inspections etc. will remain with the Zilla Parishad on agency basis.

During the year 1961-62, the grants paid to the backward class hostels in the district amounted to Rs. 1,82,147·00 for 1,152 inmates, and Rs. 14,386·00 for 104 inmates staying in Cosmopolitan hostels.

(2) *Number of Hostels*.—There are 35 recognised backward class hostels and 18 cosmopolitan hostels.

(3) *Grant of Recognition to Backward Class and Cosmopolitan Hostels*.—The grant of recognition to a newly started backward class hostels or cosmopolitan hostels are subject to fulfilment of conditions laid down in this behalf. The recognition is granted by the Director of Social Welfare on the recommendations of the Social Welfare Officer.

Educational Concessions.—All pupils of the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Vimukta Jatis, Nomadic and Semi-Nomadic Tribes are eligible for award of free-studentship irrespective of the age and income in all types of recognised institutions at all stages of education. However, in cases of boys and girls from the above categories whose or whose parents' or guardian's annual income from all sources does not exceed Rs. 1,200 their fees are reimbursed by the Education Officer of the Zilla Parishad to the institutions concerned. In those cases where the annual income exceeds Rs. 1,200 the fees are reimbursed by the Social Welfare Officer to the institutions concerned. As a rule pupils of the above category are allowed one failure between Standards VIII to X and one failure in the Standard XI. They become eligible for award of free-studentship on passing the Standard concerned.

The expenditure on account of the award of free-studentship. Scholarships and Examination fees to 40,055 Backward Class pupils during the year 1961-62 was Rs. 1,39,105.

(ii) *Scholarships*.—The scholarships are paid to the pupils of the Backward Classes of various categories at different rates on the basis of merit-cum-poverty and subject to the condition of availability of funds.

Rates of Scholarships to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes pupils.

Std. I and II	.. Rate Rs. 3 per annum.
Std. III and IV	.. Rate Rs. 6 per annum.
Std. V to VII	.. Rate Rs. 30 per annum.
Std. VIII to XI	.. (i) Rate Rs. 20 per month for first two S. C. & S. T. pupils who get minimum of 50 per cent marks in the previous annual examination and rank within the first 10 students in each.
	(ii) Rs. 10 per month for S. C. and S. T pupils who get 50 per cent or more marks in the previous annual examination.
	(iii) Rs. 5 per month for S. C. and S. T pupils whose last year's scholarships are to be renewed and who get 50 per cent. marks or below in the previous examination and subject to the availability of funds.
Students in Technical High-Schools.	Rs. 90 per annum.
Professional Courses	.. Rs. 25 per month.

Rates of Scholarships to other Backward Classes (Based on Castes), Vimukta Jatis and Nomadic and Semi-Nomadic Tribes.

Std. V to VII	.. Rate Rs. 30 per annum.
Std. VIII to XI	.. Rs. 60 per annum.
Students in Technical High Schools or Higher Technical Schools.	Rs. 90 per annum.
Professional Courses.	.. Rs. 25 per month.

Continuance of scholarships is subject to passing of annual examination, regular attendance, good conduct, and satisfactory progress. While awarding scholarships the cases of continuance are considered first and then fresh cases are considered.

Payment of Examination Fees.—Payment of examination fees for various recognised examinations in recognised institutions is made to pupils belonging to Backward Classes.

Sanskar Kendras and Balwadis.—With a view to inculcating habits of cleanliness, for socializing the children of the Backward Classes to develop corporate life, for promotion of leadership, better language habits, and the promotion of better cultural traditions, understanding and instilling nationalism among the members of the Backward Classes, the Government have recognised *Balwadis* and *Sanskar Kendras* respectively in the State. In this district there are five *Balwadis* and two *Sanskar Kendras*. The expenditure incurred during the year 1961-1962 was Rs. 3,112 for two *sanskar kendras* and Rs. 9,158 for four *Balwadis*.

Ashram Schools.—There is one Vimukta Jati Ashram School at Gondavale Budruk, taluka Man. The Ashram School is considered to be a superior type of institution for imparting instruction to children of the ex-Criminal Tribes, where lodging and boarding facilities are provided for, and the children are required to remain in the premises of the School. Prior to 1st May 1962, grants were paid by the Education Department to the School.

Economic uplift.—In order to enable the Backward Classes to live and pursue an honest life, Government have introduced schemes with a view to make them self-supporting. The schemes and the expenditure incurred on this account is given separately. A short description of the implementation of these schemes is as follows :—

Short Description of Schemes.

(1) *Repairs to Wells.*—To improve water facilities in or near Harijan localities as well as to induce the caste Hindus to avail themselves of water facilities near about Harijan localities and thus accelerate the pace of eradication of untouchability, subsidy of Rs. 750 per well is to be given. An expenditure over and above this amount, is to be incurred by the villagers themselves.

(2) *Aid for Housing to Scheduled Castes.*—The Scheme aims at giving financial assistance to individuals belonging to Scheduled Castes, whose houses are either damaged by torrential rains or the blasts of heavy winds which result into the houses being up-rooted or the roofs blown off leaving the inmates without any protection. With this end in view, financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 100 is given to the individuals from the Scheduled Castes for purchase of housing material like zinc sheets, wood etc.

(3) *Subsidy to Cottage Industries and Professions.*—Under this scheme, financial assistance is given on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis for taking to suitable Cottage Industries or Professions or avocations or making events in their existing methods of work. Assistance is admissible for taking to suitable cottage industries or to professions or avocations like hawking, brick-making, rough iron ware, cycle repairing shop, earthen pots, coir making, etc. The maximum amount of loan-*cum*-subsidy assistance is Rs. 500 (twenty-five per cent. being subsidy and seventy-five per cent. being loan). The loan is interest-free and is recoverable in fifty instalments. The recovery of loan starts after 18 months from the date of payment.

(4) *Grant of Loan-cum-Subsidy Assistance to Scheduled Castes for purchase of Cows and Buffaloes.*—With a view to encouraging the Scheduled Castes to take to cattle breeding and dairy farming and thus supplement their

income, cows or buffaloes on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis are supplied to them. Fifty per cent of the cost is borne by the Government by way of subsidy and the balance by way of interest-free loan is recoverable in fifty instalments. The recovery of loan starts after eighteen months from the date of payment.

(5) *Drinking Water Wells.*—Drinking water facilities in scheduled castes locality, especially in rural areas are extremely unsatisfactory. To improve the water supply facilities in Harijan localities as well as to induce the caste Hindus to avail themselves of water facilities in and near about Harijan localities and thus to accelerate the pace of the eradication of untouchability, subsidy of Rs. 1,000 is given which is the maximum subsidy. The expenditure over and above this is incurred by the villagers themselves.

(6) *Supply of Plough Bullocks to Vimukta Jatis.*—The scheme aims at supplying bullocks to the Vimukta Jatis who are agriculturists. The selling cost of an animal is fixed at Rs. 300. One-fourth of the expenditure is to be borne by the beneficiary and three-fourths by the Government.

(7) *Supply of Seeds to Vimukta Jati Cultivators.*—Some of the Vimukta Jatis are good agriculturists but their family conditions are miserable. Hence they are in need of agricultural implements, seeds, etc. at concessional rates for cultivating their lands. They are unable to purchase improved seeds at full cost and hence they are supplied with seeds at the concessional rate of half of the cost. The other half is treated as subsidy and is borne by the Government.

(8) *Supply of Agricultural Implements to Vimukta Jatis.*—Due to the poor economic conditions of the Vimukta Jatis they cannot afford to cultivate lands on a profitable basis even when the lands are allotted to them by Government as they lack the means, such as ploughs, bullocks etc. Hence they are supplied with ploughs at ¼ cost to be borne by the beneficiary and the balance of ¾ is to be borne by the Government.

(9) *Grant of Loan-cum-Subsidy Assistance to Vimukta Jatis for Cottage Industries and Professions.*—The scheme is implemented exactly in the same manner as mentioned against item No. 3 above i.e. Subsidy for Cottage Industries and Professions to *Scheduled Castes.*

(10) *Building Sites to Harijans.*—The residential localities of Scheduled Castes especially in rural areas are congested and unhealthy. The Scheduled Castes are too poor to purchase suitable sites. Hence they are given financial assistance to purchase suitable sites for construction of houses. The amount is not paid to them in cash but the land is purchased for them. The ceiling fixed for this purpose is Rs. 200. The deeds have got to be registered in the Sub-Registrar's office.

Development of under-developed areas

The following schemes are implemented only in three talukas i.e. (i) Mahabaleshwar peta, (ii) selected villages of western part of Satara and (iii) selected villages in Patan taluka. List of such villages in Patan and western part of Satara taluka is enclosed.

(11) *Supply of Oil Pumps.*—Agriculture is the main occupation, by and large, of the people of underdeveloped areas. The objective of economic uplift of these people will be achieved only if they are provided with every kind of help for modernisation of their agricultural system. Hence the scheme for the Supply of oil pumps to the agriculturists in underdeveloped areas is subject to the condition that they have at least six acres of land which is supposed to be economic land-holding per family. A pump costs on an average Rs. 3,000 of which 60 per cent subject to the maximum of Rs. 2,000 is given as subsidy and the rest by way of interest-free loan.

(12) *Grant of Loan*-cum-*Subsidy for Cottage Industries and Professions*—It is essential to have a more diversified programme for the economic uplift of the people of the underdeveloped areas. The scheme proposes to grant subsidy to the hawkers, bricklayers, umbrella-repairers, barbers, carpenters, etc. Financial assistance is given on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis in the ratio of 75 per cent. and 25 per cent, respectively. The amount of financial assistance does not exceed Rs. 500 in any individual case.

(13) *Supply of Plough Bullocks.*—In order to plough the fields, the agriculturists require bullocks. The people in underdeveloped areas are not

in a position to purchase plough bullocks with their present financial resources and hence bullocks are purchased for them. Ceiling cost of each bullock is Rs. 300. The entire expenditure is borne by Government.

Development of under-developed areas.

(14) *Supply of implements.*—Besides other facilities granted to the agriculturists of the under-developed areas, agricultural implements are supplied to them. They are unable to purchase new implements owing to poverty. Ceiling cost of each implement is Rs. 100 and all the expenditure is to be borne by the Government.

(15) *Supply of Milch Cattle.*—For the inhabitants of the under-developed areas, sources of income are very few. Hence milch cattle are supplied to them on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis, 50 per cent. of grant being loan, the other 50 per cent subsidy. Ceiling cost of an animal is fixed at Rs. 300.

(16) *Supply of Carts.*—Besides help in all agricultural facilities, help in transport is also one of the main necessities of the present day life. The people of the under-developed areas are not in a position to have transport for their agricultural goods. Hence they are supplied with carts. The rate per cart is fixed at Rs. 300. This is a subsidy scheme and expenditure is borne by the Government.

(17) *Drinking Water Wells.*—It is a matter of common knowledge that drinking water facilities in rural areas are far from satisfactory; and the facilities in the under-developed areas are all the more unsatisfactory. It is therefore incumbent upon the Government to construct as many wells as possible to provide clean drinking water facilities. Hence the scheme has been introduced. The maximum subsidy allowed under the scheme is Rs. 1,750 per well and any expenditure over and above this, is borne by the villagers themselves.

(18) *Housing.*—Housing conditions in under-developed areas are extremely bad. Subsidy to the extent of Rs. 750 per family is given in two instalments. The scheme is implemented exactly in the same manner and pattern as sanctioned under the Centrally Sponsored Programme. The beneficiaries are from one village only, and not scattered from village to village.

III Five-Year Plan Schemes.

(19) *Grant of Loan-cum-Subsidy for Cottage Industries and Professions to Scheduled Castes.*—The Scheme is implemented exactly in the same manner as per description given against item No. 2 above "Subsidy for Cottage Industries and Professions to Scheduled Castes".

(20) *Supply of Milch Cattle to Scheduled Castes.*—The scheme is implemented in the same manner as per description given against item No. 4 above i.e., "Grant of Loan-*cum*-Subsidy Assistance to Scheduled Castes for the purchase of Cows and Buffaloes."

(21) *Grant of Loan-cum-Subsidy for Cottage Industries to Other Backward Classes.*—The remarks given against item No. 19 above also apply to this scheme.

(22) *Supply of Milch Cattle to Other Backward Classes.*—The remarks given against item No. 20 above also apply to this scheme.

(23) *Milch Cattle to Vimukta Jatis.*—The remarks given against item No. 20 above also apply to this scheme.

(24) *Loan-cum-Subsidy for Cottage Industries to Vimukta Jatis.*—The remarks given against item No. 19 above also apply to the scheme.

(25) *Drinking Water Wells.*—The scheme is implemented as per write up given against item No. 5 above.

(26) *Medical Aid to Scheduled Castes.*—The Scheduled Castes, due to their economic backwardness cannot avail themselves of costly medicines. Under the scheme, grants are sanctioned for purchase of medicines, spects, dentures, etc. Grants may also be sanctioned for X-Ray, blood-tests, Radium Therapy and for undergoing journeys for treatment. Grants are sanctioned according to the merits of each case.

Miscellaneous Measures.—To minister the needs of the Backward Classes for their all-sided development, various measures at the district level are adopted and implemented. The Social Welfare Officer carefully watches whether the prescribed percentage of recruitment of Backward Classes in the various categories of services under Government is maintained or not. The District Social Welfare Officer maintains a list of Registered candidates for employment and is required to be consulted by other departments for recruitment of Backward Classes as per the lists supplied by the Employment Exchange Officers.

2. The Social Welfare Officer endeavours to redress the grievances of harassment received from the Backward Classes through the departments concerned.

3. The Social Welfare Officer has to sanction free legal assistance to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and Vimukta Jati's people.

4. The recommendations in connection with the registration of the Backward Class Societies are to be routed through the agency of the Social Welfare Officer.

5. The Social Welfare Officer guards the interests of the Backward Classes in the point of recruitment. He is a member of the selection committee for the Class III and class IV servants of the revenue department.

6. In disposal of waste lands to Backward Classes the Social Welfare Officer is invariably consulted. In the cases of grant of such lands to Non-Backward Class people, the Social Welfare Officer has to issue 'No Objection Certificate'.

7. He has also to look after the activities relating to Natya Mahotsava, Sangit Mahotsava, Tamasha Mahotsava, etc.

8. He has to scrutinise and recommend the assistance to be given to the artists and authors, dance, drama and music schools, wrestling instructors, trainees, etc. This assistance is given irrespective of whether the persons concerned belong to Backward or Non-Backward Classes.

Correctional Administration Wing.—The Social Welfare Department has two wings. The Backward Class wing and the Correctional Administration wing. The activities pertaining to the Backward Class Welfare wing are so far enumerated in the foregoing pages.

On the correctional side at the district level, the Social Welfare Officer of the Zilla Parishad has to visit Reception Centres, Beggars' Homes and Remand Homes, etc.

Statement showing expenditure and the Targets under the schemes implemented for the economic uplift of Backward Classes.

Serial No. 1	Name of the Scheme. 2	Expenditure for 1961-62. 3	Physical Targets. 4
1	Repairs to wells in or near Harijan localities.	5,250	7 wells.
2	Supply of seeds to Vimukta Jatis ..	200	33 Persons.
3	Construction of wells in or near Harijan localities.	10,000	12 Wells.
4	Supply of Khadi clothes to Vimukta Jatis	500	96 Pupils.
5	Supply of bullocks to Vimukta Jatis ..	975	6 Persons.
6	Supply of implements to Vimukta Jatis ..	200	3 Persons.
7	Supply of milch cattle to Vimukta Jatis (Subsidy).	150	1 Family.
8	Loan-*cum*-subsidy to Vimukta Jatis for cottage industries.	(S) 750	25 Families.

Serial No.	Name of the Scheme.	Expenditure for 1961-62.	Physical Targets.
1	2	3	4
9	Subsidy to caste Hindu Land-lords for letting their premises to Harijans on hire.	63	2 Families.
10	Provision of building sites for Harijans in rural areas.	2,000	10 Families.
11	Colonisation of Scheduled Castes ..	18,750	25 Families.
12	Aid for housing to Scheduled Castes ..	4,700	48 Families.
13	Publicity of additional measures for Backward Classes at fair.	94	1 Fair.
14	Loan-*cum*-subsidy to Scheduled Castes for cottage industries & professions.	(S) 1,500	50 Families.
15	Milch cattle to Scheduled Castes on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis.	(S) 862·50	6 Families.
	Underdeveloped Rural Area Schemes.		
16	Loan-*cum*-subsidy for cottage industries and professions.	(S) 3,000	75 Families.
17	Supply of plough bullocks	1,895	7 Families.
18	Supply of bullock carts	2,600	9 Families.
19	Supply of implements	1,000	10 Families.
20	Drinking water wells	7,000	4 Wells.
21	Housing	16,500	22 Families.
22	Supply of milch cattle	(S) 1,700	12 Families.
	Centrally Sponsored Schemes.		
23	Loan-*cum*-subsidy to V. Js. for cottage industries and professions.	(Loan) 375 (S) 125	5 Persons.
	Third-Five Year Plan Schemes.		
24	Loan-*cum*-subsidy to S. Cs. for cottage industries and professions.	(L) 1,125 (S) 375	17 Persons.
25	Loan-*cum*-subsidy to C. B. Cs. for cottage industries and professions.	(L) 1,875 (S) 625	26 Persons.
26	Medical aid to Sch. Castes. ..	300	5 Persons.

Publicity Branch.

Department as such, the Publicity Department is a separate Department. The following schemes, as shown at Serial Nos. 160 to 163 in the *Maharashtra Government Gazette*, Extra., May 1, 1962, were being implemented by the District Publicity Officer, Satara, upto 30th April 1962. With the enforcement of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, these schemes along with the staff have been transferred to Satara Zilla Parishad and are attached to the Social Welfare Branch :—

(1) Mobile Publicity Van.

(2) Organising District Exhibitions.

(3) Publicity through recreational activities, and

(4) Rural Broadcasting.

Publicity Schemes.

(1) **Mobile Publicity Van.**—The films produced and supplied or approved by the State Director of Publicity and those supplied by Government of India are exhibited in the District.

(2) **Organising District Exhibitions.**—Propaganda of the measures undertaken by Government is made in the exhibition through hand-outs, posters, etc. supplied by Government.

(3) **Publicity through Recreational Activities.**—Entertainment programmes such as Bhajan, Kirtan and Ballad singing, etc. are being arranged and carried out.

(4) **Rural Broadcasting.**—Radios are being provided by the State Rural Broadcasting Organisation to Village Panchayats and the routine maintenance of these Radios is being done by the staff provided for that purpose.

Works Department.

Works Department is one of the Departments merged with the Zilla Parishad, Satara. This Department is meant for carrying out construction works of the Zilla Parishad. Other details are as under :—

Before the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the construction works were under the control of Ex-D. L. B., Satara and P. W. D., Satara. After the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the following construction works are transferred to the Zilla Parishad :—

(1) Buildings and the construction works of the Roads and their repairs etc. under the control of the Zilla Parishad, Panchayat Samitis and Village Panchayats.

(2) Rural Village Water Supply Works and well works for the said purposes.

(3) Minor Irrigation Schemes of Bandharas under which 250 acres of land are irrigated.

Roads.

The roads of various categories are under the control of the Zilla Parishad and those are as under :—

(1) Major District Roads.
(2) Other District Roads.
(3) Village Roads.

The details regarding the name, length, etc. are given in accompanying schedule.

Buildings.

The following buildings are under the administrative control of the Zilla Parishad at present :—

Office Buildings.

(1) Old Local Board Office, Satara.		
(2) New D. L. B. Office, Satara.		
(3) Local Board Pharmacy buildings, Satara.		
(4) D. L. B. Office building, Koregaon.		
(5)	Do.	Patan.
(6)	Do.	Vaduj.
(7)	Do.	Phaltan.
(8)	Do.	Dahiwadi.
(9)	Do.	Medha.
(10)	Do.	Wai.
(11)	Do.	Karad.

Inspection Bungalows.

(1) Vaduj, (2) Javli, taluka Phaltan, (3) Adarki, taluka Phaltan, (4) Salpa, taluka Phaltan, (5) Deur, taluka Koregaon, (6) Medha, taluka Javli, (7) Pimpoda, taluka Koregaon, (8) Aundh, taluka Khatav.

Store.

(1) Store house, Rahimatpur (land only).

Dharmashalas.

(1) Taluka Satara	..	23
(2) Taluka Jaoli	..	6
(3) Taluka Wai	..	10
(4) Taluka Koregaon	..	25
(5) Taluka Khatav	..	37
(6) Taluka Man	..	40
(7) Taluka Karad	..	29
(8) Taluka Patan	..	13
(9) Taluka Phaltan	..	9

Veterinary Dispensaries.

(1) Satara, (2) Vaduj, (3) Wai, (4) Mhaswad, (5) Shenoli, and (6) Medha.

Medical Dispensaries.

(1) Dahiwadi, (2) Medha, (3) Patan, (4) Pusesavali, (5) Vaduj.

Ayurvedic dispensaries.

(1) Dahiwadi, (2) Khandala, (3) Koregaon, (4) Vaduj, (5) Ajagaon, taluka Wadi, (6) Malawadi, taluka Man, (7) Undale, taluka Karad, (8) Tarale taluka Patan, (9) Nimsod, taluka Khatav.

Boarding Houses.

(1) Karad	..	26 rooms.
(2) Patan	..	6 "
(3) Apshinge	..	3 "
(4) Pachwad	..	3 "
(5) Medha	..	3 "
(6) Koregaon	..	6 "
(7) Pusesavali	..	6 "
(8) Pusegaon	..	3 "
(9) Dahiwadi	..	3 "
(10) Phaltan	..	1 Hall.

Ferries.

Taluka Patan: (1) Yerad, (2) Sangwad, (3) Chafe, (4) Mandnul, (5) Tarale.

Taluka Karad: (1) Yerawale, (2) Atake, (3) Kalgaon.

Taluka Satara: (1) Gove, (2) Nandgaon, (3) Kashil, (4) Chinchner, (5) Mardhe, (6) Nisrale, (7) Venegaon, (8) Vechale.

Koregaon Taluka: (1) Dhamner, (2) Takale.

Javli Taluka: (1) Bumnoli.

Local Buildings under construction.

School buildings which are under construction are as under :—

1. Lonand.
2. Bhurkawadi.
3. Loand Women Teachers' quarters.
4. Craft Shade.
5. Kondawe.
6. Wadhe.
7. Awalichamatha.
8. Mardhe.
9. Yavteshwar.
10. Parali.
11. Khadgaon.
12. Mahagaon.
13. Borkhal.
14. Arale.
15. Pathakhal.
16. Degaon Craft shed.
17. Khed Craft shed.
18. Medha.
19. Kudal.
20. Wagheshwar.
21. Sawali.
22. Mahabaleshwar.
23. Malharpeth.
24. Shindewadi.
25. Saswad.
26. Ranand.
27. Dangarewadi.
28. Varkute Malavadi.
29. Rahimatpur.
30. Zarewadi.
31. Chanchali.
32. Dhumalwadi.
33. Bhadale.
34. Shirambe.
35. Apshinge.
36. Choudharwadi.
37. Dughi.
38. Pargaon.
39. Chitali.
40. Belawade.
41. Ranshingwadi.
42. Mayani.
43. Wakalwadi.
44. Chorade.
45. Bhurkawadi.
46. Garalewadi.
47. Vethane.
48. Craft shed Kaledhor and Khatgun.
49. Hanmantwadi.
50. Koparde Haveli.
51. Bhavanwadi.
52. Karve.
53. Jakhinwadi.
54. Nune.
55. Kalambe.
56. Surul.
57. Jalgewadi.
58. Derwan.
59. Murud.
60. Shedgewadi.
61. Helwak.
62. Rhine
63. Shivadeshwar.
64. Riswad.
65. Kadoh.

Wells.

1. Pilani.
2. Wanwaswadi.
3. Karanwadi.
4. Mulikwadi.
5. Nune.
6. Akhade.
7. Raigaon.
8. Bhanang.
9. Belawade.
10. Morawale.
11. Bhekwadi.
12. Bhilar.
13. Gadvewadi.
14. Rautwadi.
15. Kondawale Bk.
16. Malatpur.

17. Renawale.
18. Golegaon.
19. Jor.
20. Tathawade.
21. Andrul.
22. Adarki.
23. Nimbore.
24. Bibi.
25. Nandal.
26. Mahimangad.
27. Pachwad.
28. Ugalewadi.
29. Dhamani.
30. Pimpari.
31. Palashi
32. Gayadaryachiwadi.
33. Khandyachiwadi.
34. Kaswarwadi.
35. Injbav.
36. Gayadare.
37. Mogarale.
38. Diwad.
39. Hastanapur.
40. Khutbav.
41. Amalewadi.
42. Sitabai.
43. Shedagewadi.
44. Shindi Kh.
45. Kukudwadi Harijan.
46. Kulkajai.
47. Palwan.
48. Kukudwad.
49. Danewadi.
50. Zarewadi.
51. Katewadi.
52. Hasewadi.
53. Golewadi.
54. Dhumalwadi.
55. Koregaon Harijan.
56. Chimangaon Harijan.
57. Dhumalwadi.
58. Bhakarwadi.
59. Hulewadi.
60. Tadawale S. Wagholi.
61. Bargewadi.
62. Ambavade.
63. Water Station, Ram Mandir.
64. Water Station.
65. Padali Harijan.
66. Khamkarwadi.
67. Wagholi.
68. Khadkhadwadi.
69. Ekambe.
70. Kokarale.
71. Chorade.
72. Shirsawadi.
73. Diskal.
74. Gurasale.
75. Nawalewadi (Lalgun).
76. Nayakachiwadi.
77. Vadi Ranshigwadi.
78. Landewadi.
79. Dhondewadi.
80. Khatwal.
81. Kumathe Harijan.
82. Suryachiwadi.
83. Khatav Harijan.
84. Pachwad. Harijan.
85. Gosawyachiwadi.
86. Garalewadi.
87. Ghorade Matang.
88. Varud Charmakar.
89. Shenawadi.
90. Katakarwadi.
91. Holichagaon.
92. Trimali.
93. Bombale.
94. Shinganwadi.
95. Tadawale Harijan.
96. Ghogaon Harijan.
97. Shelkewadi.
98. Vadgaon T. Umbraj.
99. Yelgaon Harijan.
100. Kale.
101. Salshirambe.
102. Gotewadi.
103. Ganeshwadi.
104. Ghogaon.
105. Maskarwadi.
106. Gowarkarwadi.
107. Delewadi.
108. Gotewadi.
109. Parle.
110. Vahagaon.
111. Karawadi Harijan.
112. Virawade Harijan.
113. Supane.
114. Sakharwadi.
115. Indoli.
116. Malkapur.
117. Kirpe.
118. Naranwadi.
119. Shenoli Station.
120. Karawadi Harijan.
121. Hajarmachi.
122. Toraskarwadi.
123. Kusrund.
124. Naralwadi.
125. Goshatwadi.
126. Shiwapuri.
127. Vekhandwadi
128. Naralwadi Mandrul Kole.
129. Sonarchiwadi.
130. Tarale near Temple.
131. Garjewadi.
132. Kokisare.
133. Khabalwadi.
134. Kalantrewadi.
135. Chavanwadi.
136. Chalakewadi.
137. Kelawadi upper.
138. Sakurdi.
139. Sitaiwadi.
140. Galamewadi.
141. Gayamukhwadi.
142. Koujawade.
143. Asawalewadi (Diwashi).
144. Diwashi Harijan.
145. Dhanagarwadi.
146. Wanzoli.
147. Bagalwadi.

Bandharas.

1. Saigaon.
2. Bhivadi.
3. Karhar.
4. Naharwadi.
5. Bhadale.
6. Vikhale.
7. Goregaon.
8. Pargaon.
9. Unchithane.

LIST OF ROADS IN-CHARGE OF SATARA ZILLA PARISHAD.

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2	3	4
	MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS (Ex-D. L. B. ROADS).		
1.	Satara-Tasgaon Road. Sec. I, II, III.	29·25	Satara, Koregaon, Katav.
2.	Medha-Panchwad Road ..	11·28	Wai, Javli.
3.	Koregaon-Rahimatpur Road ..	8·18	Koregaon.
4.	Koregaon-Deur Road .	10·50	Koregaon.
5.	Rahimatpur-Targaon Road ..	7·00	Koregaon.
6.	Pimpoda-Sonke-Solishi Road ..	7·00	Koregaon.
7.	Umbraj-Indoli-Pal Road ..	9·05	Karad.
8.	Vang Valley Road, Sec. I, II ..	24 00	Karad, Patan.
9.	Vaduj-Katarkhatav Road ..	5·20	Khatav.
10.	Vaduj-Pusegaon Road ..	12·00	Khatav.
11.	Pusesavali-Shingnapur Road, Sec. I and II.	37·00	Khatav, Man.
12.	Aundh-Gopuj Road ..	2·55	Khatav.
13.	Vita-Pusesavali Road ..	5·62	Khatav.
14.	Shingnapur-Natepute Road ..	1·25	Man.
15.	Dahiwadi-Gondawale Road ..	3·50	Man.
16.	Mhaswad-Shingnapur Road ..	13·00	Man.
17.	Phaltan-Mogarale Road ..	11·00	Phaltan.
18.	Wai-Panchwad Road ..	6·75	Wai.
19.	Khandala-Lonad Road ..	13·00	Khandala Peta.
	Total ..	217·58	
	Roads transferred from Ex-P. W. D.		
20.	Satara-Shendre Road ..	4·00	Satara.
21.	Satara-Mahabaleshwar Road, Sec. I, II.	28·34	Satara, Javli.
22.	Old Poona Road ..	22·60	Satara, Koregaon Khandala peta.
23.	Malharpeth-Pandharpur Road. Sec. II, III, IV.	59·00	Man.
24.	Karad-Tasgaon Road ..	3·00	Karad.
25.	Phaltan-Adarki Road ..	16·40	Phaltan.
26.	Nandoshi-Gopuj Road ..	5·00	Khatav.
27.	Dahiwadi-Mogarale-Phaltan State Border Road.	12·27	Man.
	Total ..	144·61	
28.	Satara-Padli Road	10·00	Satara, Koregaon.
29.	Kashil-Pal-Tarale Road ..	8·00	Satara, Karad, Patan.
30.	Karad-Yelgaon-Mohare-Charan Road.	15·40	Karad.
31.	Pusesavali-Ogalewadi Road ..	15·70	Karad, Khatav.
32.	Vaduj-Ambheri Road	19·00	Koregaon, Khatav.
33.	Masur-Helgaon-Pedali-Surli-Rahimatpur Road.	12·25	Koregaon, Karad.
34.	Masur-Targaon-Rahimatpur (Masur to Targaon).	8·00	Karad, Koregaon.
35.	Karad-Dhebewadi Road .	16·50	Karad, Patan.
36.	Patan-Nate-Dhebewadi Road .	15·60	Patan.
	Total ..	120·45	

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2	3	4
	OTHER DIST. ROADS (Ex-D.L.B. Roads).		
37.	Kudal-Panchgani Road ..	8·04	Javli, Mahabaleshwar Peta.
38.	Anewadi-Saygaon-Morkhind Road ..	8·25	Javli.
39.	Medha-Valvan Road	22·66	Javli.
40.	Koregaon-Shendurjane-Dhadale Road.	11·50	Koregaon.
41.	Ond-Yeoti Road	7·25	Karad.
42.	Dhebewadi-Umarkanchan-Jinti Road.	6·37	Patan.
43.	Gudhe-Kalegaon Road	6·26	Patan.
44.	Manewadi-Yeoti Road	6·00	Patan, Karad.
45.	Vaduj-Mhasurne Road	11·50	Khatav.
46.	Vardhangad-Mol Road	11·00	Khatav.
47.	Mayani-Mhaswad Road. Sec. I, II ..	19·00	Khatav, Man.
48.	Nidhal-Malvadi Road. Sec. I, II ..	5·00	Man, Khatav.
49.	Kothal-Pass Road	3·25	Man.
50.	Mhaswad-Shenawadi Road ..	8·65	Man.
51.	Dahiwadi-Mardi Road	11·00	Man.
52.	Kambleshwar-Phaltan Road ..	4·00	Phaltan.
53.	Khandala-Kanheri-Loham Road ..	8·50	Khandala.
	Ex-P. W. D.		
54.	Phaltan-Shingnapur Road ..	17·00	Phaltan.
55.	Borgaon-Ashinge-Varve Road ..	4·25	Satara.
56.	Wathar-Targaon Road	1·00	Koregaon.
57.	Dushere-Kodoli Road ..	1·50	Karad.
58.	Dahiwadi-Malwadi Road ..	7·70	Man.
59.	Dahiwadi-Shevari-Ranand Road ..	7·00	Man.
	Total ..	38·45	
	Roads transferred from B. and C. Department.		
60.	Satara-Parali Road	5·75	Satara.
61.	Patan-Mandure Road	8·00	Patan.
62.	Garwade-Morgiri Road.. ..	11·60	Patan.
63.	Hol-Sakharwadi Road	2·84	Phaltan.
64.	Padegaon-Roodi to Sakharwadi Road.	9·36	Phaltan.
65.	Gokhli-Gunaware Road	7·00	Phaltan.
66.	Munjewadi-Gunaware-Mathachiwadi-Joining Phaltan-Asu Road.	16·00	Phaltan.
67.	Phaltan-Asu Road	16·00	Phaltan.
68.	Jinti-Sakharwadi Road	2·99	Phaltan.
69.	Murum-Tadavali-Kalaj Road ..	1·75	Phaltan.
70.	Kambleshwar joining Phaltan-Khunte Road.	2·00	Phaltan.
71.	Dahiwadi-Malwadi-Budh Road ..	10·29	Man, Khatav.
72.	Yavteshwar-Valvan (Satara East) ..	13·00	Man, Khatav.
73.	Charegaon-Padloshi Road ..	9·00	Patan.
74.	Missing link Kudal-Panchgani Road (Humagaon to Mahu).	3·50	Javli.
75.	Wai-Jor Road	18·00	Wai.
76.	Bhuinj-Shiwathar Road ..	10·73	Wai, Satara.
78.	Nisare-Marul Road	2·50	Patan.
79.	Tarale-Ghot Road. Sec. I, II ..	4·90	Patan.
	Total ..	157·21	

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2	3	4
	Village Roads (Ex-P. W. D.).		
1.	Nandgaon-Khojewadi-Apshange Road.	6·76	Satara.
2.	Nagthana-Padali-Murum Road ..	3·34	Satara.
3.	Limb Village Road	1·87	Satara.
4.	Varye-Dhawadhi Road ..	3·94	Satara.
5.	Kalamb-Akale-Kanher Road ..	1·87	Satara.
6.	Cemetary Road	0·75	Satara.
7.	Gondi approach	0·62	Karad.
8.	Shirwade-Masur Road ..	2·56	Karad.
9.	Aundh-Kharshinge Road ..	2·50	Khatav.
10.	Aundh-Kuroli Road	1·50	Khatav.
11.	Aundh-Mulpith Road	1·50	Khatav.
12.	Phaltan-Nirgudi Road	5·00	Phaltan.
	Total ..	32·21	
	Roads transferred from B. and C. Department.		
13.	Jaoli-Arud Road	2·00	Phaltan.
	Total .	2·00	
	Roads from Ex-D. L. B.—Satara Taluka.		
1.	Budhwar Naka Road	0·75	Satara.
2.	Vaduth-Dorkhal Road	2·50	Satara.
3.	Nisrale approach Road	2·00	Satara.
4.	Mahagaon approach Road ..	2·50	Satara.
5.	Valse approach Road	1·00	Satara.
6.	Majgaon approach Road ..	0·50	Satara.
7.	Lavanghar approach Road ..	6·00	Satara.
8.	Varye approach Road	0·50	Satara.
9.	Arphal approach Road.. ..	0·50	Satara.
10.	Songaon approach Road ..	1·00	Satara.
11.	Mardhe approach Road	0·50	Satara.
12.	Hamadbad approach Road ..	0·50	Satara.
13.	Tasgaon-Angapur Road	3·00	Satara.
14.	Bharatgaon approach Road ..	0·40	Satara.
15.	Degaon approach Road	3·00	Satara.
16.	Chinchaner-Vandan-Nigudi Road ..	2·00	Satara.
17.	Nagthana-Saspade Road ..	6·50	Satara.
18.	Khed approach Road	1·00	Satara.
19.	Kumathe-Asangaon Road ..	2·60	Satara.
20.	Pathkhal approach Road ..	2·50	Satara.
21.	Kudeghar-Vadgaon Road ..	1·00	Satara.
22.	Ingroalewadi approach Road ..	0·75	Satara.
23.	Kondawe approach Road ..	0·30	Satara.
24.	Kashil approach Road	0·50	Satara.
25.	Parali-Nitral Road	3·75	Satara.
26.	Nigadi-Angapur Road	1·75	Satara.
27.	Degaon-Kodoli Road	3·00	Satara.
28.	Vangal approach Road	2·50	Satara.
29.	Kushi approach Road	2·00	Satara.
30.	Nagthana-Sonapur Road ..	4·00	Satara.
	Total ..	59·00	

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2	3	4
	Koregaon Taluka.		
1.	Koregaon-Bhakarwadi Road ..	0·75	Koregaon.
2.	Sasurve approach Road .	1·00	Koregaon.
3.	Revadi approach Road .	0·75	Koregaon.
4.	Koregaon-Lhasurne Road ..	2·00	Koregaon.
5.	Shirambe-Nhavi Road ..	8·50	Koregaon.
6.	Pimpode-Karajkhop Road ..	2·25	Koregaon.
7.	Khamkarwadi approach Road ..	0·50	Koregaon.
8.	Palshi approach Road	0·12	Koregaon.
9.	Kinhai approach Road	5·00	Koregaon.
10.	Rahimatpur-Surli Road ..	3·00	Koregaon.
11.	Sonke-Nandwal Road	1·50	Koregaon.
12.	Surli-Nagzari Road .. .	4·00	Koregaon.
13.	Pimpode-Sonke Road ..	2·00	Koregaon.
14.	Tadawale-Koregaon Road ..	3·00	Koregaon.
15.	Apshing-Rahimatpur Road	2·50	Koregaon.
16.	Arvi-Haggri Road	2·50	Koregaon.
17.	Shindurjane-Diskal Road via Pandharwadi.	3·00	Koregaon.
18.	Kinhai-Chanchali Road	3·00	Koregaon.
19.	Satara-Khed Road	3·00	Koregaon.
20.	Targaon Station to Pusesavali Road.	7·50	Koregaon.
21.	Rahimatpur-Targaon via Surli Road.	8·00	Koregaon.
22.	Ambavade-Samat-Wagholi Road via Banwadi Road.	3·00	Koregaon.
23.	Sendurjane approach Road ..	1·00	Koregaon.
24.	Koregaon-Tadawale Road ..	2·50	Koregaon.
	Total ..	70·37	

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
	Phaltan Taluka.		
1.	Sangavi approach Road ..	1·00	Phaltan.
2.	Bibi approach Road	1·50	Phaltan.
3.	Mathachiwadi Road	1·50	Phaltan.
4.	Tardept Road	2·50	Phaltan.
5.	Kapaguon Road	1·00	Phaltan.
6.	Pawarwadi-Mharlewadi Road ..	2·00	Phaltan.
7.	Adarki Budruk-Hingangaon Road ..	3·12	Phaltan.
8.	Nirgudi-Girvi Road .. .	3·00	Phaltan.
9.	Factory-Khamgaon Road	2·50	Phaltan.
10	Jinti-Phadtarwadi Road .	1·50	Phaltan.
11.	New Phaltan-Asu Road .	2·50	Phaltan.
12.	Vidani-Sangavi Road ..	4·00	Phaltan.
13.	Padali-Nimbodi Road .. .	2·25	Phaltan.
14.	Jaoli-Karnawadi Road .	2·00	Phaltan.
	Total ..	30·37	

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
	Khandala Peta.		
1.	Ahire-Morve Road	2·00	Khandala.
2.	Sukhed approach Road	3·00	Khandala.
3.	Bhade approach Road .. .	1·00	Khandala.
4.	Khandala-Aswali Road	4·00	Khandala
5.	Naygaon-Mandhardeo Road	7·50	Khandala.
6.	Khandala-Harali Road ..	2·25	Khandala.
7.	Wathar approach Road	1·00	Khandala.
	Total ..	20·75	

Serial No.	Name of road.		Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2		3	4
	Jaoli Taluka.			
1.	Kharashi approach Road	..	1·75	Javli.
2.	Karandoshi approach Road	..	0·85	Javli.
3.	Kusumbi approach Road	..	2·00	Javli.
4.	Wagdare approach Road	..	1·25	Javli.
5.	Ozare approach Road ..	..	0·75	Javli.
6.	Kharshi-Baramure Road..	..	0·50	Javli.
7.	Kas approach Road ..	..	1·00	Javli.
8.	Songaon-Anewadi Road	..	5·00	Javli.
9.	Bamnoli approach Road	..	1·00	Javli.
10.	Uchat approach Road	..	4·00	Javli.
11.	Medha-Mahate Road	..	3·00	Javli.
12.	Rangeghar approach Road	..	2·25	Javli.
13.	Kurloshi approach Road	..	2·30	Javli.
14.	Akhade approach Road	..	0·75	Javli.
15.	Belwade approach Road	..	2·00	Javli.
16.	Somardi-Bamnoli Road ..	..	0·75	Javli.
17.	Borgaon approach Road	..	0·25	Javli.
18.	Dare approach Road ..	..	1·00	Javli.
19.	Medha-Gogave Road	..	7·00	Javli.
20.	Chorambe approach Road	..	0·35	Javli.
21.	Savali approach Road	..	0·35	Javli.
22.	Kenjal approach Road	..	0·25	Javli.
23.	Morawale approach Road	..	0·75	Javli.
24.	Ganje approach Road	..	2·00	Javli.
25.	Gawadi approach Road	..	3·00	Javli.
26.	Bhanag approach Road	..	0·35	Javli.
27.	Medha-Alewadi Road	..	....	Javli.
28.	Wadha approach Road	..	....	Javli.
	Total	..	44·45	
	Mahabaleshwar Peta.			
1.	Ambeghar approach Road	..	0·75	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
2.	Ghayatghar approach Road	..	1·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
3.	Bhilar Camp approach Road	.	0·50	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
4.	Asani-Bhogawali Road	..	2·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
5.	Jawalwadi approach Road	..	0·30	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
6.	Pancha-Ane-Rajapuri Road	..	5·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
7	Bhilar Camp-Ghoteghar Road	.	6·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
8.	Pratapgad approach Road	..	2·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
9.	Ranjani approach Road	.	2·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
10.	Wadhe-Pratapgad Road	.	3·00	Mahabaleshwar Peta.
	Total	..	22·55	
	Man Taluka.			
1.	Rajwadi approach Road	..	0·75	Man.
2.	Pangari approach Road	..	2·00	Man.
3.	Bhataki approach Road	..	1·00	Man.
4.	Bidal approach Road	..	0·75	Man.
5.	Palshi approach Road	..	2·00	Man.
6	Dhakani approach Road	..	4·00	Man.
7.	Divad approach Road	..	1·00	Man.
8.	Jalbhavi approach Road	..	6·00	Man.
9.	Malwadi-Shirvade Road	..	3·00	Man.
10.	Lodhawade approach Road	..	1·00	Man.
11.	Pulkoti approach Road	..	2·00	Man.
12.	Mhaswad-Dewapur-Lingare Road	..	5·00	Man.

Serial No.	Name of road.	Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2	3	4
	Man Taluka—*contd.*		
13.	Mahimangad Road ..	1·00	Man.
14.	Vadial-Lodhawade Road ..	6·50	Man.
15.	Gondawale-Narwane Road ..	5·00	Man.
16.	Gondawale Bk.-Kirkasal Road ..	5·00	Man.
17.	Gondawale Kh.-Panand Road ..	4·00	Man.
	Total ..	50·00	
	Karad Taluka.		
1.	Malkhed approach Road ..	0·50	Karad.
2.	*Indoli* approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
3.	Charewadi approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
4.	Vasantgad-Machi approach Road ..	1·50	Karad.
5.	Bhoyachiwadi approach Road ..	1·85	Karad.
6.	Narayanwadi approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
7.	Karad-Remtav approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
8.	Karad-Kase approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
9.	Karad-Kale approach Road ..	1·12	Karad.
10.	Parale-Banwadi approach Road ..	1·50	Karad.
11.	Sadashivgad approach Road ..	6·50	Karad.
12.	Ving-Kale Road ..	4·00	Karad.
13.	Supane approach Road ..	1·62	Karad.
14.	Belwade Kh. Road ..	1·00	Karad.
15.	Kalgaon approach Road ..	1·25	Karad.
16.	Goleshwar approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
17.	Virawade approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
18.	Kalwade approach Road ..	3·50	Karad.
19.	Bhagatwadi approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
20.	Mhaskarwadi approach Road ..	8·00	Karad.
21.	Kashil-Pal Road ..	3·00	Karad.
22.	Khondashi approach Road ..	0·50	Karad.
23.	Kapil approach Road ..	1·25	Karad.
24.	Wanarwadi approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
25.	Pal-Tarale Road ..	4·00	Karad.
26.	Kole-Potale-Yerawale Road ..	4·00	Karad.
27.	Kole-Tambave Road ..	3·00	Karad.
28.	Surli Road ..	0·50	Karad.
29.	Ane approach Road ..	2·25	Karad.
30.	Yerawale approach Road ..	1·00	Karad.
31.	Yeoli approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
32.	Mhasoli-Shelakewadi Road ..	3·00	Karad.
33.	Chore approach Road ..	2·00	Karad.
34.	Belwade approach Road ..	1·50	Karad.
35.	Belwade-Sakurde Road ..	2·00	Karad.
36.	Kale approach Road ..	1·25	Karad.
37.	Talbid approach Road ..	2·50	Karad.
38.	Malkhed-Kasarshirambe Road ..	2·25	Karad.
39.	Vasuntgad approach Road ..	1·25	Karad.
40.	Surli-Kamathi Road ..	2·00	Karad.
41.	Karad-Yelgaon via Kale Road ..	2·25	Karad.
42.	Narayanwadi-Atake Road ..	2·00	Karad.
43.	Dushere Road ..	2·00	Karad.
44.	Karve-Kodoli Road ..	1·00	Karad.
45.	Sadashivgad Rly. Crossing Road ..	0·12	Karad.
	Total ..	92·21	

Serial No.	Name of road.		Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2		3	4
	Wai Taluka.			
1.	Udare-Surjapur Road	..	0·75	Wai.
2.	Degaon approach Road	..	2·00	Wai.
3.	Virmade approach Road	..	0·50	Wai.
4.	Vahagaon approach Road	..	1·50	Wai.
5.	Vyajawadi approach Road	..	2·00	Wai.
6.	Wai-Dhawali Road	..	4·00	Wai.
7.	Yeaksar approach Road	..	0·50	Wai.
8.	Warkhadwadi approach Road	..	0·50	Wai.
9.	Chindhawadi approach Road	..	1·75	Wai.
10.	Kenjal approach Road	..	0·50	Wai.
11.	Kawathe approach Road	..	0·35	Wai.
12.	Wai-Parkhandi Road	..	2·00	Wai.
13.	Pasarni approach Road	..	3·00	Wai.
14.	Kikali-Panchwad Road	..	1·50	Wai.
15.	K·t's point Road	..	1·50	Wai.
16.	Chandak-Kenjal Road	..	2·50	Wai.
17.	Chikhali approach Road	..	1·50	Wai.
18.	Bhuinj-Ozare Road	..	3·00	Wai.
19.	Rautwadi-Katangwadi Road	..	1·12	Wai.
20.	Nhali approach Road	..	0·12	Wai.
21.	Vele-Hulumb Road	..	1·25	Wai.
22.	Bhiwadi-Gove Road	..	1·25	Wai.
23.	Khanapur approach Road	..	1·00	Wai.
24.	Kikali-Lagalewadi Road	..	2·00	Wai.
25.	Chikhali-Panchagani Road	..	1·50	Wai.
26.	Kanoor-Daryachiwadi Road	..	1·50	Wai.
27.	Sultanpur approach Road	..	0·62	Wai.
28	Shendurjane approach Road	..	0·62	Wai.
29.	Khadaki approach Road	..	1·00	Wai.
30.	Abhepuri approach Road	..	1·50	Wai.
31.	Jaoli-Karnwadi Road	..	1·50	Wai.
32.	Dhom-Abhepuri Road	..	1·25	Wai.
	Total	..	44·08	
	Patan.			
1.	Chopadi approach Road	..	0·75	Patan.
2.	Mhawashi approach Road	..	1·00	Patan.
3	Bahule approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.
4.	Shedagewadi approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.
5.	Ghanav approach Road	..	0·75	Patan.
6.	Vihe approach Road	..	1·25	Patan.
7.	Kokisare approach Road	..	2·50	Patan.
8.	Dhebewadi-Mandrul Road	..	0·62	Patan.
9.	Banpuri approach Road	..	0·62	Patan.
10.	Salkade-Kumbhargaon Road	..	1·50	Patan.
11.	Dadoli approach Road	..	3·50	Patan.
12.	Ambale-Murud Road	..	4·00	Patan.
13.	Walmili approach Road	..	2·25	Patan.
14.	Kumbhargaon approach Road	..	1·50	Patan.
15.	Murud-Maloshi Road	..	2·00	Patan.
16.	Mendh-Retharewadi Road	..	1·50	Patan.
17.	Jinti-Sattur Road	..	3·00	Patan.
18.	Sangwad approach Road	..	1·00	Patan.
19.	Charegaon-Padloshi Road	..	9·00	Patan.
20.	Urul-Thomase Road	..	1·50	Patan.
21.	Bhoroshi-Marloshi Road	..	2·50	Patan.
22.	Sangwad approach Garwadi side	..	1·00	Patan.
23.	Nisare approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.

Serial No.	Name of road.		Mileage.	Talukas through which the road passes.
1	2		3	4
24.	Sherigarwadi approach Road	..	1·25	Patan.
25.	Patan-Mandure Road	..	9·25	Patan.
26.	Nawadi approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.
27.	Nisare-Parul Road	..	2·50	Patan.
28.	Saspade-Konjawade Road	..	3·00	Patan.
29.	Manewadi-Yeoti Road	..	6·00	Patan.
30.	Kumbhargaon-Galmewadi Road	..	2·50	Patan.
31.	Sambur-Salwe Road	..	3·00	Patan.
32.	Dhebewadi-Kumbhargaon Road	..	4·75	Patan.
33.	Gudhe (Harijan) Road	..	0·50	Patan.
34.	Manewadi-Kalantrawadi Road	..	1·50	Patan.
35.	Dhebewadi-Maldare-Khale Road	..	3·00	Patan.
36.	Jadhavwadi approach Road	..	1·25	Patan.
37.	Gudhe approach Road	..	0·25	Patan.
38.	Urul-Majagaon Road	..	3·00	Patan.
39.	Kalewadi-Kolewadi approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.
40.	Bacholi approach Road	..		
41.	Mandrul-Kole Road	..	0·63	Patan.
42.	Mahind approach Road	..	0·37	Patan.
43.	Kumbhargaon approach Road	..	0·50	Patan.
	Total	..	86·99	
	Khatav Taluka.			
1.	Palasgaon approach Road	..	2·00	Khatav.
2.	Banpuri approach Road	..	1·00	Khatav.
3.	Khatav Feeder Both side	..	1·25	Khatav.
4.	Kharshinge approach Road	..	1·50	Khatav.
5.	Nimsod approach Road	..	2·50	Khatav.
6.	Hollchagaon-Mhasurne Road	..	3·00	Khatav.
7.	Visapur Road	..	3·00	Khatav.
8.	Jakhangaon approach Road	..	3·00	Khatav.
9.	Rawalvadi-Ramoshiwadi Road	..	1·85	Khatav.
10.	Kalambi Nagzari Road	..	2·00	Khatav.
11.	Chitali approach Mayani side	..	0·75	Khatav.
12.	Khatgun approach Road	..	1·00	Khatav.
13.	Chitali approach Mhasurne side	..	2·25	Khatav.
14.	Unchithane approach Road	..	0·25	Khatav.
15.	Jakhangaon-Khatav Road	..	3·75	Khatav.
16.	Pusesavali-Yeliv Road	..	2·50	Khatav.
17.	Palshi approach Road	..	0·35	Khatav.
18.	Kaledhon approach Road	.	2·00	Khatav.
19.	Khatgun-Gakhangaon Road	..	2·25	Khatav.
20.	Chitali-Mahuli Road	..	3·00	Khatav.
	Total	..	38·45	

Total of all Village Roads 558·01 miles.

General Remarks. One of the main objects of establishing Zilla Parishad is to bring about all-sided development of rural areas. The Works Department has its own role to play in this respect.

The following items are given prime importance in the development work undertaken by the Works Department :—

(1) School buildings.
(2) Water Supply.
(3) Digging of wells.
(4) Communications.
(5) Industries.
(6) Agriculture.

The provision of school buildings is absolutely necessary for expansion of Primary education and the construction of school buildings is being executed by Works Department. As regards facilities in Public Health, many works under

Public Health i.e. drinking water wells, piped water supply schemes, are also executed by Works Department.

In order to increase agricultural productivity small *Bandhara* works are necessary so that, the agriculturists may not be required to depend entirely upon uncertain rains. Works Department under the Zilla Parishad intends to concentrate all its attention on *Bandhara* works which will irrigate lands upto 250 acres. The role of roads is very important as far as development is concerned. Better roads (communications) will not only increase the efficiency of transport but also link villages with towns and cities. Agricultural and Industrial out-put will find market if good roads are available. The villages situated in the heart of hills and on the banks of rivers seldom come in contact with other villages and cities, which are fully or partially developed. This difficulty will be solved if the roads are improved. Taking into consideration the above facts the Works Department under the Zilla Parishad has formulated the programme comprising new constructions of roads and bridges, etc. In addition to this the Works Department, is directing its attention to the maintenance of roads which are under construction and which are already in use.

The Works Department has also taken in hand the work of maintaining *Dharmashalas*, Inspection Bungalows, etc., with a view to provide accommodation to travellers.

In short it can be stated that the Works Department is playing an important role in all fields of Development of the district.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT.

The topographical description and classification of Satara district is discussed in details in chapter I.

Considering the total rain-fall, climatic conditions, soil types, acreages under different crops and the limitations of irrigation facilities, the branch of the Agriculture Department in this district has to aim at additional production of food and non-food crops of this district, by the use of improved seeds, supply of fertilisers, improved methods of agriculture, exploitation of available irrigation resources, and crop-protection measures. For this, free advice is given to the average cultivator through the agency of the Block staff. The supplies of suitable improved strains to the registered seed growers are also made which brings about an increase in the yield of crops by 12 to 15 per cent. It is an established fact that adequate use of nitrogenised and phosphatic fertilisers increase crop yield, which can be further increased by 50 per cent. if irrigation facilities are available. Timely supply of such fertilisers is made to the cultivators through the different schemes. The supplies are effected through the co-operative societies. The improved methods of agriculture do contribute to increased production. Dummy demonstrations are organised to acquaint the cultivators with new methods and their beneficial results.

Schemes of Agricultural Branch.

The schemes, which were carried out by the Agricultural Branch, in the district before 1st May, 1962:

Taluka Seed Farms.

There are 9 Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms in the district, out of which 8 Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms were established before 1st May, 1962. Acquisition proceedings of the remaining Seed Farms are in progress. The object of the seed farms is to multiply and supply improved seeds to the registered seed growers. The seed farms should also serve the purpose of ideal farms, so that the neighbouring cultivators can adopt similar improved practices of agriculture.

The location and acreage covered under seed farms are as under:--

Name of Seed Farm.	Taluka.	Areas. A.	g.
(1) Shirval	Peta Khandala	35	05
(2) Medha	Jaoli	23	30
(3) Palashi	Koregaon	23	00
(4) Dahiwadi	Man	27	03
(5) Kadegaon	Wai	27	02
(6) Saidapur	Karad	32	05
(7) Kaloi	Patan	42	30
(8) Kashil	Satara	24	38

On 14th July 1962, the possession of the Taluka Seed Multiplication Farm, Vaduj, was taken by private negotiation and the seed farm was started. The working of the Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms is as under :—

(1) Agricultural Officer in the 1st grade at the District Head-quarters, supervises the work under the instructions of the District Agricultural Officer, Satara—one post.

(2) Agricultural Supervisors, I/c, Shirval and Kaloli Farms—2 posts.

(3) Agricultural Assistants, I/c, remaining seed farms—6 posts.

Taluka Godown Scheme.—Only two taluka godowns one each at Satara and Patan have been completed. In the case of remaining talukas proposals for consideration and acquisition of lands have already been sent to the Collector of Satara.

Expenditure and Receipts.—There were 27 schemes in operation under the control of District Agricultural Officer, Satara prior to the formation of Zilla Parishad. The total annual expenditure for operating these schemes during 1961-62 was Rs. 7,13,077.

An amount of Rs. 1,28,137 was given to the cultivators as loan under the Horticultural Development Scheme. The receipts realised for the year 1961-62 were Rs. 74,962.

Oilseed Scheme.—In this district, area under groundnut crop is 1,47,208 acres. Groundnut is the cash crop of this district. Therefore the scheme of multiplication and distribution was started in the year 1958-59, to increase the production of oilseeds. This scheme includes the supply of improved strain of groundnut namely Karad 4-11. This strain is superior to local seed of groundnut having 17 per cent. higher yield than the local one, with 75 per cent. of the shelling and 48·9 per cent. of oil. The scheme is sponsored partly by Central Government and partly by State Government with equal proportion of funds.

Blasting Scheme

There are limitations of canal irrigation in this district. Therefore, to increase the irrigated area, it is necessary to make the maximum use of underground water drawn by means of a well. To deepen the wells, it is necessary to remove hard or soft rock, i.e., the layer of deccan trap, which is generally found in the well. This involves lot of time by indigenous methods. Therefore, by use of drills the holes are taken and explosives are used for blasting, for which the Department of Agriculture has launched a scheme of blasting.

Fertilisers and varietal trials on cultivator's field.—The scheme was started in the year 1960-61. The object of the scheme is to determine the improved strains and suitable doses of fertilisers. The crops included in the scheme are (1) Groundnut K-4-11 and (2) Kharif Jowar-Shenoli 4-5.

Crop Competitions.—The village-wise, taluka-wise and District and State level crop competitions are being arranged for paddy, bajri, *kharif* and *rabi* jowar, potatoes and wheat in the district, from the year 1959-60 with a view to create a spirit of competition for increasing production. A farmer of Khatgun, taluka Khatav of this district produced 78½ B. Mds. of *rabi* jowar in an acre and won the State level prize of Rs. 2,000 during 1959-60. Another farmer of Mohot, taluka Jaoli produced 149 B. Mds. of paddy in an acre and won the shield kept by Dharamsi Morarji Chemical Co. Ltd., Bombay.

Fertilisers and Manures.

In order to fulfil the cultivators' demand for fertilisers, the District Agricultural Officer acts as a consignee of the commodity. Every year the demand for fertilisers is assessed and the supply is regulated through three wholesale agencies. These wholesale agencies distribute the fertilisers to the co-operative societies for further distribution to the cultivators. Other fertilisers are also supplied to the remaining crops as per requirement. The average supply made for this district is about 5,000 tons of Nitrogenous fertilisers.

Plant Protection.

During the year 1961-62, 150 compression-sprayers and 150 rocker sprayers were distributed to the cultivators at the 50 per cent. subsidy. Demonstrations of plant protection appliances were held at the taluka places. Agricultural and cattle shows were also arranged . The appliances have been provided on hire to the cultivators, which include hand dusters and sprayers and power dusters and power sprayers. One mobile squad was formed for preventive and curative measures against the swarming attacks of locusts.

Farmers' unions.

In this district, village-wise, taluka-wise and district level farmers' unions have been established. Total number of farmers' unions is 1,094. These are non-official bodies and are meant to push up the various departmental development programmes in the district by propaganda.

Agricultural Demonstration Centres.

With a view to acquaint the cultivators with the improved technique of farming, cultivating, etc, the Agricultural Demonstration Centres are arranged in the district. They serve as a model for the cultivators in the nearby area. There are 13 demonstration centres functioning in this district.

Green Manuring Scheme.

There is acute problem of supply of farm yard manure or compost for cultivation of crops due to increased area under irrigation and intensive cultivation. The need for such types of manure can be satisfied by growing crops for green manure like sannhemp, dhencya, sesbeni, etc. During 1961-62 and 1962-63, 714 B. Mds. and 1,280 B. Mds. respectively, of sannhemp seed was distributed.

It is advisable to have one pit of compost for one acre of irrigated area and one pit for three acres of dry area. During 1961-62, 2,442 town compost pits and 1,263 rural compost pits were dug and filled in.

Intensive cultivation of paddy—Japanese Method.

Two blocks (namely, Satara-Jaoli and Karad-Patan) each covering 10,000 acres, under paddy crop, have been taken up for growing paddy by Japanese Method of paddy cultivation. The cultivators are being supplied with improved seeds, fertilisers and financial assistance to cover entire area of paddy under Japanese Method.

Kharif and Rabi Campaign.

With a view to increase the production of important crops in the district, a campaign for covering the area under improved methods of growing *kharif* and *rabi* crops was started in the year 1959. The crops included in the campaign are (1) paddy, (2) *Kharif Jowar*, (3) bajri, (4) groundnut, (5) cotton, (6) *rabi jowar* and (7) wheat.

Pilot Scheme for Intensive Cultivation of Jowar.

With a view to increase the area under jowar crop by Poona method, a Juwar Pilot scheme has been taken in a compact block consisting of 46 villages in Karad Taluka of this district. The coverage last year, under the scheme was 11,586 acres for *kharif* and *rabi* season as against the target of 10,000 acres for the district.

Well Construction and Repair Scheme.

For construction of new wells and for repairs to old ones, tagai is granted to the cultivators through the Land Mortgage Bank and subsidy is given at the rate of 25 per cent. for construction of new wells. During the last year, the first instalment of loan of Rs. 27,89,400 was distributed to cultivators for 1,543 wells.

Oil Engines and Pumping Sets.

For purchase of oil engines and pumping sets the tagai loans are granted through the Land Mortgage Bank and subsidy is given at the rate of 25 per cent., the maximum amount of subsidy being Rs. 1,000.

Integrated Boring Scheme.

The scheme has been started from July 1960. A target of 400 feet boring work was attained by the Department of Agriculture. In all 5 boring machines are working in the district.

Split up of the scheme between the Zilla Parishad and the State Section :—

Out of the schemes mentioned above which were under the control of the District Agricultural Officer, Satara, before 1st May 1962, the following schemes are retained with the State Section of the Department of Agriculture

(1) Fertilisers and varietal trials on cultivator's field.

(2) Blasting of wells.

The following schemes are likely to be transferred, viz.:—

(1) Oil Seed Scheme.

(2) Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms.

The Government orders in this respect have been received.

Efforts are made with the co-operation of the Village Farmers' Unions at village level to cover the maximum area under improved seeds. Improved seeds are supplied by the Taluka Seed Multiplication farms. The suitable strains of improved seeds are determined by laying out the trials on the cultivators' fields and on Taluka Seed Multiplication farms. The response for the well construction scheme is very satisfactory from all the parts of the district and especially from famine stricken areas. The cultivators of this district have become fertiliser minded, as the results of the use of fertilisers are immediate and conspicuous. This indicates that the acceleration of development has started in right earnest with hopes of success in development of agriculture.

Proposed Schemes. In addition to the schemes already sanctioned under Zilla Parishad for the current year, it is intended to undertake the following special activities.

Groundnut Dusting Programme. In all 31,000 acres are scheduled to be dusted with B. H. C. 10 per cent. and sulphur against Aphids and Tika.

Mango Grafting Programme. The programme of country mango grafting is scheduled to be taken on about 1,000 trees in this district in Patan, Jaoli, Wai, and Satara talukas.

Cashewnut Development Programme. A five year plan to cover an area of 3,000 acres has been prepared under Cashewnut Development scheme for the western parts of the district. This year about 200 acres will be covered in Patan Taluka

Establishment of District Horticultural Nursery. To supply seedlings and grafts of fruit crops a district Horticultural Nursery is scheduled to be established on the site of Pratapsinh High School. Efforts will be made each year to cover an area of 150 acres under fruit crops.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY SECTION.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY. Introductory. The work regarding treatment of sick animals, vaccination of animals against various diseases of livestock and breeding of animals is being carried out by the Animal Husbandry Section in the district. There are 12 Veterinary Dispensaries and 14 Veterinary Aid Centres in the district. In addition to these there are 12 Veterinary Aid Centres opened by various Development Blocks in the district. The work regarding treatment of animals against the different diseases as well as vaccinations is being carried out by the Veterinary Officers and Stockmen working at these Veterinary Institutes.

The work regarding breeding of pure animals is carried out at the Premium Bull Centre, Gogave. Also the work regarding breeding of animals by natural service is carried out through premium bulls supplied under various schemes of livestock activities. There are 121 premium bulls and 262 premium cows supplied for the purpose of improvement of pure breed and for upgrading of local breed in the district. Similarly the work of breeding of animals is done by artificial insemination. This work is done at the five artificial insemination sub-centres attached to the dispensaries. The work regarding improvement of sheep is carried out at the Sheep and Wool Extension Centres in the district. Poultry development activities are carried out in the district by supplying pure birds.

All the above activities are controlled and supervised by the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara. The Livestock activities are specially supervised by the Agricultural Officer, I/C Cattle Breeding, Satara, and by the Agricultural Assistant under him.

Organisation Pattern The staff of the office of the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara, consisting of one Agricultural Officer, one District Animal Husbandry Officer and others, has been transferred and allotted to Zilla Parishad from 1st May 1962, along with the previous designations and pay scales. The twelve Veterinary Dispensaries mentioned below, functioning prior to 1st May 1962, are allotted to the Zilla Parishad :—

(1) Satara, (2) Medha, (3) Vaduj, (4) Rahimatpur, (5) Wai, (6) Mhaswad, (7) Lonand (8) Phaltan, (9) Nagthana, (10) Karad, (11) Patan and (12) Mahabaleshwar.

Prior to 1st May 1962, the dispensaries except at Nagthana and Mahabaleshwar were maintained by the Ex-District Local Board now merged with the Zilla Parishad.

The following 14 Veterinary Aid Centres are also transferred to Zilla Parishad.

(1) Parali, (2) Vaduth, (3) Kumathe, (4) Nandgaon, (5) Ahire, (6) Shirwal, (7) Umbraj, (8) Shenoli, (9) Ond, (10) Masur, (11) Tarale, (12) Dhebewadi, (13) Asgaon and (14) Bhuinj.

Similarly, Premium Bull Centre, Gogave and Sheep and Wool Extension Centres, Dahiwadi and Mayani are transferred to Zilla Parishad. Veterinary officers, stockmen, and attendants, who were at the above Veterinary Institutes are also allotted to the Zilla Parishad from 1st May 1962.

The compounders, dressers and attendants working at the former District Local Board Dispensaries have been allotted to Zilla Parishad.

The staff at the District Artificial Insemination Centre, Satara, has been recently allotted and transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

Prior to 1st May 1962, 8 Veterinary Aid Centres, were opened by the Development Blocks, *viz.* Koregaon, Jaoli and Mahabaleshwar (all 1st Stage Blocks) and the same have continued functioning under the Zilla Parishad. Recently four Veterinary Aid Centres have been started in Khatav Block. Similarly, separate Extension Officers for Animal Husbandry are working in the Development Blocks at Satara, Koregaon and Khandala.

Powers exercised by the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara, prior to 1st May 1962 were as follows :— Powers, Duties, etc.

(1) To transfer all subordinate staff in the district, lower in rank than agricultural assistants like stockmen and compounders within the district.

(2) To inspect all the veterinary institutes.

(3) To check the work done by the Field-Staff.

(4) To purchase bulls, cows, etc., for the various schemes of livestock activities.

The Animal Husbandry section has been completely merged in Zilla Parishad with effect from 1st May 1962 due to formation of Zilla Parishad and hence most of the above powers are not exercised by the District Animal Husbandry Officer, Satara, the head of the department now being District Agricultural Officer, Satara.

The following powers are now exercised by the District Animal Husbandry Officer :—

(1) To sanction all kinds of indents of technical nature.
(2) To purchase bulls and cows.
(3) To grant maintenance charges for premium bulls.

The District Animal Husbandry Officer .—

(1) Carries out inspection of all veterinary institutes in the district
(2) Inspects premium bulls, cows, etc., supplied under various schemes in the district.
(3) Attends cattle fairs and shows held in the district and selects premium bulls for awarding prizes etc.
(4) Effects purchases of premium bulls and premium cows and gives technical guidance in this respect.

The veterinary officer :—

(1) Carries out *post-mortem* examination and issues necessary certificates.

(2) Carries out treatment and vaccination of animals at the dispensary and also while on tour in the area within his jurisdiction.

(3) Inspects livestock activities in his jurisdiction.

(4) Issues fitness certificates for animals for whom maintenance charges and subsidy are granted.

(5) Attends outbreaks of diseases.

The stockman does the same duties as above except holding of *post-mortem* examinations and attending to complicated diseases, issue of certificate, etc.

Animal Husbandry Schemes.

The following schemes are implemented by the Animal Husbandry Department :—

Veterinary Aid—Under this scheme Veterinary Dispensaries and Aid Centres are opened. There are 12 Veterinary Dispensaries and 28 Veterinary Aid Centres in the district. During the year, 1961-62, 50,551 veterinary cases were treated and 5,709 castrations were carried out. Also 2,42,166 animals and poultry birds were vaccinated.

From April, 1962 onwards 16,179 cases were treated, 257 animals were castrated and 1,13,140 vaccinations were carried out.

Scheme for opening of Premium Bull Centres in Non-scheduled areas.—There is one Premium Bull Centre opened by Government at Gogave. Two bulls are kept at this centre and they are of the Dangi breed. The advantage of this centre is being taken by the cultivators of Jaoli Taluka.

Scheme for artificial insemination in Cattle.—There are five artificial insemination sub-centres, *viz.* at Wai, Karad, Patan, Phaltan and Lonand. These centres are attached to respective dispensaries and the work is done by the normal staff. The breeding of animals is done by artificial insemination.

Scheme for extensive work in livestock improvement.—Under this scheme there are 7 supplementary cattle breeding centres in the district. Each centre covers 5 villages. In all, there are 30 bulls and 180 premium cows located in the areas covered by these centres.

Sheep and Wool Extension Centres—The work regarding rearing of rams and up-grading of local breeds is carried out at these centres.

District Premium Bull Scheme.—This is a Third Five-Year Plan Scheme. Under this scheme there are 90 premium bulls placed at various places in the district.

Comprehensive Scheme for Construction of Buildings for Veterinary Dispensaries in the District.—Under this scheme, 4 Veterinary dispensaries have been sanctioned at Kudal, Panchgani, Patan and Dahiwadi, out of which the work of construction of buildings for veterinary dispensary at Dahiwadi is completed. This scheme was implemented by the Executive Engineer, Satara and will now continue under the Zilla Parishad. The scheme is included under the Third Five-Year Plan.

One veterinary dispensary at Koregaon will be shortly opened by the Zilla Parishad through Block funds. The following two Plan Schemes are yet to be implemented :—

1. Establishment of District Veterinary Polyclinic, and

2. Supplementary Breeding Centre and organisation of Breeders' Society.

The above two plan schemes are district level schemes.

Works and Schemes which are retained by the State Government Department.—The following two schemes have been retained by the Animal Husbandry Department.

1. Immunisation scheme.

2. Key village scheme.

The work regarding construction of buildings for the district artificial insemination centre and poultry breeding centre, Satara, is in progress. This scheme has been recently transferred to the Zilla Parishad. All the schemes will be functioning smoothly in Zilla Parishad and it is expected that more work will be done in future.

Education Department

Education Department.

Before the advent of the Zilla Parishad, education was under the jurisdiction of the State Government and the Director of Education was the Head of the Department at the State level.

Central Government schemes and the State Government policies regarding education were executed at the district level by the Government Inspectorate in the district. The District Inspectorate consisted of one Educational Inspector of Class I Grade, one Deputy Educational Inspector of Class-II grade and 34 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. All educational institutions in the

district were under the control of the Educational Inspector. To facilitate the administration of primary education, District School Boards were entrusted with the work of primary education. Secondary schools, primary training colleges and other technical and professional institutions were directly under the control of the Educational Inspector. The Inspector and his Deputies visited and inspected these institutions and recommended grants-in-aid. Besides this, the responsibility of the control of the primary education also partly rested with the Educational Inspector, as he was empowered to have general supervision over the administration of the schools.

The District School Board which is now a defunct body was composed of a Chairman, a Vice-chairman, and 14 other elected and nominated members. The Administrative Officer, who worked as the ex-officio Secretary of the body, was the representative of the State Government to guide the Board on Government policies in respect of educational matters. He executed the programmes chalked out by the Board for Primary Education in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee, a statutory body under the Primary Education Act, 1947. Teachers were interviewed, selected and appointed by him in accordance with the rules prescribed by the State Government. He had the administrative control over the primary schools, and transferred, promoted and deputed teachers for further training in consultation with the Staff Selection Committee. He was assisted by four Assistant Administrative Officers and two Supervisors in his work.

The academic side of primary schools was supervised and controlled by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors working under the control of the Educational Inspector who visited and inspected the primary schools. They recommended cases for opening of primary schools, grants to primary schools, etc. through the Deputy Educational Inspector who was their immediate superior on the staff of the Educational Inspector. Besides this, he performed several other duties for the promotion of primary education.

This was in brief, the picture of the administrative set-up with the powers and duties of the functionaries of the Education Department.

With the advent of the Zilla Parishad, Education on transfer, continues to function as one of the major and important Departments of the Zilla Parishad. There have been noticeable changes in the organisational pattern of the staff. With the formation of Zilla Parishad, the previous bodies like the District School Board, the District Building Committee, the Social Education Committee of the District Development Board and other Committees and sub-committees have automatically been abolished and their property transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

The powers and Duties of the Educational Inspector remain much more the same He is to act, hereafter, as the Secretary of the Education Committee of Satara Zilla Parishad, Satara. With the policy of decentralisation, a portion of the work formerly done by the Administrative Officer, District School Board has been transferred to the Block Development Officers of the Panchayat Samitis, and these are helped by the Assistant District Educational Inspectors. Bulk of the work regarding primary education still remains with the district level. The retired Assistant Administrative Officers and the Supervisors working under the Administrative Officer, District School Board, have also been absorbed in the Zilla Parishad and have been allocated to Panchayat Samitis to work as Assistant District Educational Inspectors at the taluka level.

The statistics pertaining to primary and secondary education which follow will give a picture of the educational development in the district. Information regarding Education of Backward Classes Scheme, *Gram Shikshan Mohim*, Scouting and *Bhondan* and educational organisations in the district is given in section IX.

Villages with schools	1,008
Towns with schools	15
Villages without schools	144
Primary schools for boys :—	
Under the Zilla Parishad	1,307
Private aided schools	110
Private un-aided schools	17
Total	1,434

Primary schools for girls :—	
Under the Zilla Parishad	32
Private aided schools	2
Private un-aided schools	Nil
Total ..	34
Senior basic schools for boys	264
Senior basic schools for girls	1
Total ..	265
Junior basic schools for boys	8
Junior basic schools for girls	Nil
Total ..	8
Single-teacher basic schools for boys	40
Single-teacher basic schools for girls	Nil
Total ..	40
Single-teacher ordinary schools for boys	586
Single-teacher ordinary schools for girls	2
Total ..	588
Middle schools for boys	393
Middle schools for girls	30
Total ..	423
Other primary schools for boys	143
Other primary schools for girls	1
Total ..	144
Urdu schools :—	
for boys	23
for girls	3
Total ..	26
Schools according to basic craft :—	
1. Spinning and weaving	66
2. Agriculture	209
3. Wood-work	33
4. Wool spinning	5
Total ..	313
Gat schools	163
Peripatetic schools	20
Central schools	1
Pupils in primary schools :—	
Boys	1,43,366
Girls	81,010
Total ..	2,24,376

Backward Class Pupils:

	Scheduled. Castes.	Scheduled. Tribes.	Others.	Total.
Boys	15,621	112	6,501	22,234
Girls	7,868	15	2,839	10,722
Total ..	23,489	127	9,340	32,956

Teachers under the Zilla Parishad:

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Trained	3,403	480	3,883
Untrained	1,007	144	1,151
Total ..	4,410	624	5,034

Teachers in Private Aided Schools:

	Men	Women.	Total.
Trained	38	12	50
Untrained	120	13	133
Total ..	158	25	183

Teachers in Private Un-aided Schools:

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Trained	2	7	9
Untrained	19	1	20
Total ..	21	8	29

Pupils in Urdu Schools:

Boys	2,294
Girls	802
Total ..	3,096
No. of Urdu teachers	68
Villages under compulsory education.	1,008

Pupils under compulsory education:

	Urban.	Rural.	Total.	Total number of pupils
Boys ..	8,013	69,748	77,761	1,29,543
Girls	5,710	46,072	51,782	

Hostels for backward class pupils:

Boys	112
Girls	*Nil.*
Total ..	112

Ashram school:

1 At Gondavle Bk. taluka Man.

School buildings:

Owned.	Rented.	Rent-free.	Total.
591	391	1,626	2,608

Out of the 591 buildings owned by the Education Department, 117 buildings are constructed by the District Building Committee at a cost of Rs. 20,67,413.

Expenditure on primary education (1961-62).

	Rs.
On salary of teachers including allowances ..	62,23,243
School contingency	52,187
Equipment expenditure	00,709
Total expenditure on buildings	2,26,309
Medical services and mid-day meals etc	5,071
Equipment for physical education	1,749
Schools under local authority	65,32,752
Aided schools	1,94,794

Statement showing the information of secondary schools, multipurpose schools, technical schools etc. in Satara district as on 31st March, 1962.

(1) Number of secondary schools : Teaching upto Std.

			XI	X	IX	VIII
Government	..	1	1			
Non-Government	..	148	66	22	44	16
Total	..	149	67	22	44	16

(2) Number of multipurpose schools :

Government ..	.	1
Non-Government	..	5
Total	..	6

Boys.	Girls.	Total.
3	3	6

Courses.—Commercial, Agricultural, Technical, Home Science 3, Fine Arts 1, Agriculture 2.

(3) Number of secondary schools preparing students for technical education:

Government ..	..	1
Non-Government	..	7
Total	..	8

(4) Number of vocational schools :

Government ..	..	....
Non-Government	..	2
Total	..	2

(5) Total Number of students :

Boys ..	..	16,915
Girls ..	..	4,346
Total	..	21,261

(6) Total Number of teachers :

Trained ..	..	581
Un-Trained ..	..	471
Total	..	1,052
Gents ..	..	873
Ladies ..	..	179
Total	...	1,052

(7) Total Number of National Cadet Corps Units:— 2 Units of 60 cadets each.

(8) Total Number of Auxiliary Cadet Corps Units:— 29 Units of 60 cadets each.

(9) Total grants paid :

Maintenance.	3·5% Free-ships.	C. S. M. Freeships.	War. concessions.
8,92,567	33,184.25	988	3,624

	C. S. M.	3·5%	War concessions.
(10) Number of schools receiving the grant.	10	48	16
(11) Number of beneficiaries ..	17	516	54

Statement showing the building grants paid under Liberalised Scheme to Non-Government Primary Training Colleges for the construction of college and hostel buildings during the years 1959-60, 1960-61 and 1961-62.

Serial No.	Name of the Training College.	Purpose for which the grant was sanctioned.	Total grant sanctioned.	Amount of grant paid in 1959-60.	Amount of grant paid in 1960-61.	Amount of grant paid in 1961-62.	Net balance of grant to be paid.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Jijamata Adhyapan Vidyalaya, Satara.	College Building ..	35,000	17,500	8,750	6,250	....
2	Mahatma Phule Adhyapak Vidyalaya, Satara.	Do ..	35,000	17,500	8,750	8,750	....
3	Adhyapan Vidyalaya, Kusur ..	Hostel Building ..	15,000	7,500	3,750	3,750	....
4	Kamla Nehru Adhyapan Vidya Mandir, Karad.	College Building .	26,000	13,000	6,500	6,400	100
5	Do. do. ..	Hostel Building ..	27,000	13,500	6,750	5,350	1,400
6	Gurujan Adhyapan Vidya Mandir, Patan.	College Building ..	39,000	19,500	9,750	....	9,750
7	Do. do. ..	Hostel Building ..	73,000	36,500	18,250	....	18,250
8	Primary Training College for Men, Rahimatpur.	College Building ..	8,500	4,250	2,125	2,125	....
	Grand Total ..		2,58,500	1,29,250	64,625	32,625	29,500

VILLAGE LIBRARIES AND SCOUTING.

Village libraries	720
Circulating libraries	144
Social education centres	155
Villages served	1,253
Number of groups (scouts-girl guides) ..	680
Number of scouts and girl guides	14,861
Number of scouts training camps conducted ..	4
Number of scouts rallies conducted in the district ..	92
District scouts rally	1 (This was attended by 182 troops with 4,347 scouts and guides).

HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT. Introductory.

Under the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, all responsibilities regarding public health and medical aid in rural areas have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad. As such the Public Health Staff and Medical Staff (except that of the Civil Hospital and Cottage Hospitals) formerly working under Public Health Department, Medical Department and Ex-District Local Board, has been transferred to the Zilla Parishad, Satara, from 1st May 1962. The District Health Officer, Zilla Parishad, Satara, is the head of the newly formed Health Department of the Zilla Parishad. The work is being carried out as per scheme noted below :—

District Health Organisation.

The main work allotted to the Staff under the scheme is control of epidemics like cholera, small-pox, plague, influenza etc., and village sanitation, disinfection of village water supply, public health propaganda, construction of soakage pits, smokeless chulas, trench latrines, rural medical aid, inspection of sites from the public health point of view, sanitary arrangements at fairs, etc.

Mobile Hygiene Unit.

The staff under the scheme is mainly appointed for anti-epidemic work and rural medical aid. As soon as the intimation of the outbreak of an epidemic is received, the staff is directed to visit the village forthwith. As transport is provided, the staff visits the affected village within a very short time and adopts preventive measures and checks the further spread of the epidemic. During the non-epidemic period the staff along with the Epidemic Medical Officer visits villages for rural medical aid, disinfection of water supplies, public health propaganda, demonstrations, etc. A Sanitary Inspector with necessary staff is working under the Scheme. The staff and scheme is still continued under the Zilla Parishad as before.

Vaccination.—The main work assigned to the staff is to vaccinate all children under one year of age, and also to revaccinate every year 1/5th of the total population in their charge. The work of vaccination in the district has been allotted to 26 vaccinators and 5 Sanitary Sub-Inspectors (4 under District Health Organisation Scheme and one under Primary Health Unit). The population in the district is so divided that each of the vaccination unit is allotted a population of not more than about 45,000. The staff also performs revaccination whenever small-pox epidemic breaks out. In all there are 24 vaccinators, 2 apprentice vaccinators and their assistants. The above staff is working as before and there has been no change so far after 1st May 1962.

Primary Health Centres and Maternity and Child Health Centres.—Eight Primary Health Centres have been established during the Second Five-Year Plan period at the following places :—

	Primary Health Centres.	Taluka/Peta.
1.	Indoli	Karad.
2.	Vadgaon-Haveli	Karad.
3.	Patan	Patan.
4.	Dhebewadi	Patan.
5.	Nagthana	Satara.
6.	Kavathe	Wai.
7.	Khandala	Khandala.
8.	Wathar-Kiroli	Koregaon.

These centres are in charge of seven Medical Officers assisted by nurses, mid-wives, compounders, etc.

The Duties assigned to the staff are as under :—

Medical Officer.—He is responsible for both the curative and preventive work in the area. He attends the dispensary in morning and visits sub-centres for rendering medical aid in the afternoon. He carries health survey, supervises the work of Medical and Public Health Staff, sanitation, school health work and control of epidemics.

Health Visitor or Nurse-Midwife.—She is responsible for development of maternal and child health service and conducts clinics at the main centre and sub-centres; visits houses, trains local *dais*, assists the Medical Officer in school health and prepares evaluation report of work done in the area, supervises the work of midwives and *dais* and of milk distributors, etc.

Midwives.—To conduct deliveries in maternity homes and houses, to train *dais*, to advise expectant mothers, bring them to the centres and to assist the Health Visitors in conducting clinics.

Sanitary Inspectors.—To carry out health survey and health plan chalked on the basis of the survey. Collection of vital statistics and carrying out environmental sanitation programme. Public health propaganda to carry out preventive measures against epidemics, etc. At each Sub-Centre one mid-wife is posted. She carries out maternity and child health work and domiciliary deliveries under the supervision of Medical Officer and Health Visitors.

Maternity and Child Health Centres.—There are two Maternity and Child Health Centres one at Patan and the other at Aundh (Taluka Khatav), each under a health visitor and a midwife. Their duties are the same as described above and they are allotted an area covering a population of 20,000.

Mobile Dispensary.—The mobile dispensary with a medical officer and the staff under him has been transferred to the Zilla Parishad from May 1962. The above staff is rendering medical aid to areas where there are no medical facilities.

The hospitals and dispensaries both allopathic and ayurvedic are at the following places :—

1. Morarji Gokuldas Hospital, Mahabaleshwar.

2. Allopathic dispensaries are at Phaltan, Aundh, Wai, Rahimatpur, Mhaswad, Dahiwadi, Panchgani, Patan, Medha, Pusesavali, Vaduj and Kole.

The Medical Officers of allopathic dispensaries including municipal dispensaries and primary health centres carry out medico-legal work.

3. Ayurvedic dispensaries at Sadashivgad, Malvadi, Nimsod, Asgaon, Shirwal, Lonand, Asvali, Bhadale, Koregaon, Nimblak, Adrki, Taradgaon, Kharshi-Baramure, Bamnoli, Dhebewadi, Tarale and Kumathe.

Subsidised Medical Practitioner's Centres.—In the areas where there are no medical facilities available, 21 subsidised medical praction's centres are functioning, as shown below :—

Taluka.	Places.
Satara	Parali, Lumb, Vaduj, Chinchner-Vandan.
Koregaon	Pimpode Bk., Kinhai.
Wai	Dhom.
Phaltan	Girvi.
Khandala	Javale.
Jauli	Gogave, Kudal.
Karad	Undale, Kiwal, Mhopre, Rethare.
Patan	Bahule Chaphal, Helwak.
Khatav	Pusegaon, Kaledhon
Man	Kukudwad.

Average daily attendance at each of the subsidised medical practitioner's centres is about 20 to 25.

Pharmacy.—The staff in the Ayurvedic Pharmacy prepares ayurvedic medicines required by the ayurvedic dispensaries and subsidised medical practitioner's centres.

Schemes Transferred on Agency Basis.

Family Planning.—There are in all nine Family Planning Centres one each at Mahabaleshwar, Koyna, Nagthana, Indoli, Vadgaon-Haveli, Patan, Dhebewadi, Wathar-Kiroli and Kavathe. These centres are under a social worker or a field worker except at Mahabaleshwar where a male and a lady doctor are placed.

The main work allotted to the staff is to popularise the modern ways and means of family planning, distribute contraceptives and collect cases for vasectomy and tubuctomy operations.

Survey, Education and Treatment Units.—There are in all eleven Survey, Education and Treatment Units (six under the Health Department and two from Blocks) each with one Leprosy Assistant at Patan, Phaltan, Wai, Aundh, Mhaswad, Shirwal, Lonand, Dhebewadi, Nagthana, Indoli, Koregaon, and at Satara, with a non-medical assistant.

Estimated annual expenditure (itemwise) :—

		Rs.
1.	Morarji Gokuldas Hospital, Mahabaleshwar ..	20,330
2.	Dispensaries :—	67,189
	Allopathic .. 2	
	Mobile .. 1	
	State .. 2	
	Grant-in-aid .. 4	
3.	Ayurvedic Dispensaries-18	79,641
4.	Subsidised Medical Practitioner's Centres-21 ..	84,422
5.	Primary Health Centres-7	2,00,745
6.	Mobile Hygiene Unit-1	9,871
7.	C. M. P. H. Units-2	26,931
8.	Vaccination	53,059
9.	M. C. H. Centres-2	7,920
10.	Fairs	4,000
11.	Schemes in Third Five-Year Plan	13,855
12.	Epidemics	15,000
13.	Pharmacy	13,342
14.	D. H. Organisation	69,284
15.	Contribution to Municipalities	7,300
16.	Anti-Rabic Treatment	370
	Total ..	6,23,259

Receipt Statement.—Following are the items on the receipt side of the Public Health and Medical Section :—

Medical :—

	Rs.
1. Hospital and Dispensaries Fees—	
(1) Ayurvedic and allopathic dispensaries (8 plus 6)-14 ..	11,880
(2) State dispensaries-2	850
(3) Mobile dispensary	1,100
(4) Morarji Gokuldas Hospital, Mahabaleshwar ..	4,000
(5) Primary health centres and units	4,000
(6) Injection fees	3,500
Total ..	25,330

	Rs.
2. Contribution :—	
Contribution from Municipalities—	
Karad	1,134
Phaltan	535
Wai	710
Total ..	2,379

		Rs.
3. Miscellaneous :—		
Sale of pharmacy receipt	.. .. ..	15,000
Grant received from U. W. R. Kole	.. ..	2,050
	Total ..	17,050
4. Public Health :—		
Contribution from municipalities		
	Total ..	3,454
5. Fairs :—		
Pilgrim taxes—		
Shingnapur fair	.. .. ..	29,000
Mandhardeo fair	.. .. ..	1,400
	Total ..	30,400
6. Other receipts :—		
Charges of vehicles	.. .. ..	2,800
Visitors	.. .. ..	100
Receipt for vaccine extracts..	.. ..	25
	Total ..	2,925
	Grand Total ..	81,538

Powers, duties and functions of the Head of the Office and other subordinates prior to 1st May 1962 and also after 1st May 1962, are as given below :—

Prior to 1st May 1962 the District Health Officer, Satara, was the head of all the public health activities in the district. He was responsible for anti-epidemic measures, general sanitation in the district, sanitary arrangements during fairs, public health propaganda, inspection of primary health centres, maternity and child health centres, family planning work, anti-leprosy work and execution of public health schemes sanctioned by Government.

Since 1st May 1962, the medical institutions such as Morarji Gokuldas Hospital, dispensaries, taluka dispensaries, subsidised medical practitioner's centres and ayurvedic dispesaries in the district under the control of Ex-D. L. B., Satara, and Medical Department, have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad the District Health Officer, Zilla Parishad, Satara, is responsible for the work of the above institutions in addition to the duties enumerated above. He is also responsible for execution of medical schemes that will be sanctioned by the Zilla Parishad.

Works and schemes undertaken by the Department and schemes which are to be implemented in future :—

During the first and second Five-Year Plans the following schemes have been undertaken :—

1. Two maternity and child health centres have been established in Khatav and Patan talukas.

2. Seven Primary Health Centres have been established at Nagthana, Indoli, Vadgaon-Haveli, Patan, Dhebewadi, Kavathe and Khandala.

3. *Family Planning Programme*.—Nine family planning centres have been established at Nagthana, Indoli, Vadgaon-Haveli, Patan, Dhebewadi, Kavathe, Wathar-Kiroli, Mahabaleshwar and Koynanagar. In addition to these, grant-in-aid for the family planning clinic run by Vanita Samaj, Sakharwadi has been given and the case for grant-in-aid to family planning clinic started by Panchgani Municipality is recommended.

4. *Leprosy Control Programme*.—From control of leprosy the following institutions were sanctioned by Government, during Second Five-Year Plan period :—

(*i*) Leprosy Clinic attached to Civil Hospital, Satara.

(*ii*) Leprosy Subsidiary Centre, Karad.

(*iii*) Survey, Education and Treatment Units at Patan. Phaltan, Wai, Aundh, Mhaswad, Shirval, Lonand, Dhebewadi, Nagthana, Indoli and Koregaon.

5. Control of small-pox and intensification of vaccination work in the district :—

Government have sanctioned seven additional posts of vaccinators and seven attendants to the vaccinators for intensification of vaccination work and control of small-pox in the district.

6. The Public Health Department has undertaken the schemes of B. C. G. Vaccination as a preventive measure against tuberculosis. The work is being looked after by the Assistant Director of Public Health in charge of the B. C. G. Vaccination and T. B. Control, Poona. The B. C. G. Team performs vaccination in the district turn by turn.

7. The scheme of establishment of primary health centres in Community Development, Stage I Blocks has been undertaken and proposals for establishment of two primary health centres in Koregaon, one in Jaoli and two in Khatav are under consideration. The expenditure on the establishment of these centres is being met with from the Block Funds.

It has been proposed to establish 17 additional family planning centres, 12 survey, education and treatment units and more leprosy subsidiary centres during the Third Five-Year Plan. The expenditure on Family Planning Programme and control of leprosy is to be borne by Government and the work of the staff is to be supervised by the Public Health Department.

The additional staff sanctioned for intensification of vaccination in the Second Five Year Plan has been continued. The Small-pox Eradication Programme may also be undertaken in the district as soon as the Government orders are received.

The schemes such as immunisation against hooping cough, diphtheria and titanus may be undertaken if funds allow.

SCHEMES TRANSFERRED.

Out of the activities that were being undertaken by this office prior to 1st May 1962, only family planning and leprosy contiol programme have been transferred on agency basis. All other activities have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad under section 100 of the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961.

CONCLUDING REMARKS.

Prior to 1st May 1962 i.e. before the formation of Zilla Parishad the work of Medical Department and Public Health was looked after by two independent Officers. Now, all the medical and public health activities in rural areas have been entrusted to the Health Department, Zilla Parishad, Satara. The activities have increased to a considerable extent. Co-operation from the rural public will help the department in implementing the schemes.

INDUSTRIES AND CO-OPERATION DEPARTMENT.

THE INDUSTRIES AND CO-OPERATION DEPARTMENT.

The Industries and Co-operation Department of the Zilla Parishad has been formed by transferring certain personnel from the office of the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara and the actual functioning has been started from 1st May, 1962.

The revised set-up of the Co-operative Department of the State Government came into existence from 1st March 1961 according to which the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, a Class I Officer was made the District Head and under him three Assistant Registrars were placed with territorial jurisdictions. The co-operative department was executing two types of functions, *viz.*, (1) regulatory and (2) promotional and external activities. According to the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961 the Zilla Parishad has been entrusted with the promotional and developmental activities with certain reservations for municipal areas. The regulatory functions have, however, been retained with the department. The details of

the staff, powers and functions of the Industries and Co-operation Department are as under :—

STAFF.

The head of this department in the Zilla Parishad is designated as Assistant Registrar, Industries and Co-operation Department and he is an officer of the Class II Service on deputation to Zilla Parishad. He is assisted by the co-operative officer and other staff allocated from the co-operation department and other absorbed departments.

Prior to 1st May 1962 there were three Assistant Registrars and field and ministerial staff under the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Satara, out of which almost all the staff has been allocated by the Department to the Zilla Parishad. Certain schemes are transferred from the Department of Industries, but no staff has been transferred to Zilla Parishad from that Department. In the new set-up the District Industrial Co-operative Officer is assisted by one Section officer and other subordinate staff.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS.

The subjects and functions transferred to the Zilla Parishad have been enumerated in items No. 75 to 83 of the first schedule of the Zilla Parishads Act and No. 150 to 159 in the Government Notification, Co-operation and Rural Development Department, dated 1st May 1962. The statutory powers vested in the Assistant Registrar, pertain to the registration of certain societies, approval to the amendment of their bye-laws and deciding appeals for non-admission to the membership. These functions will be carried out by the Assistant Registrar as per the instructions, circulars and policy directives, given by the department. Supervision over co-operative societies have been retained by the co-operative department of the State Government, though the administrative supervision over co-operative societies has been transferred to Zilla Parishad and is to be carried out through the Block Level Co-operative Officers under the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act. The item 79 of the first schedule, i.e., promotion and extension in respect of all types of co-operative societies is the main function of the Department now transferred to Zilla Parishad and this work also has to be got done through the Block Level Co-operative officers at the Panchayat Samiti 'level'. There is one post of Co-operative officer and one post of Assistant Co-operative Officer provided in the staff pattern and they are meant for scrutinizing and correspondence work regarding registration proposals, amendment proposals and for committee work, they will be practically non-touring officers and thus the Assistant Registrar will get the field work done through the Block-level Co-operative Societies.

The department considers applications of co-operative societies for financial aid. The powers of sanctioning the financial assistance are, however, vested in the District Deputy Registrar and higher officers. The department will also be carrying out the work of supervision and control over Market Committees and the Assistant Registrar has to work as a Government nominee on the Market Committees.

SCHEMES TRANSFERRED TO ZILLA PARISHAD.

The following schemes pertaining to Industries Department and Industrial Co-operatives have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad subject to certain conditions specified in the schedules :—

(1) Scheme for grant of financial assistance to small scale and cottage industries.

(2) Training institutes, centres and schools.

(3) Training-*cum*-production centres and production centres.

(4) Stipends to trainees in the training centres.

(5) Giving grants-in-aid and loans to individual craftsmen.

(6) Scheme for grants-in-aid to industrial co-operatives for management expenses.

(7) Organisation of handicrafts' co-operatives in Maharashtra State.

(8) Scheme for financial assistance to industrial co-operatives for purchase of tools and equipment.

(9) Scheme for financial assistance to industrial co-operatives for construction of godowns, etc.

(10) Scheme for grant of financial assistance to the industrial co-operative societies of Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes, other backward classes and *vimukta jatis*.

The following four centres and schools have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad on out-right basis by Government according to the principles of decentralization :—

1. Government Pit Tanning Centre, Satara.
2. Government Retanning and Finishing Centre, Satara.
3. Government Leather Working School, Wai.
4. Government Carpentry and Smithy School, Karad.

These schools and centres have been placed under the control of respective Block Development Officers though the technical supervision and control will be exercised by the Assistant Registrar.

BUDGET.

It will be seen that only a few schemes are transferred to this Department which pertain to Industries and Industrial Co-operatives and the co-operative functions do not involve any financial outlay. The budget provisions under various schemes made in the draft budget for the year 1962-63 are as under :—

		Rs.
1.	Industrial education, technical training schools and production centres.	95,127
2.	Grants to industrial co-operatives	2,400
3.	Loans to cottage and small scale industries ..	19,233
		1,16,760

It can be seen from the above that the work of supervision and control over co-operative societies is being shared by the Zilla Parishad with the Co-operative Department of State Government and co-ordinated efforts are needed for the extension activities to succeed well. The Department will therefore, try to keep in touch with the Government Departments and seek technical guidance from the District Deputy Registrar whenever required.

FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

Finance Department of the Satara Zilla Parishad is headed by the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer from Accountant General's Office.

He is assisted by Accounts Officer from the Maharashtra State Accounts Services Class-II.

The funds of the former Defunct bodies such as the District School Board and District Local Board have been taken over by the Finance Department.

The budgeted annual income of the District Local Board was :—

Receipts	.. Rs. 21,00,000.
Expenditure	.. Rs. 20,25,000.

The receipts of the District School Board were Rs. 65,00,000 and its expenditure was Rs. 65,00,000.

The powers, duties and functions of the Finance Department are referred to in the Accounts Code of the Zilla Parishad. Prior to 1st May 1962 the District Local Board and the District School Board were separate bodies having their own establishments consisting of an Accountant, a head clerk and clerks who maintained the accounts. From 1st May 1962 onwards the officers of the Zilla Parishad in the Finance Department will keep the Accounts of the Zilla Parishad and Panchayat Samitis at the district level. The revenues of the Zilla Parishad will be credited to the district funds and the expenditure will be made therefrom.

The Finance Department will have sections as under :—(1) Audit, (2) Accounts, (3) Budget and (4) Stores.

In order to carry out the working of each of the sections there will be a Head Accountant or Deputy Accountant and such a number of clerks as will be sanctioned from time to time.

The Finance Department has been given sufficient powers to keep control over the expenditure and financial activities of the several departments of the Zilla Parishad.

The accounts of the Zilla Parishad will be audited by the Audit Officer of the Local Fund Audit Department.

The Finance Department of the Zilla Parishad functions through the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer assisted by the Accounts Officer, the Deputy Accountant, Senior and Junior Assistants and others. The Chief Accounts and Finance Officer and the Accounts Officer are the officers of Class I and Class II service, respectively.

SECTION IX.

SPECIAL FEATURES.

Co-operative Consumers' Stores, Ltd., Satara.—Since the advent of the Zilla Parishad a number of new activities are being planned and executed. The Co-operative Consumers' Stores, Ltd., Satara, deserves a special mention. In the whole of the district the Zilla Parishad has about 4,000 servants scattered in the various Panchayat Samitis and at the district headquarters. All servants working at the district headquarters are share-holders of the stores which started functioning from 15th August 1962. The Consumers' Co-operative Stores is entirely managed by the servants of the Zilla Parishad. All cereals, food-grains, cosmetics, oils, stationery, etc., are supplied through the stores.

List of villages which have been declared as Underdeveloped Rural Areas.

Taluka Patan.

(1) Bhambe.
(2) Niwade.
(3) Sawarghar.
(4) Tondoshi.
(5) Murud.
(6) Kalambe.
(7) Maloshi.
(8) Kushi.
(9) Bambawade.
(10) Jalu.
(11) Maraloshi.
(12) Dhoronoshi.
(13) Ghot.
(14) Sadawaghapur.
(15) Dusale.
(16) Fatawade.
(17) Jalgewadi.
(18) Padloshi.
(19) Keloli.
(20) Dhyti.
(21) Nanegaon Kd.
(22) Nanegaon Bk.
(23) Khoneli.
(24) Dadholi.
(25) Derwan.
(26) Bibi.
(27) Sakhari.
(28) Deoghar T. Patan.
(29) Mendhoshi.
(30) Keral.
(31) Mandure.
(32) Niwakane.
(33) Chapholi.
(34) Diwashi Kd.
(35) Khiwashi.
(36) Ghanav.
(37) Chiteghar.
(38) Ambawade.
(39) Tamkane
(40) Ker.
(41) Katuwadi.
(42) Bondri.
(43) Pimploshi.
(44) Tolewadi
(45) Gheradategad.
(46) Karwat.
(47) Ghambit.
(48) Vatole.
(49) Kaloli.
(50) Tamkade.
(51) Mard T. Patan.
(52) Shiral.
(53) Nanel.
(54) Karate.
(55) Goshatwadi.
(56) Wanzole.
(57) Gadhaokhop.
(58) Wajegaon.
(59) Baje.
(60) Dastan.

(61) Chirmade.
(62) Nanimbe.
(63) Ambeghar T. Patan
(64) Gojegaon.
(65) Kati.
(66) Aral.
(67) Kusawade.
(68) Karanjawade.
(69) Rohine.
(70) Taloshi.
(71) Deoghar T. Helwak.
(72) Shirshinge.
(73) Punawali.
(74) Zadeli.
(75) Dicholi.
(76) Dhokavale.
(77) Kisrule.
(78) Shivandeshwar.
(79) Bhopoli.
(80) Ghatmatha.
(81) Kemashe.
(82) Dhankal.
(83) Nechal.
(84) Humbarli.
(85) Torane.
(86) Kondhavale.
(87) Nav.
(88) Ghotane.
(89) Kolane.
(90) Waghane.
(91) Mala.
(92) Patharpunj.
(93) Riswad.
(94) Chafer.
(95) Kadoli.
(96) Goware.
(97) Maneri.
(98) Taliya.
(99) Zakade.
(100) Gunjali.
(101) Lendori.
(102) Nerale
(103) Killemorgiri.
(104) Morgiri.
(105) Kokisare.
(106) Dhawade.
(107) Bahe.
(108) Dixi.
(109) Gureghar.
(110) Panchgani.
(111) Atoli.
(112) Timine.
(113) Paneri.
(114) Kodal.
(115) Humbharne.
(116) Kanir.
(117) Palashi.
(118) Gokul T. Patan.
(119) Ambeghar T. Marali.
(120) Ambrag.
(121) Wadikotewadi.
(122) Natoshi.
(123) Kusrund.
(124) Kalkewadi.
(125) Dawari.
(126) Addeo.
(127) Amrule.
(128) Belawade Kd.
(129) Udhawane.
(130) Manind.
(131) Ambawade Kd.
(132) Bacholi.
(133) Saleve.
(134) Rueale.
(135) Umarkanchan.
(136) Kolakarwadi.
(137) Satar.
(138) Kaale.
(139) Nigade.
(140) Kasani.
(141) Nivi.
(142) Gholil
(143) Jinti.
(144) Menth.
(145) Wazoli.

Peta Mahabaleswar :—Whole Peta
Taluka Satara

(1) Sonapur.
(2) Mandve.
(3) Kumathe.
(4) Asangaon.
(5) Paramale.
(6) Pilani.
(7) Kusawade.
(8) Karandi.
(9) Are T. Parali.
(10) Dare T. Parali.
(11) Pogarwadi.
(12) Kari.
(13) Sonawade.
(14) Ambale.
(15) Rayghar.
(16) Rajapurli.
(17) Wavadare.
(18) Rewande.
(19) Jambhe.
(20) Boposhi.
(21) Chikhali.
(22) Thoseghar.
(23) Pengaie.
(24) Palsawade.
(25) Borne.
(26) Parali.
(27) Gajawadi.
(28) Banghar.
(29) Kus Bk.
(30) Kus Kd.
(31) Khadgaon.
(32) Kameti T. Parali.
(33) Nitral.
(34) Katwadi Kd.
(35) Nigudmal.
(36) Tukewadi.
(37) Dighawale.
(38) Punawadi.

(39) Dahiwad.
(40) Lumanekhol.
(41) Sonawali.
(42) Kelawali.
(43) Sayali.
(44) Ashte.
(45) Lawanghar.
(46) Petri.
(47) Anawale.
(48) Ambawade Kd.
(49) Ambawade Bk.
(50) Bhondawade.
(51) Kaloshi.
(52) Kurul.
(53) Karanje T. Parali.
(54) Rohot.
(55) Rawadi.
(56) Kutawade.
(57) Pateghar.
(58) Venekhol.
(59) Newali.
(60) Alawadi.
(61) Dhavali.
(62) Bhambawali.
(63) Vadagaon.
(64) Sawali.
(65) Kurulbaji.
(66) Kurultijai.
(67) Kudeghar.
(68) Ghatwan.
(69) Atali.
(70) Kasani.
(71) Vele.
(72) Kamati T. Satara
(73) Saigaon.
(74) Dare Kd.
(75) Dare Bk.
(76) Yavateshwar.

APPENDIX II.

POPULATION FIGURES—1961 CENSUS.

RURAL AND URBAN POPULATION, DISTRICT SATARA, 1961.

Taluka or Peta.	RURAL		URBAN		TOTAL	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Javli	36,231	43,860	....	....	36,231	43,860
2. Karad	1,08,112	1,09,756	18,085	15,687	1,26,197	1,25,443
3. Khandala	31,211	31,953	....	....	31,211	31,953
4. Khatav	76,377	79,553	....	....	76,377	79,553
5. Koregaon	58,613	63,267	8,707 (a)	8,251 (a)	67,320	71,518
6. Mahabaleshwar .. .	6,037	6,579	6,216 (b)	5,538 (b)	12,253	12,117
7. Man	44,107	44,898	5,177	5,226	49,284	50,126
8. Patan . . .	87,112	93,389	.	....	87,112	93,389
9. Phaltan	60,552	60,547	10,149	8,854	70,701	69,401
10. Satara	67,048	75,556	25,600 (c)	23,109 (c)	92,648	98,565
11. Wai	40,323	46,596	8,898	8,928	49,221	55,525
District Total ..	6,15,723	6,55,954	82,832	75,595	6,98,555	7,31,550

(a) Includes Satara Road (*M.* 4,233, *F.* 3,565) and Rahimatpur (*M.* 4,474, *F.* 4,686).

(b) Includes Mahabaleshwar (*M.* 3,208, *F.* 2,821) and Panchgani (*M.* 3,008, *F.* 2,717).

(c) Includes Satara (*M.* 23,202, *F.* 21,151) and Satara Suburban (*M.* 2,398, *F.* 1,958).

AREA, HOUSES AND INMATES, 1961, URBAN AND RURAL, SATARA DISTRICT.

Taluka or Peta.	Area in Square Miles		Number of Houses		Number of Households		Total number of persons enumerated (including inmates of institutions and houseless persons). Persons		Males		Females	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
1. Javli	..	344·7	..	15,174	..	16,886	..	80,091	..	36,231	..	43,860
2. Karad	8·8	404·1	6,693	36,632	7,308	41,093	33,772	2,17,868	18,085	108,112	15,687	1,09,756
3. Khandala	..	203·3	.	11,059	..	12,581	..	63,164	..	31,211	..	31,953
4. Khatav	..	509·1	.	25,812	..	28,766	..	1,55,930	..	76,377	..	79,553
5. Koregaon	19 9	344·7	3,107	19,323	3,192	21,408	16,958	1,21,880	8,707	58,613	8,251	63,267
6. Mahabaleshwar	15·1	72·2	2,016	2,245	2,042	2,580	11,754	12,616	6,216	6,037	5,538	6,579
7. Man	34·1	521·9	1,993	16,530	2,023	16,986	10,405	89,005	5,177	44,107	5,228	44,898
8. Patan	..	513·5	..	32,791	.	37,790	..	1,80,501	..	87,112	..	93,389
9. Phaltan	30·3	425 5	3,597	20,229	3,626	22,727	19,003	1,21,099	10,149	60,552	8,854	60,547
10. Satara	3·6	349 8	10,002	25,426	10,242	27,659	48,709	1,42,604	25,600	67,048	23,109	75,556
11. Wai	11 3	217 8	3,462	13,917	3,481	16,567	17,826	86,919	8,898	40,323	8,928	46,596
District Total ..	123·1	3,906·6	30,870	2,19,138	31,914	2,45,043	1,58,427	12,71,675	82,832	6,15,723	75,595	6,55,954

AGE AND CIVIL CONDITION, SATARA DISTRICT, 1961.

Age Group	Married		Unmarried		Widowed and Divorced or Separated		Unspecified Status	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0—9	....	....	2,27,799	2,22,665	....	....	....	....
10—14	1,075	13,307	90,994	69,314	13	198	71	43
15—19	4,754	46,380	52,795	9,809	40	1,037	22	28
20—24	20,832	56,544	23,861	1,810	346	2,075	12	27
25—29	38,953	54,976	6,092	1,018	730	3,673	99	26
30—34	36,479	41,874	1,462	671	895	5,119	13	21
35—39	34,219	35,024	804	91	1,083	6,979	9	25
40—44	28,979	25,744	619	88	1,486	9,140	13	13
45—49	27,322	20,096	526	41	2,227	10,848	6	8
50—54	22,654	13,247	490	42	2,803	13,175	9	9
55—59	17,522	6,480	311	17	2,919	11,409	9	9
60—64	15,231	4,338	272	26	3,869	14,858	6	10
65—69	7,836	1,866	134	20	2,584	8,909	7	5
70 and above	11,348	1,465	186	25	5,803	16 529	6	6
Ages not stated	22	14	22	8	....	2	5	2
All Ages (Total)	2,67,226	3,21,355	4,06,327	3.05,645	24,798	1,03,951	254	232

POPULATION ENGAGED IN AGRICULTURE, 1961, SATARA DISTRICT.

Livelihood Classes	Males.	Females.
(*i*) Cultivators	220,814	264,493
(*ii*) Cultivating labourers and their dependants.	27,115	39,843

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS, 1961, SATARA DISTRICT.

Transport	Air	Railway	Road	Water	Post and Telegraphs
Persons ..	9	931	1,843	151	813

NUMBER OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN TRADE, 1961, SATARA DISTRICT.

Category of Trade	Number of Persons Engaged in	Category of Trade	Number of Persons Engaged in
1. Textiles ..	1,717	7. Clothing and toilet articles.	132
2. Skins and leather ..	47	8. Furniture ..	16
3. Wood ..	182	9. Other building materials.	36
4. Pottery, bricks and tiles. (Including building materials)	56	10. Means of transport and storage equipments.	46
5. Chemical Products. ..	136		
6. Food-Stuffs ..	8,129	11. Fuel ..	563

POPULATION BY RELIGION, 1961, SATARA DISTRICT.

Religion	Males	Females	Religion	Males	Females
Hindus ..	622,241	652,136	Muslims ..	24,590	23,592
Sikhs ..	172	34	Christians ..	986	970
Jains ..	3,628	3,389	Jews ..	9	14
Buddhists	46,693	51,188	Others ..	3	3
Zoroastrians ..	218	215	Religion not stated	15	9
Total ..	6,98,555	(Males)		7,31,550	(Females)

APPENDIX III.

CONVERSION FACTORS.

LENGTH

1 inch = 2·54 centimetres
1 foot = 30·48 centimetres
1 yard = 91·44 centimetres
1 mile = 1·61 kilometres
1 nautical mile (UK) = 1853·18 metres
1 nautical mile (international) = 1852 metres

AREA

1 square foot = 0·093 square metres
1 square yard = 0·836 square metres
1 square mile = 2·59 square kilometres
1 acre = 0·405 hectares

VOLUME

1 cubic foot = 0·023 cubic metre

CAPACITY

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4·55 litres
1 seer (80 tolas) = 0·937 litres
1 Madras measure = 1·77 litres

WEIGHT

1 tola = 11·66 grams
1 chhatak = 58·32 grams
1 seer = 933·10 grams
1 maund = 37·32 kilograms
1 palam = 34·99 grams
1 seer (24 tolas) = 279·93 grams
1 viss = 1·40 kilograms
1 maund (Madras) = 11·20 kilograms
1 candy = 223·94 kilograms
1 ounce = 28·35 grams
1 pound = 453·59 grams
1 hundred weight = 50·80 kilograms
1 ton = 1016·05 kilograms

TEMPERATURE

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° centigrade) + 32

METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

LENGTH

10 millimetres = 1 centimetre
100 centimetres = 1 metre
1000 metres = 1 kilometre
1852 metres = 1 nautical mile international.

AREA

100 square millimetres = 1 square centimetre
10,000 square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare
100 square metres = 1 are
100 ares = 1 hectare
100 hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre

VOLUME

1,000,000 cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre

CAPACITY

1000 millilitres = 1 litre
1000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHTS

1000 milligrams = 1 gram
1000 grams = 1 kilogram
1000 kilogram = 1 quintal
1000 kilograms = 1 tonne
200 milligrams = 1 carat

Abbreviations for Metric Units

(1) Decimal Multiples and Submultiples

Prefix	Value in Terms of Unit	Abbreviation
kilo ..	1000	k
centi ..	0·01 (10^{-2})	c
milli ..	0·001 (10^{-3})	m
micro ..	0·000001 (10^{-6})	u

(2) Weights

Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
tonne ..	1000 kg	t
quintal ..	100 kg	q
kilogram ..	1 kg	kg
gram ..	1 g	g
milligram ..	1 mg	mg
carat ..	200 mg	c
(3) Capacity		
kilolitre ..	1 000 l	l
litre	1 l	l
millilitre ..	1 ml	ml
(4) Volume		
cubic centimetre	m^3	m^3

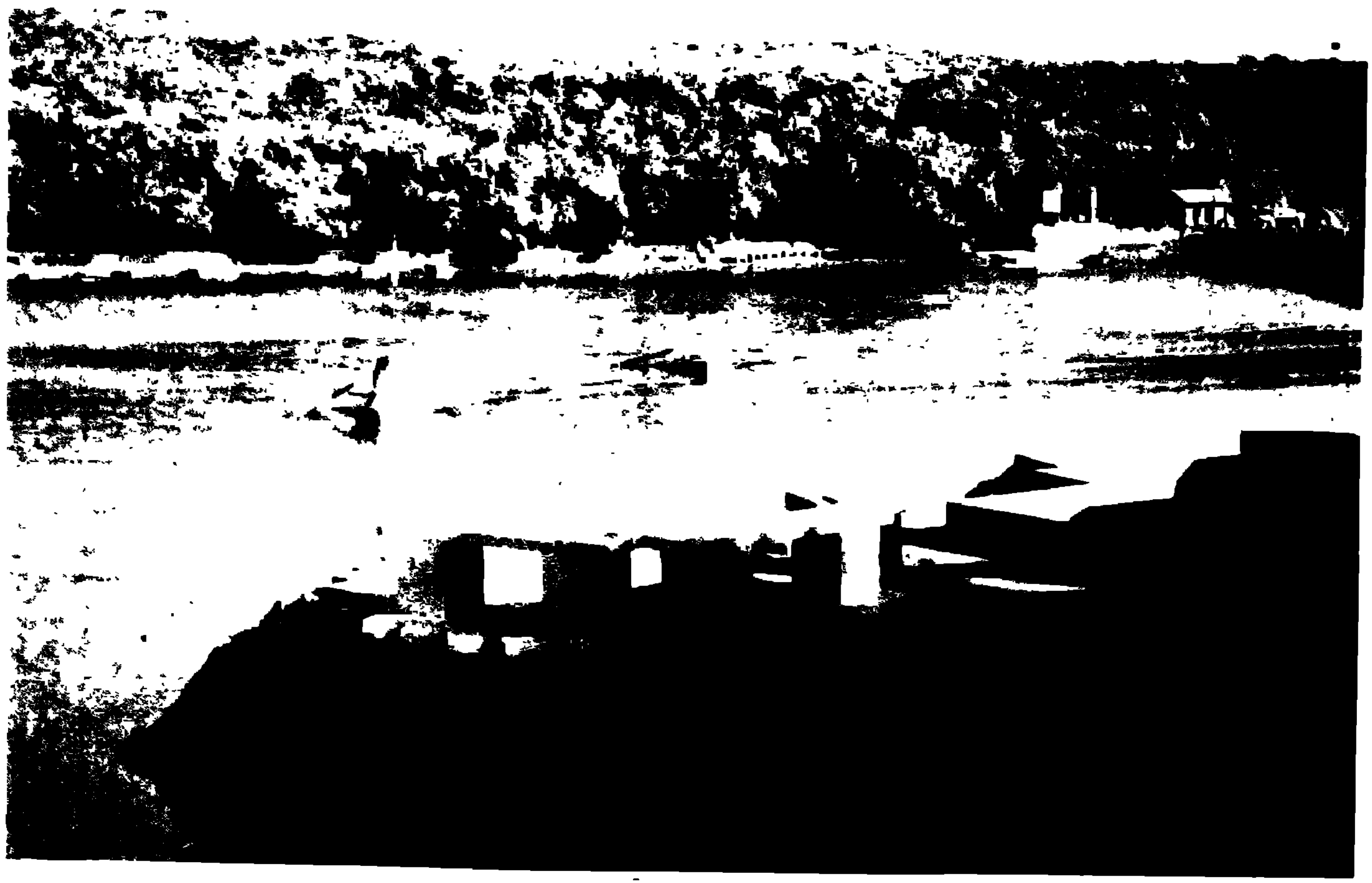
Denomination	Value	Abbreviation
cubic centimetre	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	mm^3	mm^3
(5) Length		
kilometre	1 000 m	km
metre	1 m	m
centimetre ..	1 cm	cm
millimetre ..	1 mm	mm
micron	1/1 000 mm or—10^{-3} mm	um
(6) Area		
square kilometre	1 000 000 m^2	km^2
square metre	1 m^2	m^2
square centimetre ..	1 cm^2	cm^2
square millimetre	1 mm^2	mm^2
(7) Land Measure		
are	100 m^2	a
hectare	100 a	ha
centiare	m^2	ca



Pratapgad



Krishna Ghat, Wai



Venna Lake, Mahabaleshwar



Bhavani Temple, Pratapgad

INDEX

BOMBAY : PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS.